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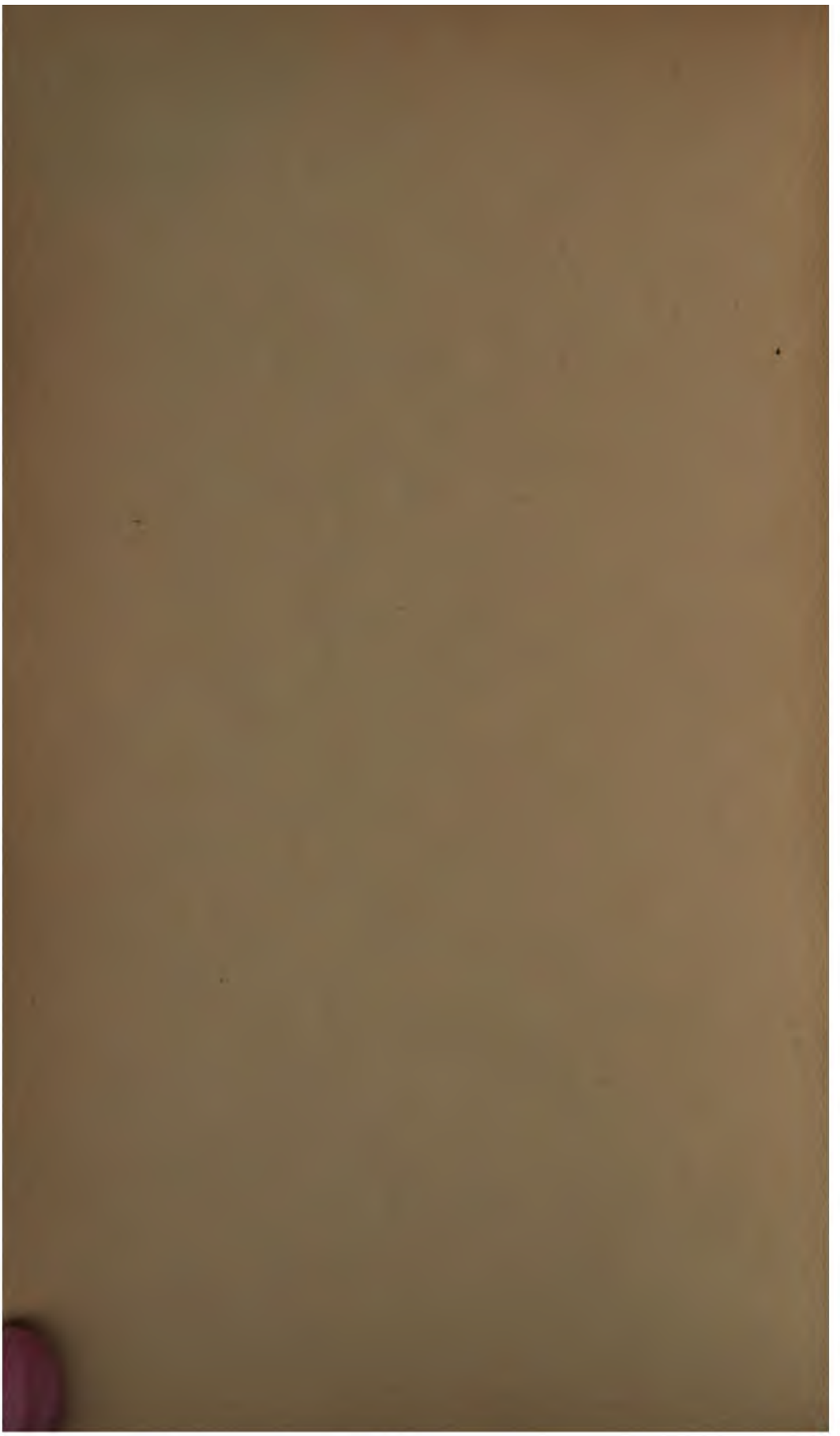

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OF

ANATOMY

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THE gratifying reception given to the Text-book of Anatomy, not only in this country but also in America, has rendered it necessary to prepare a new edition. In carrying out this work the whole book has been carefully revised, and a large number of new illustrations have been added.

The sections in which the chief changes and additions have been made are those upon Embryology, the Joints, the Muscles, the Brain and Spinal Cord, the Genito-Urinary Organs, the Lymphatics, and Applied Anatomy. By pruning down in various directions, it has been found possible to incorporate a considerable amount of new matter in these and other sections without materially increasing the bulk of the book.

The lamented death of Professor Birmingham was felt by all the contributors to be not only a personal loss, but one which materially affected an important section of the book. Although in very bad health, Professor Birmingham was desirous to undertake his share of the work, and he had the sheets on the Digestive System in his possession for this purpose when he died. There was probably no part of the book which required less revision than his, and the Editor has taken upon himself the duty of making the alterations which seemed essential. In doing this he has been careful to avoid unnecessary changes and to preserve throughout the original character of the article.

In the section upon the Muscular System, a series of illustrations has been added in which the areas of muscle attachment are delineated upon the bones. For the preparation of the specimens, and for assistance in the mapping out of these areas, the Editor is indebted to Dr. E. B. Jamieson. Those who have attempted work of this kind will appreciate the amount of labour and judgment entailed, as it is only by taking the average condition in many specimens, and by the close study of the bones selected for the delineations, that a sufficiently accurate result can be attained.

With the exception of the figures which have been added to the sections of the book dealing with Embryology, Osteology, and the Genito-Urinary Organs, the many new illustrations which appear in this edition have been prepared in the Anatomical Department of the University of Edinburgh. In carrying out this work, the Editor has again had the good fortune to secure the co-operation of Mr.

J. T. Murray, an artist whose ability in the rendering of anatomical subjects is recognised on all hands. Wherever it was felt that colour would increase the artistic effect or the general usefulness of an illustration, it has been freely employed, both in the case of the old and of the new figures.

The Editor cannot conclude this preface to the second edition of the Text-book without expressing his grateful acknowledgment of the assistance which has been so freely extended to him by his fellow-contributors at every stage of the work. He has also to thank many readers of the first edition for calling his attention to typographical errors and other imperfections which had escaped his notice in passing the sheets through the press.

18 Grosvenor Crescent, Edinburgh,
August 1905.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE form which this book has taken expresses the desire of those who have contributed the various sections to produce something which they might dedicate to their former teacher and master, Sir William Turner. With one exception, all the contributors have studied under Sir William Turner, and all but two have for longer or shorter periods acted as his Assistants. Bound together by this common tie, and animated by affection and reverence for their great master, they have sought to produce a book worthy of him whose teaching it so largely reflects, and if this object has not been attained it is not for want of will, but of power, on the part of the writers.

In the preparation of a work such as this it is no easy matter to prevent overlapping of the different articles and to keep the various sections in harmony with each other. Yet in this direction it is believed that a fair amount of success has been attained. Differences of opinion on particular points were bound to arise, but the Editor found in those concerned the greatest readiness to come to a mutual understanding, and he is deeply grateful to his colleagues for the manner in which they endeavoured to lighten his work and assist him in his task. Of course when totally different views were held by two authors on a matter which had to be dealt with in two sections, no serious attempt was made to urge these writers to qualify their statements so as to produce an apparent agreement. It was felt that if this were done the individuality of the author, which forms a characteristic feature of each article as it stands, would thereby be damaged; and further, it was believed that the same question discussed from two different points of view could not fail to be of advantage to the reader. At the same time it is right to state that the places in which a divergence of opinion appears are very few, and taking into account that nine writers have co-operated with the Editor, a remarkable degree of harmony in the treatment of the different sections has been obtained.

The recent introduction of Formalin as a hardening and preserving reagent imposed an especially arduous duty upon those writers who had undertaken the chapters dealing with the thoracic and abdominal viscera. The possibilities for establishing a more accurate topography and of improving our conception of the forms assumed by the viscera under different conditions have by this means been greatly extended; and in preparing the sections which treat of these organs the writers have taken full advantage of the new method. Much, therefore, which appears in this book on the topographical relations of the viscera departs considerably from the older and more conventional descriptions hitherto in vogue.

The arrangement of the matter treated in the following pages is very much the same as that adopted in the various courses of lectures delivered in the schools from which the different sections of the work have emanated. The first chapter is

devoted to the general principles and elementary facts of Embryology. Then follow, in an order best suited for the student, the chapters dealing with the various systems of organs; whilst the last seventy-five pages are used for the purpose of applying the information conveyed in the preceding part of the book to the practice of medicine and surgery. Each chapter is more or less complete in itself, although an effort has been made to weld them all into one consistent whole.

The numerous illustrations which appear in the text are all new in the sense that in no case has an old drawing or an old block been used. Further, the vast majority of the illustrations are new in the sense that they are original. The very few that are not have been taken from monographs dealing with the subjects so illustrated, and in every case the source from which these have been obtained is acknowledged in the text. The drawings for each section were prepared under the personal supervision of its author, and, with the exception of the figures in two chapters, they are the work of Mr. J. T. Murray. This talented artist has devoted much time to the undertaking, and the reader can judge for himself the success which has attended his efforts. The Editor cannot sufficiently express his indebtedness to Mr. Murray for the great technical skill and the patience which he brought to bear upon this extremely trying and difficult work. The chapter on Osteology has been illustrated by Mr. W. C. Stevens; that upon Embryology by the authors themselves; whilst the microscopical drawings in the section on the Brain and Cord were executed by Mr. Wm. Cathie. It is also necessary to mention that the coloured outlines representing the attachments of the muscles on the figures of the bones were mapped in by Professor A. M. Paterson.

The Editor has to thank his former Assistant, Professor A. F. Dixon of Cardiff, for much help in the correction of the proofs.

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The Index is the work of Dr. T. W. P. LAWRENCE.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION.

GENERAL EMBRYOLOGY.

	PAGE
e Animal Cell	8
Reproduction of Cells	9
e Ovum	10
Its Structure	10
Its Maturation	12
e Spermatozoon	14
rtilisation of the Ovum	16
Segmentation of Ovum	17
Formation of Blastodermic Vesicle	18
Ectoderm and Entoderm	19
Embryonic Area	19
Neural Groove and Tube	21
Formation of Notochord	24
Formation of Cœlom	24
Mesodermic Somites	26
Folding off of the Embryo	26
ıe Embryo	28
imitive Alimentary Canal	32
Pharynx and Stomatodæum	34
Visceral Clefts and Arches	35
Mouth and Nose	38
External Ear, Tympanic Cavity, and Eustachian Tube	43
Hind-gut, Anal Passage, and Post-anal Gut	45
The Limbs	46
Nutrition and Protection of Embryo during Intrauterine Existence	47
Fœtal Membranes and Appendages	48
Yolk-Sac	48
Amnion	48
Body-Stalk	50
Allantois	51
Umbilical Cord	51
Chorion	52
The Placenta	52
Primitive Vascular System and Fœtal Circulation	60
External Features of Human Embryo at different periods	65

OSTEOLOGY.

e Skeleton	69
Composition of Bone	70
Structure of Bone	71
Ossification and Growth of Bones	72
: Vertebral Column	74
e or Movable Vertebræ	76
Cervical Vertebræ	76
Thoracic Vertebræ	80
Lumbar Vertebræ	82
e or Fixed Vertebræ	83
Sacrum	83
Coccyx	86
ebral Column as a whole	87
ilaginous Vertebral Column	90
fication of Vertebræ	91
al Homologies of the Vertebræ	94
num	94
	97
al Cartilages	101
ax as a whole	101
s of the Skull	103
Frontal Bone	103
Parietal Bones	107
Occipital Bone	109
Temporal Bones	114
Sphenoid Bone	122
Ethmoid Bone	128
Wormian Bones	131
Bones of the Face	131
Superior Maxillary Bones	131
Malar Bones	135
Nasal Bones	137
Lachrymal Bones	138
Inferior Turbinated Bones	139
Vomer	140
Palate Bones	141
Inferior Maxillary Bone	143
Hyoid Bone	147
Skull as a whole	148
Norma Frontalis	148
Norma Lateralis	152
Norma Occipitalis	159
Norma Verticalis	159
Norma Basalis	160
Skull in Section	167
Upper Surface of the Base of the Skull	167
Mesial Sagittal Section of Skull	171

	PAGE
Skull in Section—*Continued.*	
Nasal Fossæ	173
Nasal Septum	173
Air-sinuses in connexion with Nasal Fossæ	174
Coronal Sections	175
Sexual Differences in Skull	177
Differences due to Age	177
Craniology	178
Development of Chondro-cranium and Morphology of Skull	181
Bones of Upper Extremity	184
Clavicle	184
Scapula	186
Humerus	190
Ulna	195
Radius	199
Carpal Bones	203
Carpus as a whole	208
Metacarpal Bones	209
Phalangeal Bones	212
Sesamoid Bones	214
Bones of the Lower Limb	214
Pelvic Girdle and Lower Extremity	214
Innominate Bone	214
Pelvis	220
Femur	224
Patella	230
Tibia	231
Fibula	235
Tarsus	239
Astragalus	239
Os Calcis	243
Navicular Bone	245
Cuneiform Bones	245
Cuboid Bone	247
Tarsus as a whole	248
Metatarsal Bones	249
Phalanges	251
Sesamoid Bones	253
Morphology of Limbs	253

ARTICULATIONS OR JOINTS.

Arthrology	255
Synarthroses	255
Movable Joints	256
Structures which enter into the Formation of Joints	257
Different Kinds of Movement at Joints	259
Development of Joints	259
Morphology of Ligaments	261
Ligaments of the Vertebral Column and Skull	261
Articulation of Atlas with Axis	265
Articulation of Spine with Cranium	266
Temporo-mandibular Joint	267
Cranial Ligaments not directly associated with Articulations	269
Joints of Thorax	269
Costo-central Joints	269
Costo-transverse Joints	270
Articulations between the Ribs and their Cartilages	271
Interchondral Joints	271
Costo-sternal Joints	271
Sternal Articulations	272
Articulations of the Superior Extremity	273
Articulations of the Clavicle	273
Sterno-clavicular Joint	273
Acromio-clavicular or Scapulo-clavicular Joint	274
Ligaments of Scapula	275
Shoulder-joint	276
Elbow-joint	279
Radio-ulnar Joints	281
Radio-carpal Joint	283
Carpal Joints	284
Intermetacarpal Joints	287
Carpo-metacarpal Joints	287
Metacarpo-phalangeal Joints	288
Interphalangeal Joints	288
Articulations and Ligaments of Pelvis	289
Lumbo-sacral Joints	289
Sacro-iliac Joint	290
Symphysis Pubis	292
Articulations of Lower Extremity	293
Hip-joint	293
Knee-joint	297
Tibio-fibular Joints	304
Joints of Foot	306
Ankle-joint	306
Intertarsal Joints	308
Tarso-metatarsal Joints	313
Intermetatarsal Joints	314
Metatarso-phalangeal Joints	314
Interphalangeal Joints	314

MUSCULAR SYSTEM.

Appendicular Muscles	318
Fasciæ and Muscles of Upper Limb	318
Fasciæ and Superficial Muscles of Back	318
Fasciæ and Muscles of Pectoral Region	321
Fasciæ and Muscles of Shoulder	327
Fasciæ and Muscles of Arm	332
Fasciæ and Muscles of Forearm and Hand	336
Front and Inner Aspect of Forearm	339
Short Muscles of Hand	345
Muscles on Back of Forearm	349
Fasciæ and Muscles of Lower Limb	355
Fasciæ and Muscles of Thigh and Buttock	355
Muscles on Front of Thigh	359
Muscles on Inner Side of Thigh	365
Muscles of Buttock	368
Muscles on Back of Thigh	372
Fasciæ and Muscles of Leg and Foot	376
Axial Muscles	391
Fasciæ and Muscles of Back	391
Fasciæ and Muscles of Head and Neck	399
Muscles of Thorax	422
Fasciæ and Muscles of Abdominal Wall	426
Fasciæ and Muscles of Perineum and Pelvis	434
Development and Morphology of Skeletal Muscles	441

NERVOUS SYSTEM.

	PAGE
CEREBROSPINAL NERVOUS SYSTEM	443
Nerve-fibres	444
Nerve-cells	445
Neuroglia	451
SPINAL CORD	452
Internal Structure of Spinal Cord	456
Characters presented by Cord in its Different Regions	460
Component Parts of Gray Matter of Spinal Cord	461
Component Parts of the White Matter of the Spinal Cord	465
Development of Spinal Cord	471
BRAIN OR ENCEPHALON	474
General Outline of Development of Brain	476
Parts of Encephalon derived from the Hind-brain	481
Medulla Oblongata or Bulb	481
Pons Varolii	486
Internal Structure of Medulla	489
Internal Structure of Pons Varolii	499
Cerebellum	505
Minute Structure of a Cerebellar Folium	512
Deep Connexions of Cranial Nerves attached to Medulla and Pons	514
Development of Parts derived from Rhombencephalon	526
Mesencephalon	531
Internal Structure of Mesencephalon	533
Deep Origin of Cranial Nerves which arise within the Mesencephalon	540
Development of Mesencephalon	542
Fore-brain	542
Parts derived from the Diencephalon	542
Optic Thalamus	542
Subthalamic Tegmental Region	546
Pineal Body	547
Trigonum Habenulæ	547
Corpora Mammillaria	548
Pituitary Body	549
Third Ventricle	550
Cerebral Connexions of Optic Tract	551
Parts derived from the Telencephalon	553
Cerebral Hemispheres	553
Olfactory Lobe	569
Corpus Callosum, Septum Lucidum, and Fornix	570
Lateral Ventricle	573
Basal Ganglia of Cerebral Hemisphere	579
Intimate Structure of Cerebral Hemisphere	584
Cerebral Cortex	584
Olfactory Tract and Bulb	587
White Medullary Centre of Cerebral Hemisphere	588
Development of Parts derived from Fore-brain	594
Weight of Brain	597
Meninges of Brain and Spinal Cord	597
Dura Mater	597
Arachnoidea	600
Pia Mater	603
SPINAL NERVES	607
Posterior Primary Divisions of Spinal Nerves	610
Cervical Nerves	611
Thoracic Nerves	613
Lumbar Nerves	613
Sacral and Coccygeal Nerves	613
Morphology of Posterior Primary Divisions	614
Anterior Primary Divisions of Spinal Nerves	615
Cervical Nerves	617
Cervical Plexus	617
Phrenic Nerve	621
Morphology of Cervical Plexus	622
Brachial Plexus	622
Branches of Brachial Plexus	624
Anterior Thoracic Nerves	626
Musculo-cutaneous Nerve	627
Median Nerve	627
Ulnar Nerve	629
Internal Cutaneous Nerve	631
Lesser Internal Cutaneous Nerve	632
Circumflex Nerve	632
Musculo-spiral Nerve	632
Radial Nerve	634
Posterior Interosseous Nerve	634
Subscapular Nerves	635
Thoracic Nerves	635
Lumbo-sacral Plexus	639
Lumbar Plexus	641
Obturator Nerve	643
Anterior Crural Nerve	645
Sacral or Sciatic Plexus	647
Great Sciatic Nerve	648
Nerves of Distribution from the Sacral Plexus	649
Peroneal Nerve	650
Anterior Tibial Nerve	651
Musculo-cutaneous Nerve	651
Tibial Nerve	652
Internal Plantar Nerve	654
External Plantar Nerve	654
Pudendal Plexus	655
Pudic Nerve	658
Development of Spinal Nerves	660
Morphology of Limb-plexuses	662
Distribution of Spinal Nerves to Muscles and Skin of Limbs	665
Variations in Position of Limb-plexuses	673
Significance of Limb-plexuses	674
CRANIAL NERVES	674
First or Olfactory Nerve	675
Second or Optic Nerve	675
Third or Oculo-motor Nerve	676
Fourth or Trochlear Nerve	677
Fifth, Trigeminal or Trifacial Nerve	678
Sixth or Abducent Nerve	686
Seventh or Facial Nerve	686
Eighth or Auditory Nerve	688
Ninth or Glosso-pharyngeal Nerve	689
Tenth or Pneumogastric Nerve	690
Thoracic Plexuses	693
Eleventh or Spinal Accessory Nerve	695
Twelfth or Hypoglossal Nerve	696
Development of Cranial Nerves	698
Morphology of Cranial Nerves	700
SYMPATHETIC NERVOUS SYSTEM	703
Cervical Part of Sympathetic Cord	706
Superior Cervical Ganglion	706
Middle Cervical Ganglion	708
Inferior Cervical Ganglion	708
Thoracic Part of Sympathetic Cord	708

PAGE

Lumbar Part of Sympathetic Cord . 710
Sacral Part of Gangliated Cord . . 711
Sympathetic Plexuses 712
Solar and Pelvic Plexuses . .
Development of Sympathetic System .
Morphology of Sympathetic System .

ORGANS OF SENSE AND THE INTEGUMENT.

NOSE 717
Cartilages of Nose 717
Nasal Fossæ 719
EYE 723
Eyeball 724
Sclera 725
Cornea 726
Vascular and Pigmented Tunic . . 727
Retina 731
Refracting Media of Eyeball . . . 735
Eyelids 738
Lachrymal Apparatus 740
Development of Eye 741
EAR 743
External Ear 743
Pinna . . . . . .
External Auditory Meatus . .
Middle Ear or Tympanic Cavity . .
Mastoid Antrum and Mastoid Aircells . . . . . .
Eustachian Tube . . . . .
Tympanic Ossicles . . . . .
Internal Ear . . . . . .
Osseous Labyrinth . . . . . .
Membranous Labyrinth . . . . .
Development of Labyrinth . .
ORGANS OF TASTE . . . . . .
SKIN OR INTEGUMENT . . . . .
Appendages of Skin . . . . .
Development of Skin and its Appendages

VASCULAR SYSTEM.

Structure of Blood-vessels . . . 780
HEART 783
Chambers of Heart 786
Structure of the Heart 791
Pericardium 793
ARTERIES 795
Pulmonary Artery 795
Systemic Arteries 797
Aorta 797
Thoracic Aorta 797
Abdominal Aorta 798
Branches of Ascending Aorta . . 800
Coronary Arteries 800
Branches of Arch of Aorta . . . 800
Innominate Artery 801
Arteries of Head and Neck . . . 801
Common Carotid Arteries . . . 801
External Carotid Artery 803
Branches of External Carotid Artery 804
Internal Carotid Artery 813
Branches of Internal Carotid Artery 814
Vertebral Artery 818
Arteries of Upper Extremity . . 821
Subclavian Arteries 821
Branches of Subclavian Artery . 823
Axillary Artery 827
Branches of Axillary Artery . . 828
Brachial Artery 830
Branches of Brachial Artery . . 831
Radial Artery 831
Ulnar Artery 834
Arterial Arches of Wrist and Hand 835
Branches of Descending Thoracic Aorta 837
Parietal Branches of Descending Thoracic Aorta 837
Visceral Branches of Descending Thoracic Aorta 838
Branches of Abdominal Aorta . . 839
Parietal Branches of Abdominal Aorta 839
Common Iliac Arteries 841
Paired Visceral Branches of Abdominal Aorta 842
Unpaired or Single Visceral Branches of Abdominal Aorta . . . 843
Internal Iliac Artery . . . . .
Branches of Posterior Division .
Branches of Anterior Division of Internal Iliac Artery . . .
Visceral Branches . . . . .
Parietal Branches of Anterior Division of Internal Iliac . . .
Arteries of Lower Extremity . .
External Iliac Artery . . . . .
Femoral Artery . . . . . .
Popliteal Artery . . . . . .
Posterior Tibial Artery . . . .
Plantar Arteries . . . . .
Anterior Tibial Artery . . .
VEINS . . . . . .
Pulmonary Veins . . . . . .
Systemic Veins . . . . . .
Coronary Sinus and Veins of Heart .
Superior Vena Cava and its Tributaries . . . . . .
Azygos Veins . . . . . .
Innominate Veins . . . . .
Veins of Head and Neck . . . .
Veins of Scalp . . . . . .
Veins of Orbit, Nose, and Pterygomaxillary Region . . . .
Venous Sinuses and Veins of Cranium, and of its Contents . . .
Diploic and Meningeal Veins . .
Veins of Brain . . . . . .
Blood Sinuses of Cranium . .
Spinal Veins . . . . . .
Veins of Upper Extremity . . .
Deep Veins of Upper Extremity .
Axillary Vein . . . . . .
Superficial Veins of Upper Extremity . . . . . .
Inferior Vena Cava and its Tributaries
Iliac Veins . . . . . .
Veins of Lower Extremity . . .
Deep Veins of Lower Extremity .
Superficial Veins of Lower Extremity . . . . . .
Portal System . . . . . .
Mesenteric and Splenic Veins . .

	PAGE
Lymph Vascular System	904
Terminal Lymph Vessels	906
Lymphatic Vessels and Glands of Head and Neck	909
Lymphatic Glands and Vessels of Upper Extremity	913
Lymphatic Glands and Vessels of Lower Extremity	916
Lymphatic Glands and Vessels of Abdomen and Pelvis	918
Lymphatic Glands and Lymphatic Vessels of Thorax	923
DEVELOPMENT OF BLOOD VASCULAR SYSTEM	925
Pericardium, the Primitive Aortæ, and Heart	925
Development of Heart, of first part of Aorta, and of Pulmonary Artery	928
Division of Heart into its different Chambers, and Division of Aortic Bulb	929
Aortic Arches—Formation of Chief Arteries	932
Primitive Dorsal Aortæ—Formation of Descending Aorta	933
Branches of Primitive Dorsal Aortæ	933
Arteries of Limbs	933
Development of Veins	934
Veins of Limbs	938
Pulmonary Veins	938
MORPHOLOGY OF VASCULAR SYSTEM	938
Segmental Arteries and their Anastomoses	939
Aorta, Pulmonary Artery, and other Chief Stem Vessels	942
Limb Arteries	943
Morphology of Veins	943
ABNORMALITIES OF VASCULAR SYSTEM	946
Abnormalities of Heart	946
Abnormalities of Arteries	947
Branches of Aorta	947
Arteries of Head and Neck	950
Arteries of Upper Limb	951
Iliac Arteries and their Branches	952
Arteries of Lower Limb	953
Abnormalities of Veins	954
Superior Vena Cava	954
Veins of Upper Extremity	955
Inferior Vena Cava	955
Veins of Lower Extremity	955
Abnormalities of Lymphatics	955

RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

Organs of Respiration and Voice	957
Larynx or Organ of Voice	957
Cartilages of Larynx	958
Joints, Ligaments, and Membranes of Larynx	961
Interior of Larynx	964
Laryngeal Muscles	968
Trachea	972
Bronchi	975
Thoracic Cavity	976
Pleural Membranes	977
Mediastinal or Interpleural Space	982
Lungs	983
Root of Lung	989
Structure of Lung	990
Development of Respiratory Apparatus	992

DIGESTIVE SYSTEM.

Mouth	995
Palate and Isthmus Faucium	998
Tongue	1000
Glands	1007
Salivary Glands	1009
Development of Salivary Glands, Palate, and Tongue	1013
Teeth	1014
Permanent Teeth	1016
Milk Teeth	1022
Structure of Teeth	1023
Development of Teeth	1025
Morphology of Teeth	1029
Pharynx	1029
Development of Pharynx and Tonsil	1037
Œsophagus	1038
Development of Œsophagus	1042
Abdominal Cavity	1043
Subdivision of Abdominal Cavity	1045
Peritoneum	1048
Stomach	1050
Structure of Stomach	1058
Intestines	1060
Structure of Intestines	1061
Small Intestine	1064
Duodenum	1065
Jejunum and Ileum	1071
Large Intestine	1074
Cæcum and Appendix	1076
Colon	1082
Rectum	1087
Anal Canal	1091
Peritoneum	1097
Development of Intestinal Canal and Peritoneum	1105
Liver	1108
Gall-Bladder and Bile Passages	1118
Vessels of Liver	1120
Structure of Liver	1121
Development of Liver	1122
Pancreas	1124
Development of Pancreas	1129

URINOGENITAL SYSTEM.

URINARY ORGANS	1130
Kidneys	1130
Bladder	1144
Urethra	1157
MALE REPRODUCTIVE ORGANS	1159
Testis	1159
Vas Deferens	1162
Descent of Testis	1167

	PAGE		
Spermatic Cord	1168	Fallopian Tubes	1
Scrotum	1169	Uterus	1
Penis	1170	Vagina	1
Prostate	1173	Female External Genital Organs	1
Cowper's Glands	1176	Glands of Bartholin	1
Male Urethra	1177	Development of Urinogenital Organs	1
FEMALE REPRODUCTIVE ORGANS	1181	Mammary Glands	1
Ovary	1182	Development of Mammæ	1

DUCTLESS GLANDS.

Spleen	1210	Parathyroids	1
Suprarenal Capsules	1213	Thymus Gland	1
Thyroid Body	1216	Carotid and Coccygeal Bodies	1

SURFACE AND SURGICAL ANATOMY.

Head and Neck	1222	Upper Extremity	1
Cranium	1222	Shoulder	1
Face	1236	Axilla	1
Neck	1246	Upper Arm	1
Thorax	1253	Elbow	1
Lungs	1255	Forearm and Hand	1
Heart and Great Vessels	1262	Lower Extremity	1
Abdomen	1264	Buttock	1
Anterior Abdominal Wall	1264	Back of the Thigh	1
Abdominal Cavity	1267	Popliteal Space	1
Male Perineum	1277	Front of Thigh	1
Prostate	1278	Knee	1
Female Pelvis	1282	Leg	1
Back	1284	Foot and Ankle	1

INDEX 1

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

GENERAL EMBRYOLOGY.

FIG.		PAGE
1.	Horizontal Section through Trunk at Level of First Lumbar Vertebra	4
2.	Diagram of an Animal Cell	8
3.	Cell Division	9
4.	The Ovum and its Coverings	11
5.	Maturation of the Ovum: Extrusion of the "Polar Bodies"	12
6.	Diagram illustrating the Maturation of the Ovum	13
7.	Diagram illustrating the Process of Cell-Division resulting in the Formation of Spermatids which are afterwards modified into Spermatozoa	14
8.	Human Spermatozoa	15
9.	Structure of a Human Spermatozoon	15
10.	Fertilisation of the Ovum	16
11.	Segmentation of the Fertilised Ovum in the Rabbit	17
12.	Conversion of the Morula to the Blastula	18
13.	Surface View of the Blastodermic Vesicle	19
14.	The Upper Pole of the Blastodermic Vesicle	20
15.	Transverse Section of a Ferret Embryo	20
16.	Transverse Section of a Ferret Embryo	21
17.	Surface Areas of the Blastoderm	23
18.	Sections showing the different Areas of the Blastodermic Vesicle	24
19.	Extension of Mesoderm and Formation of Cœlom	25
20.	Surface View of an Early Embryo	25
21.	Early Stages in the Folding-off of the Embryo	27
22.	The Relative Positions of the Blastodermic Layers in the Body of the Embryo when the "Folding-off" is completed	28
23.	Transverse Section of a Ferret Embryo	29
24.	Further Differentiation of the Mesoderm	29
25.	Coronal Section of a Rat Embryo	30
26.	Transverse Section of a Rat Embryo	31
27.	Diagram of a Developing Ovum, seen in Longitudinal Section	32
28.	Diagram representing the Condition of the Alimentary Canal in a Human Embryo about fifteen days old (modified from His)	33
29.	Further Development of the Alimentary Canal, as seen in a Human Embryo about five weeks old	34
30.	Stages in the Formation of the Tongue and Upper Aperture of the Larynx in the Human Embryo (after His)	36
31.	Head of Human Embryo (four views; two after His)	39
32.	Head of Human Embryo (four views; two after His)	40
33.	Head of Human Embryo (two views; one after His)	41
34.	Vertical Section through Head of Rat Embryo	42
35.	Transverse Section through the Head of a Rat Embryo	43
36.	Figures, modified from His, illustrating the Formation of the Pinna	44
37.	Diagrams showing the Separation of the Cloacal Part of the Hind-gut into Genito-urinary Tract and Rectum	46
38.	Transverse Sections of the Uterus and Developing Ovum of a Ferret	49
39.	Very young Human Ovum almost immediately after its entrance into the Decidua	53
40.	Relation of the young Human Ovum to the Decidua	53
41.	Further Stage of Development of the Human Ovum and its Relation to the Decidual Tissues	54
42.	Completion of the Decidua Capsularis, etc.	54
43.	Enlargement of the Blood Sinuses in the Maternal Part of the Placenta and the Closure of the Amnion	55
44.	Fœtal Ectoderm surrounding the Maternal Blood Sinuses, etc.	55
45.	Further Growth of the Placental Sinuses and Villi, etc.	56
46.	Later Stage in the Development of the Placenta	58

FIG.		PAGE
47.	Development of Blood-Vessels in the Vascular Area of the Rat	61
48.	The Primitive Blood-Vessels of the Embryo	62
49.	Blood-Vessels of a Mammalian Embryo after the Formation of the Heart	63
50.	Diagram of the Fœtal Circulation	64
51.	Human Embryo at the end of the 12th, 13th, and 14th days of Development (after His)	65
52.	Human Embryo at the 21st, 23rd, and 27th days of Development (after His)	66
53.	Human Embryo at the 29th and 32nd days of Development (after His)	67
54.	Human Fœtus at the sixth week of Development (after His)	67
55.	Human Fœtus six and a half weeks old (after His)	67
56.	Human Fœtus eight and a half weeks old (after His)	68

OSTEOLOGY.

57.	Fifth Thoracic Vertebra	75
58.	Fifth Thoracic Vertebra	75
59.	Fourth Cervical Vertebra	77
60.	The Atlas from Above	78
61.	Axis from Behind and Above	79
62.	Axis from the Left Side	79
63.	First, Ninth, Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Thoracic Vertebræ from the Left Side	81
64.	Third Lumbar Vertebra from Above and from the Left Side	82
65.	The Sacrum (anterior view)	84
66.	The Sacrum (posterior view)	85
67.	The Coccyx	86
68.	Vertebral Column from the Left Side	88
69.	Vertebral Column as seen from Behind	89
70.	Ossification of Vertebræ	91
71.	Ossification of Vertebræ	92
72.	Ossification of Sacrum	93
73.	The Sternum (anterior view)	95
74.	Ossification of the Sternum	96
75.	Fifth Right Rib as seen from Below	98
76.	Fifth Right Rib as seen from Behind	99
77.	First and Second Right Ribs as seen from Above	99
78.	The Thorax as seen from the Front	101
79.	The Thorax as seen from the Right Side	102
80.	Frontal Bone (anterior view)	104
81.	Frontal Bone as seen from Below	105
82.	Ossification of Frontal Bone	106
83.	Right Parietal Bone (outer side)	107
84.	Right Parietal Bone (inner surface)	108
85.	Occipital Bone as seen from Below	110
86.	Occipital Bone (inner surface)	111
87.	Ossification of Occipital Bone	113
88.	Right Temporal Bone as seen from the Outer Side	115
89.	Right Temporal Bone (inner side)	116
90.	Right Temporal Bone as seen from Below	118
91.	Vertical Transverse Section through Left Temporal Bone (anterior half of section)	120
92.	Vertical Transverse Section through Left Temporal Bone (posterior half of section)	120
93.	Horizontal Section through Left Temporal Bone (lower half of section)	121
94.	The Outer and Inner Surfaces of the Right Temporal Bone at Birth	122
95.	Sphenoid as seen from Behind	123
96.	Sphenoid as seen from the Front	123
97.	Ossification of Sphenoid	127
98.	Ethmoid as seen from Behind	128
99.	Ethmoid as seen from the Right Side	129
100.	Section showing Nasal Aspect of Left Lateral Mass of Ethmoid	129
101.	Showing Articulation of Inferior Turbinated Bone with Ethmoid	130
102.	Ethmoid as seen from Above	130
103.	Right Superior Maxilla (outer view)	132
104.	Right Superior Maxilla (inner aspect)	132
105.	Ossification of Superior Maxilla	135
106.	Right Malar Bone	136
107.	Inner Surface of Malar Bone at Birth	137
108.	Right Nasal Bone	138
109.	Right Lachrymal Bone	138
110.	Right Inferior Turbinated Bone	139
111.	Vomer as seen from the Right Side	140
112.	Right Palate Bone	141
113.	Right Palate Bone as seen from Behind	142
114.	The Lower Jaw as seen from the Left Side	144
115.	The Inner Side of the Right Half of the Lower Jaw	145
116.	Lower Jaw at Birth	146
117.	The Hyoid Bone as seen from the Front	147
118.	Norma Frontalis	150
119.	Norma Lateralis	153
120.	Coronal Section through the Spheno-maxillary Fossa of the Right Side	158
121.	Norma Basalis	161
122.	Base of the Skull as seen from Above	168
123.	Inner Aspect of Left Half of Skull sagittally divided	172
124.	Nasal Septum as seen from the Left Side	174
125.	Part of the Frontal, Nasal, and Superior Maxillary Bones removed in order to display the relation of the various cavities exposed	175
126.	Coronal Section passing inferiorly through interval between First and Second Molar Teeth	176
127.	View of the Chondro-Cranium of a Human Fœtus	182
128.	Right Clavicle as seen from Above	184
129.	Right Clavicle as seen from Below	185
130.	Ossification of the Clavicle	186
131.	The Right Scapula as seen from Behind	187

FIG. PAGE

132. The Right Scapula as seen from the Front 188
133. Ossification of the Scapula . . 190
134. Anterior View of the Right Humerus 191
135. Posterior View of the Right Humerus 192
136. The Head of the Right Humerus as seen from Above 193
137. The Lower Extremity of the Right Humerus as seen from Below . 193
138. The Lower End of the Right Humerus as seen from the Outer Side 193
139. Ossification of the Humerus . . 195
140. The Right Ulna as viewed from the Outer Side 196
141. The Radius and Ulna as seen from the Front 198
142. The Ossification of the Ulna . . 199
143. The Radius and Ulna as seen from Behind 200
144. The Ossification of the Radius . 202
145. The Bones of the Right Wrist and Hand as seen from the Front . 203
146. The Bones of the Right Wrist and Hand as seen from Behind . . 204
147. The Right Scaphoid Bone . . 205
148. The Right Semilunar Bone . . 205
149. The Right Cuneiform Bone . . 206
150. The Right Pisiform Bone . . 206
151. The Right Trapezium 206
152. The Right Trapezoid 207
153. The Right Os Magnum 207
154. The Right Unciform Bone . . 208
155. Radiograph of the Hand at Birth . 209
156. First Right Metacarpal Bone . . 210
157. Second Metacarpal Bone . . 210
158. Third Metacarpal Bone . . . 211
159. Fourth Metacarpal Bone . . 211
160. Fifth Metacarpal Bone . . . 211
161. The Phalanges of the Fingers . 213
162. Radiographs of Fœtal Hands. . 213
163. The Right Innominate Bone as seen from the Outer Side . . . 215
164. The Right Innominate Bone . . 216
165. Ossification of the Innominate Bone 220
166. Male Pelvis as seen from the Front 221
167. Female Pelvis as seen from the Front 221

FIG. PAGE

168. Right Femur as seen from the Front 224
169. Right Femur as seen from Behind. 225
170. Back View of Upper End of Right Femur 226
171. Lower End of Right Femur . . 228
172. Lower End of Right Femur as seen from below 228
173. Ossification of Femur 230
174. Right Patella 230
175. Upper Surface of Superior Extremity of Right Tibia . . 231
176. Right Tibia and Fibula as seen from the Front 232
177. Ossification of the Tibia . . 235
178. Right Tibia and Fibula as seen from Behind 236
179. Right Fibula as seen from the Inner Side 237
180. Ossification of Fibula 239
181. Bones of the Right Foot as seen from Above 240
182. Bones of the Right Foot as seen from Below 241
183. The Right Astragalus 242
184. The Right Astragalus 242
185. The Right Os Calcis as seen from Above 243
186. The Right Os Calcis as seen from Below 243
187. The Right Os Calcis 244
188. Right Navicular Bone 245
189. Anterior View of the three Cuneiform Bones of the Right Foot . 246
190. Right Internal Cuneiform . . 246
191. Right Internal Cuneiform . . 246
192. Right Middle Cuneiform . . 246
193. Right Middle Cuneiform . . 246
194. Right External Cuneiform . . 247
195. Right External Cuneiform . . 247
196. Right Cuboid Bone 248
197. Radiographs of the Fœtal Foot . 249
198. The First Metatarsal Bone of the Right Foot 250
199. View of the Bases and Shafts of the Second, Third, and Fourth Metatarsal Bones of the Right Foot 250
200. Fifth Right Metatarsal Bone . . 251
201. The Phalanges of the Toes . . 252
202. Radiographs of the Fœtal Foot . 252

THE ARTICULATIONS OR JOINTS.

203. Vertical Section through a Suture. 255
204. Section through the Occipito-sphenoid Synchondrosis . . 256
205. Sutura Serrata 256
206. Diagram of a Diarthrodial Joint . 257
207. Diagram of a Diarthrodial Joint . 258
208. Mesial Section through a portion of the Lumbar part of the Spine . 262
209. Anterior Common Ligament of the Vertebral Column, and the Costo-vertebral Joints as seen from Front 262
210. Posterior Common Ligament of the Vertebral Column . . . 263
211. Ligamenta Subflava 264
212. Mesial Section through the Occipito-atloid and Atlo-axoid Joints 265
213. Dissection from Behind of the Ligaments connecting the Occipital Bone, the Atlas, and the Axis with each other 266
214. Temporo-mandibular Joint . . 267
215. Section through Temporo-mandibular Joint 268
216. Internal Lateral Ligament of the Temporo-maxillary Joint . . 268
217. Sterno-clavicular and Costo-sternal Joints 272
218. Capsule of the Shoulder-joint and Coraco-acromial Ligament . . 276
219. Capsular Ligament of Shoulder-joint cut across and Humerus removed 277
220. Vertical Section through the Shoulder-joint 278

FIG.		PAGE
221.	Anterior View of Elbow-joint	279
222.	Elbow-joint (inner aspect)	280
223.	Vertical Section through the Trochlear part of the Elbow-joint	281
224.	Orbicular Ligament of the Radius.	282
225.	Carpal Articular Surface of the Radius, and Triangular Fibro-Cartilage of the Wrist	282
226.	Ligaments on Anterior Aspect of Radio-carpal, Carpal, and Carpo-metacarpal Joints	284
227.	Coronal Section through the Radio-carpal, Carpal, Carpo-metacarpal, and Intermetacarpal Joints to show Joint Cavities and Inter-osseous Ligaments (diagrammatic)	286
228.	Metacarpo-phalangeal and Inter-phalangeal Joints	288
229.	Coronal Section of Pelvis	290
230.	Posterior View of the Pelvic Ligaments and of the Hip-joint.	291
231.	Dissection of the Hip-joint	294
232.	Dissection of the Hip-joint from the Front	296
233.	Dissection of the Knee-joint from the Front	298
234.	The Knee-joint (posterior view)	299
235.	The Knee-joint opened from behind by the removal of the Posterior Ligament	301
236.	Upper End of Tibia	302
237.	Ankle-joint dissected from Behind	305
238.	Articular Surfaces of Tibia and Fibula which are opposed to the Astragalus	306
239.	Ankle and Tarsal-joints from the Tibial Aspect	307
240.	Ligaments on the Outer Aspect of the Ankle-joint and on the Dorsum of the Tarsus	308
241.	The Composite Articular Socket for the Head of the Astragalus.	309
242.	Plantar Aspect of Tarsal and Tarso-metatarsal Joints.	310

THE MUSCULAR SYSTEM.

243.	Muscle-Attachments to the Clavicle	319
244.	Superficial Muscles of the Back	320
245.	Muscle-Attachments to the Scapula (posterior surface)	321
246.	Muscle-Attachments to the Front of the Sternum	322
247.	Anterior Muscles of the Trunk	323
248.	Muscle-Attachments to the Clavicle (under surface)	324
249.	The Serratus Magnus Muscle.	325
250.	Muscle-Attachments to the Scapula (anterior aspect)	325
251.	Deltoid Region and Back of the Arm	327
252.	Posterior Wall of the Axilla and the Front of the Arm.	328
253.	Muscle-Attachments to the Front of the Humerus	329
254.	Muscle-Attachments to the Scapula (posterior surface)	330
255.	Superficial Muscles on the front of the Arm and Forearm.	333
256.	The Muscles on the Back of the Arm, Forearm, and Hand	334
257.	Muscle-Attachments to the Front of the Humerus	335
258.	Muscle-Attachments to the Back of the Humerus	335
259.	The Palm of the Hand	337
260.	The Muscles and Tendons in the Palm of the Hand	338
261.	Section Across the Forearm in the Middle Third	340
262.	The Muscles and Nerves on the Front of the Forearm and Hand.	341
263.	The Tendons attached to the Index Finger.	342
264.	Muscle-Attachments to the Radius and Ulna (Anterior Aspects)	343
265.	Deep Muscles on the Front of the Forearm and Hand	344
266.	Short Muscles of the Hand	345
267.	Muscle-Attachments to the Palmar Aspect of the Carpus and Metacarpus	346
268.	The Palmar Interosseous Muscles	347
269.	Muscle-Attachments to the Dorsal Aspect of the Metacarpus	348
270.	Dorsal Interosseous Muscles of the Hand	348
271.	Muscle-Attachments to the Radius and Ulna	351
272.	The Muscles of the Back of the Forearm	352
273.	The Groin	356
274.	The Groin	357
275.	Superficial Muscles of the Back	358
276.	The Muscles on the Front of the Thigh	360
277.	Muscle-Attachments to the Anterior Surface of the Upper Part of the Femur	361
278.	Transverse Section of the Thigh (Hunter's Canal).	362
279.	Muscle-Attachments to the inner side of the Upper Part of the Tibia	363
280.	Muscles and Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus	364
281.	Muscle-Attachments to the Posterior Aspect of the Upper Part of the Femur.	365
282.	Muscle-Attachments to the Outer Surface of the Pubis and Ischium	366
283.	Scheme of the Course and Distribution of the Obturator Nerve	367
284.	Posterior Surface of the Thigh	368
285.	Muscle-Attachments to the Dorsum Ilii and Tuber Ischii	369
286.	Muscle-Attachments to the Posterior Aspect of the Upper Part of the Femur.	370
287.	The Gluteus Maximus Muscle	370
288.	The Muscles and Nerves of the Buttock	371
289.	Muscle-Attachments to the Upper Aspect of the Great Trochanter of the Femur	371
290.	Muscle-Attachments to the Dorsum Ilii and Tuber Ischii	373

FIG. PAGE

291. The Muscles on the Back of the Thigh 374
292. Muscle-Attachments to the Inner Side of the Upper Part of the Tibia 374
293. Coronal Section through the Left Ankle Joint (Astragalus and Calcaneum) 377
294. The Plantar Fascia and Plantar Cutaneous Nerves . . . 378
295. Muscle-Attachments to Tarsus and Metatarsus 379
296. Muscles of the Front of the Right Leg and Dorsum of the Foot . 380
297. The Insertions of the Peroneus Longus and Tibialis Posticus Muscles in the Sole of the Right Foot 381
298. The Soleus Muscle 382
299. Muscle-Attachments to the Posterior Surface of the Tibia . . . 383
300. The Deep Muscles on the Back of the Left Leg 383
301. The Muscles of the Right Foot . 384
302. Muscle-Attachments to Tarsus and Metatarsus 386
303. The Muscles of the Right Foot . 387
304. The Muscles of the Right Foot . 387
305. Interosseous Muscles of the Foot . 388
306. Transverse Section through the Abdomen, opposite the Second Lumbar Vertebra 391
307. Schematic Representation of the parts of the Erector Spinæ Muscle 392
308. Scheme of Muscular-Attachments to the Transverse Processes of the Cervical Vertebræ . . . 393
309. Deeper Muscles of Back . . 394
310. The Suboccipital Triangle . . 396
311. Muscle-Attachments to the Sacrum 396
312. Muscle-Attachments to Occipital Bone 397
313. Transverse Section in the Cervical Region 400
314. The Muscles of the Face and Scalp 402
315. Transverse Vertical Section through the Orbit behind the Eyeball to show the arrangement of Muscles 405
316. Muscles of the Orbit . . . 405
317. Muscles of the Orbit 406
318. Schematic Representation of the Nerves which traverse the Cavity of the Orbit 406
319. Muscle-Attachments to the Outer Aspect of the Lower Jaw . . 407
320. Muscles of Mastication . . . 408
321. Muscle-Attachments on the inner side of the Lower Jaw . . 408
322. Muscles of Mastication, deeper view 409

FIG. PAGE

323. Pterygoid Region 409
324. Muscle-Attachments to Occipital Bone 411
325. Muscles of the Hyoid Bone and Styloid Process, and the Extrinsic Muscles of the Tongue, with their Nerves 412
326. Triangles of the Neck 413
327. Muscle-Attachments on the inner side of the Lower Jaw . . 414
328. Posterior view of the Pharynx and Constrictor Muscles . . . 417
329. Lateral View of the Wall of the Pharynx 418
330. Muscle-Attachments to the Upper Surface of the First Rib and the Outer Surface of the Second Rib 420
331. The Prævertebral Muscles of the Neck 420
332. Scheme of Muscular-Attachments to Cervical Vertebræ . . . 421
333. Muscle-Attachments to Occipital Bone 421
334. Muscles of the Thoracic Wall . 423
335. The Diaphragm (from below) . 424
336. View of the Posterior Abdominal Wall, to show the Muscles and the Nerves of the Lumbo-sacral Plexus 425
337. The Groin 427
338. Transverse Section through the Abdomen 428
339. The Groin 428
340. Anterior Muscles of the Trunk . 429
341. The Groin 430
342. The Groin 431
343. Sheath of the Rectus Abdominis Muscle 432
344. View of the Posterior Abdominal Wall to show the Muscles and the Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus 433
345. Muscles and Nerves of the Male Perineum 435
346. Muscles of the Female Perineum (after Peter Thompson) . 436
347. Triangular Ligament of the Perineum, and the Termination of the Pudic Nerve 437
348. Dissection of the Pelvic Fascia from above 438
349. Oblique Section across the Pelvis . 439
350. Outer Wall of the Pelvis . . 439
351. Fascial and Muscular Wall of the Pelvis after removal of part of the Left Innominate Bone . . 440
352. Scheme to illustrate the disposition of the Myotomes in the Embryo in relation to the Head, Trunk, and Limbs 442

THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.

353. Nerve-fibre from a Frog (after v. Kölliker) 444
354. Three Nerve-Cells from the Anterior Horn of Gray Matter of the Human Spinal Cord . . . 445
355. Two Multipolar Nerve-Cells . . 446
356. Nerve-Cell from Cerebellum (Professor Symington) . . . 446
357. Transverse Section through the early Neural Tube (Alfred H. Young) 447
358. Developmental Stages exhibited by

FIG.		PAGE
	a Pyramidal Cell of the Brain (after Ramón y Cajal)	447
359.	Diagram of the Connexion established by a Ganglionic and a Motor Neuron (Ramón y Cajal)	449
360.	Three Stages in the development of a Cell from a Spinal Ganglion	449
361.	Nerve-Cells as depicted by Bethe	450
362.	Section through the Central Canal of the Spinal Cord of a Human Embryo (after v. Lenhossek)	451
363.	Human Fœtus in the third month of Development, with the Brain and Spinal Cord exposed from behind	452
364.	The Conus Medullaris and the Filum Terminale exposed within the Spinal Canal	453
365.	The Roots of Origin of the Seventh Dorsal Nerve	453
366.	Section through the Conus Medullaris and the Cauda Equina as they lie in the Spinal Canal	453
367.	Diagram of the Spinal Cord as seen from behind	455
368.	Transverse Section through the Upper Part of the Cervical Region of the Cord of an Orang	456
369.	Section through each of the Four Regions of the Cord	458
370.	Section through the Fifth Cervical Segment of the Cord	462
371.	Section through the eighth Dorsal Segment of the Spinal Cord	463
372.	Section through the Third Lumbar Segment of the Spinal Cord to show the grouping of the Motor Cells	463
373.	Section through the first Sacral Segment of the Spinal Cord	464
374.	Transverse Section through the White Matter of the Cord	465
375.	Diagram to show the Arrangement of the Fibres of the Posterior Nerve-Roots in the Posterior Columns of the Cord	467
376.	Diagram to show the manner in which the Fibres of the Posterior Nerve-Roots enter and ascend in the Posterior Column of the Cord (from Edinger)	467
377.	Diagrammatic Representation of a Transverse Section through the Spinal Cord	469
378.	Schema of a Transverse Section through the Early Neural Tube (Young)	471
379.	Three Stages in the Development of the Spinal Cord (His)	472
380.	The Base of the Brain with Cranial Nerves attached	474
381.	Schema showing the Connexions of the several parts of the Brain	476
382.	Two Stages in the Development of the Human Brain (after His)	477
383.	Two Cross Sections through the Fore-Brain	477
384.	The Brain of a Human Embryo in the Fifth Week (after His)	478
385.	Profile View of the Brain of a Human Embryo of Ten Weeks (His)	479
386.	Diagrams to illustrate the Alar and Basal Laminæ	
387.	Front View of the Medulla, Pons, and Mesencephalon of a full-time Human Fœtus	
388.	Back View of the Medulla, Pons, and Mesencephalon of a full-time Human Fœtus	
389.	Diagram of the Decussation of the Pyramids (modified from van Gehuchten)	
390.	Lateral View of the Medulla, Pons, and Mesencephalon of a full-time Human Fœtus	
391.	Floor of the Fourth Ventricle	
392.	Section through the Lower End of the Medulla Oblongata of a Chimpanzee to show the Decussation of the Pyramids	
393.	Transverse Section through Lower End of the Medulla of a full-time Fœtus	
394.	Section through the Closed Part of Human Medulla immediately above the Decussation of the Pyramids	
395.	Section through the Lower Part of the Medulla of the Orang	
396.	Transverse Section through the Closed Part of a Fœtal Medulla	
397.	Transverse Section through the Human Medulla in the Lower Olivary Region	
398.	Transverse Section through the Middle of the Olivary Region of the Human Medulla	
399.	Inferior Olivary Nucleus as reconstructed and figured by Miss Florence R. Sabin	
400.	Diagram which shows in part the Fibres which enter into the Constitution of the Restiform Body	
401.	Section through the Junction between the Cord and Medulla of the Orang	
402.	Diagram of the Cerebello-olivary Fibres	
403.	Section through the Lower Part of the Human Pons Varolii immediately above the Medulla	
404.	Diagram to show Connexions of the Direct Cerebellar and the Olivo-Cerebellar Tracts	
405.	Transverse Section through the Pons Varolii at the Level of the Nuclei of the Trigeminal Nerve (Orang)	
406.	Section through the Upper Part of the Pons Varolii of the Orang, above the Level of the Trigeminal Nuclei	
407.	Two Sections through the Tegmentum of the Pons at its Upper Part, close to the Mesencephalon	
408.	Upper Surface of the Cerebellum	
409.	Lower Surface of the Cerebellum	
410.	Sagittal Section through the Left Lateral Hemisphere of the Cerebellum	
411.	From a Dissection by Dr. E. B. Jamieson, showing Corpus Den-	

FIG.		PAGE
	tatum and Superior Cerebellar Peduncle, etc.	509
112.	Mesial Section through the Corpus Callosum, the Mesencephalon, the Pons, Medulla, and Cerebellum	512
113.	Transverse Section through a Cerebellar Folium (after Kölliker)	513
114.	Section through the Molecular and Granular Layers in the Long Axis of a Cerebellar Folium (after Kölliker)	514
115.	Diagram of the Spinal Origin of the Spinal Accessory Nerve (after Bruce)	516
116.	Section through the Upper Part of the Cervical Region of the Cord (Orang)	516
117.	Diagram showing the Brain Connexions of the Vagus, Glossopharyngeal, Auditory, Facial, Abducent, and Trigeminal Nerves	518
118.	Central Connexions of the Cochlear and Vestibular Divisions of the Auditory Nerve	520
119.	Section through the Pons Varolii of the Orang	522
120.	Diagram of the Intrapontine Course pursued by the Facial Nerve	523
121.	Section through the Pons Varolii of the Orang at the Level of the Nuclei of the Trigeminal Nerve	525
122.	Three Stages in the Development of the Medulla Oblongata (His—slightly modified)	527
123.	Drawings to illustrate the Development of the Cerebellum (from Kuithan)	529
124.	Brain of an Embryo of Eleven Weeks	529
125.	Sections through Cerebellum of Human Fœtus	530
126.	Under Surface of the Cerebellum of a Human Fœtus	530
127.	Cerebellum of a Human Fœtus	530
128.	Diagram of the Roots of the Optic Nerve	532
129.	Transverse Section through the Upper Part of the Mesencephalon	533
130.	Transverse Section through the Human Mesencephalon at the Level of the Inferior Quadrigeminal Body	535
131.	Transverse Section through the Human Mesencephalon at the Level of the Superior Quadrigeminal Body	536
132.	Section through the Inferior Quadrigeminal Body and the Tegmentum of the Mesencephalon below the Level of the Nucleus of the Fourth Nerve in the Orang	537
133.	Section through the Inferior Quadrigeminal Body and the Tegmentum of the Mesencephalon	538
134.	Diagram of the Connexions of the Posterior Longitudinal Bundle (after Held—modified)	538
135.	Diagram of the Connexions of the Mesial Fillet and also of certain of the Thalamo-Cortical Fibres	539
136.	Section through the Inferior Quadrigeminal Body and the Tegmentum of the Mesencephalon (Orang)	540
137.	Section through the Inferior Quadrigeminal Body and the Tegmentum of the Mesencephalon (Orang)	541
138.	The Two Optic Thalami	543
139.	Schema	546
140.	Coronal Section through the Cerebrum of an Orang	547
141.	Mesial Section through the Pituitary Region in a Child of Twelve Months old	549
142.	Mesial Section through the Pituitary Region in the Adult	549
143.	Mesial Section through the Corpus Callosum, Diencephalon, etc.	550
144.	Cast of the Ventricles of the Brain (from Retzius)	551
145.	Diagram of the Central Connexions of the Optic Nerve and Optic Tract	552
146.	Gyri and Sulci on the Outer Surface of the Cerebral Hemisphere	555
147.	Three Stages in the Development of the Insula and the Insular Opercula	557
148.	Development of the Opercula which cover the Insula	557
149.	Fissure of Rolando fully opened up	558
150.	Left Cerebral Hemisphere from a Fœtus	559
151.	The Gyri and Sulci on the Mesial Aspect of the Cerebral Hemisphere	559
152.	Gyri and Sulci on the Tentorial and Orbital Aspects of the Cerebral Hemispheres	562
153.	Intraparietal Sulcus fully opened up	564
154.	Internal Parieto-occipital and the Calcarine Fissures fully opened up	565
155.	Development of the Parieto-occipital and the Calcarine Fissures	566
156.	Coronal Section through the Left Side of the Cerebrum, Mesencephalon, and Pons (Chimpanzee)	569
157.	The Corpus Callosum	570
158.	Profile View of the Fornix	572
159.	Cast of the Ventricular System of the Brain (after Retzius)	574
160.	Coronal Section through the Frontal Lobes and the Anterior Horns of the Lateral Ventricles	574
161.	Dissection to show the Fornix and Lateral Ventricles	575
162.	Coronal Section through the Posterior Horns of the Lateral Ventricles	576
163.	Dissection to show the Fornix and the Posterior and Descending Cornua of the Lateral Ventricle of the Left Side	577
164.	Dissection to show the Posterior and Descending Cornua of the Lateral Ventricle	578
165.	Horizontal Section through the Right Cerebral Hemisphere	579
166.	Coronal Section through the Cerebral Hemispheres	580
167.	Coronal Section through the Cerebrum	581
168.	Coronal Section through the Left Side of the Cerebrum of an Orang	582
169.	Diagram to illustrate Minute Structure of the Cerebral Cortex	586

FIG.		PAGE
470.	Diagram of the Minute Structure of the Olfactory Bulb	587
471.	Two Coronal Sections through the Cerebral Hemispheres of an Orang	589
472.	Diagram of the Leading Association Bundles of the Cerebral Hemisphere	590
473.	Coronal Section through the Left Side of the Cerebrum, Mesencephalon and Pons (Chimpanzee)	592
474.	Diagrams to show Flechsig's Sensory and Association Areas on the surface of the Cerebral Hemisphere	593
475.	Two Drawings of the Embryonic Brain (by His)	595
476.	Two Drawings by His illustrating the Development of the Human Brain	596
477.	Sagittal Section through the Skull	598
478.	Diagram to show the Relations of the Membranes of the Brain to the Cranial Wall, etc.	601
479.	Membranes of the Spinal Cord, and the Mode of Origin of the Spinal Nerves	602
480.	Mesial Section through the Cranial Vault in the Frontal Region	603
481.	Dissection to show the Velum Interpositum	604
482.	Diagrammatic Coronal Section through the Optic Thalami	605
483.	Membranes of the Spinal Cord, and the Mode of Origin of the Spinal Nerves	605
484.	Scheme of the Arrangement of the Membranes of the Spinal Cord and the Roots of the Spinal Nerves	607
485.	Diagrammatic Representation of the Origin of the Spinal Nerves	608
486.	Scheme of the Distribution of a Typical Spinal Nerve	609
487.	Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Back of the Trunk	611
488.	Posterior Cervical Plexus	612
489.	Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Front of the Trunk	615
490.	The Cervical Plexus	616
491.	Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves to the Head and Neck	618
492.	The Triangles of the Neck	619
493.	Muscles of the Hyoid Bone and Styloid Process, and the Extrinsic Muscles of the Tongue, with their Nerves	620
494.	Nerves of the Brachial Plexus	623
495.	Diagram of the Origin and Distribution of the Nerves to the Pectoral Muscles	625
496.	The Posterior Wall of the Axilla and the Front of the Arm	626
497.	The Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Front of the Arm and Hand	628
498.	The Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Back of the Arm and Hand	630
499.	Deltoid Region and Back of Arm	631
500.	Diagrammatic Representation of the Branches of the Musculo-Spiral Nerve	633
501.	The Muscles of the Back of the Forearm	634
502.	Scheme of the Distribution of a Typical Spinal Nerve	636
503.	The Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Front of the Trunk	
504.	Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus	
505.	View of the Posterior Abdominal Wall, to show the Muscles and the Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus	
506.	Scheme of the Course and Distribution of the Obturator Nerve	
507.	Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Front of the Lower Limb	
508.	Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Dorsum of the Foot	
509.	Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Back of the Lower Limb	
510.	Scheme of Distribution of the Plantar Nerves	
511.	Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus	
512.	The Muscles and Nerves of the Male Perineum	
513.	The Triangular Ligament of the Perineum	
514.	Scheme of the Innervation of the Hinder Portion of the Trunk and of the Perineum	
515.	Development of the Spinal Nerves	
516.	Scheme of the Segmental Distribution of the Muscular Nerves of the Upper and Lower Limbs	
517.	View of the Under Surface of the Brain	
518.	Innervation of the Nasal Cavity	
519.	Diagram of the Central Connexions of the Optic Nerve and Optic Tract	
520.	Relations of Structures in the Cavernous Sinus and Sphenoidal Fissure	
521.	Dorsal Surface of the Mid-brain	
522.	The Base of the Skull	
523.	Distribution of Sensory Nerves to the Head and Neck	
524.	Scheme of the Distribution of the Ophthalmic Nerve	
525.	Schematic Representation of the Nerves which traverse the Cavity of the Orbit	
526.	Scheme of the Course and Distribution of the Superior Maxillary Nerve	
527.	Scheme of the Distribution of the Inferior Maxillary Nerve	
528.	The Facial Nerve with its Branches and Communications in the Aqueduct of Fallopius	
529.	Distribution of Facial Nerve outside the Skull, and Communications with Trigeminal Nerve on the Face	
530.	Scheme of the Origin and Distribution of the Auditory Nerve	
531.	Scheme of the Distribution of the Glosso-pharyngeal Nerve	
532.	The Distribution of the Pneumogastric Nerve	
533.	The Constitution of the Cardiac Plexuses	
534.	The Distribution of the Pneumogastric Nerve	
535.	Scheme of the Origin, Connexions, and Distribution of the Spinal Accessory Nerve	
536.	The Muscles of the Hyoid Bone and	

PAGE

Styloid Process, and the Extrinsic Muscles of the Tongue with their Nerves 697
Comparison of Origins of Nerve-roots from Spinal Cord and Hind-brain (after His) 700
Scheme to illustrate the Disposition of the Myotomes in the Embryo in relation to the Head, Trunk, and Limbs 702
Scheme to illustrate the Embryological Arrangement of the Cranial Nerves 703
Scheme of the Constitution of the White Ramus Communicans of the Sympathetic 704
Scheme of the Constitution and Connexions of the Gangliated Cord of the Sympathetic . . 705

FIG. PAGE

542. The Distribution of the Sympathetic Gangliated Cord in the Neck 707
543. The Constitution of the Cardiac Plexuses 708
544. The Arrangement of the Sympathetic System in the Thorax, Abdomen, and Pelvis . . . 709
545. The Lumbar Portion of the Sympathetic Gangliated Cord and Lumbar Plexus 711
546. The Arrangement of the Sympathetic System in the Thorax, Abdomen, and Pelvis . . . 713
547. The Development of the Sympathetic Gangliated Cord . . 715
548. Section through the Sympathetic Gangliated Cord of an Embryo . 716

THE ORGANS OF SENSE AND THE INTEGUMENT.

Lateral View of Nasal Septum . 718
Profile View of the Bony and Cartilaginous Skeleton of the Nose . 719
Front View of the Bony and Cartilaginous Skeleton of the Nose . 719
Cartilages of Nose from Below . 720
Coronal Section through Nasal Fossæ; Anterior Half of Section Viewed from Behind . . . 720
Section through Nose of Kitten, showing position of Jacobson's Organ 721
View of the Outer Wall of the Nose 721
Section through the Olfactory Mucous Membrane . . . 722
Olfactory and Supporting Cells . 722
Diagram of a Horizontal Section through Left Eyeball and Optic Nerve 724
Vertical Section of Cornea . . 726
Vertical Section of Chorioid and Inner Part of Sclera . . . 727
Diagram of the Circulation in the Eye (Leber) 728
Section through Ciliary Region of Eyeball 729
Blood-Vessels of Iris and Anterior Part of Chorioid (Arnold) . . 730
Diagrammatic Section of the Human Retina (modified from Schultze) 732
Perpendicular Sections of Mammalian Retina (Cajal) . . . 733
Cone and two Rods from the Human Retina 733
Pigmented Epithelium of Human Retina 734
Section through Outer Layers of Retina 734
Blood-Vessels of the Retina . . 735
Canal of Petit Distended and Viewed from the Front . . 736
Lens hardened in Formalin and dissected to show its Concentric Laminæ 736
Diagrammatic Representation of the Radii Lentis of the Fœtal Lens 737

573. Section through the Equator of the Lens 737
574. Vertical Section through Upper Eyelid 738
575. Sections through Portions of the Heads of Fœtal Rabbits . . 741
576. Optic Cup and Lens viewed from Behind and Below . . . 742
577. Diagrammatic View of the Organ of Hearing 744
578. View of Outer Surface of Left Pinna 744
579. Outer Surface of Cartilage of Pinna 745
580. Inner Surface of Cartilage of Pinna 745
581. Vertical Transverse Section of Right Ear 747
582. Horizontal Section through Right Ear 747
583. Section through Left Temporal Bone 749
584. Left Membrana Tympani and Recessus Epitympanicus . . . 749
585. Left Tympanic Membrane . . 751
586. Transverse Section of the Cartilaginous Part of the Eustachian Tube 753
587. Tympanic Ossicles of Left Ear . 755
588. Left Membrana Tympani and Chain of Tympanic Ossicles . . . 755
589. Left Bony Labyrinth . . . 759
590. Interior of Left Bony Labyrinth . 759
591. Section of Bony Cochlea . . 761
592. Diagrammatic Representation of the Different Parts of the Membranous Labyrinth . . 762
593. Transverse Section of Human Semicircular Canal (Rüdinger) . . 763
594. Section across the Ductus Cochlearis (Retzius) 764
595. Transverse Section through Outer Wall of Ductus Cochlearis (Schwalbe) 765
596. Transverse Section of Corti's Organ from the Central Coil of Cochlea (Retzius) 766
597. Membranous Labyrinth of a Five Months' Fœtus (Retzius) . . 768
598. Part of Cochlear Nerve (Henle) . 768
599. Sections through the Region of the Hind Brain of Fœtal Rabbits . 769

FIG.		PAGE
600.	Left Labyrinth of Human Embryo	770
601.	Section through Papilla Vallata (A) of Human Tongue and (B) of Rabbit	770
602.	Three-quarter Surface View and Vertical Section of Taste Bud from the Papilla Foliata of a Rabbit	771
603.	Isolated Cells from Taste Bud of Rabbit (Engelmann)	771
604.	Vertical Section of the Skin	
605.	Vertical Section of Epidermis and Papillæ of Corium	
606.	Tactile Corpuscles	
607.	Transverse Section of a Nail	
608.	Longitudinal Section through Root of Nail	
609.	Transverse Section of Hair Follicle with Contained Hair	

THE VASCULAR SYSTEM.

610.	Structure of Blood-Vessels	781
611.	Transverse Section through Wall of a Large Artery	781
612.	Transverse Section of the Wall of a Vein	782
613.	The Base and Inferior Surface of the Heart	784
614.	The Antero-superior Surface of the Heart	785
615.	The Relation of the Heart to the Anterior Wall of the Thorax	786
616.	The Cavities of the Right Auricle and Right Ventricle of the Heart	787
617.	The Bases of the Ventricles of the Heart	788
618.	The Relations of the Heart and the Auriculo-ventricular, Aortic, and Pulmonary Orifices to the Anterior Thoracic Wall	789
619.	Posterior Wall of the Pericardium after removal of the Heart	794
620.	The Pulmonary Arteries and Veins and their Relations	796
621.	The Abdominal Aorta and its Branches	799
622.	The Carotid and Subclavian Arteries and their Branches	803
623.	The External Carotid, Internal Maxillary, and Meningeal Arteries	810
624.	The Carotid, Subclavian, and Vertebral Arteries and their Main Branches	813
625.	Distribution of the Cerebral Arteries on the Mesial, Tentorial, and Inferior Surfaces of the Cerebral Hemispheres	815
626.	Distribution of Cerebral Arteries on the Outer Surface of the Cerebrum	816
627.	The Arteries of the Base of the Brain	819
628.	Dissection of the Back of the Shoulder and Upper Arm	824
629.	The Axillary Artery and its Branches and Relations	827
630.	The Brachial Artery and its Branches	830
631.	Superficial Dissection of the Front of the Forearm and Hand	832
632.	Deep Dissection of the Front of the Forearm and Hand	833
633.	The Posterior Interosseous Artery and the Second Part of the Radial Artery, with their Branches	835
634.	The Abdominal Aorta and its Branches	840
635.	The Cœliac Axis and its Branches	844
636.	The Superior Mesenteric Artery and its Branches	
637.	The Internal Iliac Artery and its Branches in the Female	
638.	The Perineal Distribution of the Internal Pudic Artery in the Male	
639.	The Arteries of the Buttock and the Back of the Thigh and Knee	
640.	The Iliac Arteries and Veins in the Female	
641.	The Femoral Artery and its Branches	
642.	The Femoral Vessels in Scarpa's Triangle	
643.	The Arteries of the Buttock and the Back of the Thigh and Knee.	
644.	The Popliteal and Posterior Tibial Arteries and their Branches	
645.	The Plantar Arteries and their Branches	
646.	The Anterior Tibial Artery and its Branches	
647.	The Dorsalis Pedis Artery and its Branches	
648.	Superficial Veins of the Head and Neck	
649.	The Veins of the Diploë	
650.	Dissection of the Head and Neck, showing the Cranial Blood Sinuses and the Upper Part of the Internal Jugular Vein	
651.	Basal Blood Sinuses of the Dura Mater	
652.	Superficial Veins on the Dorsum of the Hand and Digits	
653.	Superficial Veins on the Flexor Aspect of the Upper Extremity	
654.	Superficial Veins at the Bend of the Elbow	
655.	The Inferior Vena Cava and its Tributaries	
656.	The Femoral Vessels in Scarpa's Triangle	
657.	The Internal or Long Saphenous Vein and its Tributaries	
658.	The External or Short Saphenous Vein and its Tributaries	
659.	The Portal Vein and its Tributaries	
660.	The Thoracic Duct and its Tributaries	
661.	Lymphatic Vessels and Glands of the Head and Neck	
662.	Superficial Lymphatic Vessels of the Trunk, and the Lymphatic Glands and Vessels Superficial and Deep of the Limbs	

FIG. PAGE
663. Superficial Lymphatics of the Digits and of the Dorsal Aspect of the Hand 915
664. Deep Lymphatic Glands and Vessels of the Thorax and Abdomen . 919
665. Diagram of the Primitive Vascular System before the Formation of the Heart 926
666. Diagram of the Primitive Blood-Vessels after the Formation of the Heart 927
667. Diagram of the Primitive Blood-Vessels after the Formation of the Heart, but before its Subdivision by Septa into Auricles and Ventricles 927
668. Development of the Heart . . 928
669. Development of the Heart and the Main Arteries 930
670. Diagram of the Course of the Fœtal Circulation 931
671. Development of the Venous System (Stage I.) 934
672. Development of the Venous System (Stage II.) 935
673. Development of the Venous System (Stage III.) 936
674. Development of the Venous System (Stage IV.) 937
675. Diagram of the Cephalic Aortic Arches, and of the Segmental and Intersegmental Arteries in the Region in front of the Umbilicus 939
676. Diagram of the Caudal Aortic Arch, and of the Segmental and Intersegmental Arteries in the Region behind the Umbilicus . . . 939
677. Diagram showing the Arrangement and Communications of the Segmental and Intersegmental Arteries at an Early Stage of Development 940
678. Diagram of the Segmental and Intersegmental Arteries at a Later Period of Development than in Fig. 677 941
679. Diagram showing the Arrangement and Communications of the Segmental Arteries in the Region of the Cephalic Aortic Arches. . 941

THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

680. The Cartilages and Ligaments of the Larynx viewed from the Front 959
681. Profile View of the Cartilages and Ligaments of the Larynx . . 959
682. Cartilages and Ligaments of Larynx from Behind 960
683. Dissection to show the Lateral Part of the Crico-thyroid Membrane . 963
684. Superior Aperture of Larynx . 964
685. Coronal Section through Larynx . 965
686. Mesial Section through Larynx . 966
687. Diagram of Rima Glottidis . . 966
688. Specimen showing a Great Extension of the Saccule of the Larynx 967
689. The Crico-Thyroid Muscle . . 968
690. Dissection of the Muscles in the Lateral Wall of the Larynx . 969
691. Dissection of the Muscles on the Posterior Aspect of the Larynx . 970
692. Cavity of the Larynx . . . 972
693. The Trachea and Bronchi . . 973
694. Transverse Sections through the Trachea and its Immediate Surroundings 974
695. Diagram showing Arrangement of Pleural Sacs 977
696. Dissection of a Subject hardened by Formalin-Injection, to show the Relations of the two Pleural Sacs 978
697. Lateral View of the Right Pleural Sac in a Subject hardened by Formalin-Injection . . . 979
698. Left Pleural Sac in a Subject hardened by Formalin-Injection. 980
699. Dissection of the Pleural Sacs from Behind 981
700. Dissection of Thorax and Root of the Neck from the Front to show the Relations of the Lungs, Pericardium, and Thymus Gland . 984
701. Mediastinal Surfaces of the two Lungs of a Subject hardened by Formalin-Injection . . . 985
702. Outer or Costal Surfaces of the two Lungs 986
703. Sagittal Section through Left Shoulder and Left Lung . . 987
704. Sagittal Section through the Left Shoulder, Lung, and Apex of the Heart 988

THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM.

705. General View of the Digestive System 994
706. Coronal Section through the Closed Mouth 996
707. Open Mouth showing Palate and Tonsils 999
708. Sagittal Section through Mouth, Tongue, Larynx, Pharynx, and Nasal Cavity 1001
709. Horizontal Section through Mouth and Pharynx at the Level of the Tonsils 1002
710. The Anterior Wall of the Pharynx with its Orifices, seen from behind 1003
711. The Papillæ of Tongue . . . 1004
712. Open Mouth with Tongue raised, and the Sublingual and Apical Glands exposed 1005
713. Sections through the Tongue (Krause); and Lymphoid Follicle from Back Part of Tongue (Macalister) 1006
714. Section of a Serous Gland and a

FIG.		PAGE
	Mucous Gland (Böhm and v. Davidoff)	1008
715.	Horizontal Section through Mouth and Pharynx at the Level of the Tonsils	1009
716.	The Salivary Glands and their Ducts	1010
717.	Teeth of a Child over seven years old (modified from Testut)	1014
718.	Vertical Section of Canine Tooth	1015
719.	The Permanent Teeth of the Right Side, Outer or Labial Aspect	1017
720.	The Permanent Teeth of the Right Side, Inner or Lingual Aspect	1018
721.	The Upper Permanent Teeth	1018
722.	The Lower Permanent Teeth	1020
723.	Horizontal Sections through both the Upper and Lower Jaws to show the Roots of the Teeth	1021
724.	To show the Relation of the Upper to the Lower Teeth when the Mouth is closed	1022
725.	The Milk Teeth of the Left Side	1023
726.	Vertical Section of Canine Tooth	1024
727.	Diagram to illustrate the Development of a Dermal Tooth in the Shark	1025
728.	Diagram to illustrate Development of a Tooth	1026
729.	The Anterior Wall of the Pharynx with its Orifices, seen from behind	1030
730.	Sagittal Section through Mouth, Tongue, Larynx, Pharynx, and Nasal Cavity	1031
731.	The Naso-pharynx from the Front	1032
732.	Open Mouth showing Palate and Tonsils	1034
733.	Horizontal Section through Mouth and Pharynx at the Level of the Tonsils	1035
734.	Diagram to show the Course of the Œsophagus	1038
735.	Tracings from Frozen Sections to show the Relations of the Œsophagus	1039
736.	Dissection to show the Arrangement of the Muscular Fibres on the Back of the Œsophagus and Pharynx	1041
737.	The Lower Part of the Pharynx and the Upper Part of the Œsophagus	1042
738.	Structure of the Œsophagus	1042
739.	The Abdominal Viscera *in situ*	1044
740.	The Front of the Body	1046
741.	Diagrammatic Mesial Section of Female Body	1048
742.	Diagrammatic Transverse Sections of Abdomen	1049
743.	Moderately distended Stomach	1050
744.	The Abdominal Viscera after the removal of the Jejunum and Ileum	1051
745.	The Stomach Chamber and Stomach Bed	1053
746.	The Viscera and Vessels on the Posterior Abdominal Wall	1054
747.	Longitudinal Section through the Pyloric Canal and Commencement of the Duodenum in a New-Born Child	1056
748.	Abdomen of Female, showing Displacements resulting from Tight Lacing	1057
749.	Section through Wall of Stomach, Cardiac Portion (slightly modified from Stöhr)	1058
750.	The Three Layers of the Muscular Coat of the Stomach	1059
751.	Diagram to show Formation of Pylorus	1060
752.	The Mucous Membrane of Stomach	1060
753.	A Portion of Small Intestine, with Mesentery and Vessels	1061
754.	Diagram to show the Structure of the Small and Large Intestine and the Duodenum	1062
755.	Valvulæ Conniventes	1063
756.	Peyer's Patch and Solitary Glands from Intestine of Child	1064
757.	The Viscera and Vessels on the Posterior Abdominal Wall	1066
758.	The Peritoneal Relations of the Duodenum, Pancreas, Spleen, Kidneys, etc.	1067
759.	The Duodenal Fossæ and Folds	1069
760.	The Bile Papilla in the Interior of the Duodenum	1069
761.	The Abdominal Viscera after the removal of the Jejunum and Ileum	1071
762.	Large Intestine	1074
763.	Cæcum showing Ileo-cæcal Valve	1076
764.	Three Forms of Ileo-cæcal Valve	1077
765.	Diagrammatic Section through the Junction of Ileum with Cæcum, to show the Formation of the Ileo-cæcal Valve	1078
766.	The Blood Supply of the Cæcum and Vermiform Appendix	1079
767.	Structure of the Vermiform Appendix	1080
768.	The Cæcal Folds and Fossæ	1081
769.	The Abdominal Viscera after the removal of the Jejunum and Ileum	1084
770.	The Iliac and Pelvic Colons	1085
771.	The Rectum from Behind	1087
772.	Distended Rectum *in situ*	1088
773.	The Peritoneum of the Pelvic Cavity	1090
774.	Diagram of Rectum	1093
775.	The Interior of the Anal Canal and Lower Part of Rectum	1094
776.	The Anal Canal and Lower Part of Rectum in the Fœtus	1094
777.	Diagrammatic Mesial Section of Female Body	1098
778.	The Peritoneum of the Pelvic Cavity	1100
779.	Diagrammatic Transverse Sections of Abdomen	1101
780.	The Peritoneal Relations of the Duodenum, Pancreas, Spleen, Kidneys, etc.	1103
781.	Two Diagrams to illustrate the Development of the Intestinal Canal	1106
782.	Two Diagrams to illustrate the Development of the Mesenteries	1107
783.	Diagrams to illustrate the Development of the Great Omentum (after Hertwig)	1107
784.	The Abdominal Viscera *in situ*	1109
785.	The Liver from the Front	1111
786.	The Liver from Below and Behind	1112
787.	The Abdominal and Thoracic Viscera of a Five Months' Fœtus	1117

FIG. PAGE
788. Structures between the Layers of the Lesser Omentum . . . 1119
789. Diagram showing the Bile and Pancreatic Ducts piercing the Wall of the Duodenum obliquely 1120
790. Liver of a Pig injected from the Hepatic Vein by T. A. Carter . 1122
791. Diagrams illustrating the Structure of Liver 1122
792. Diagram illustrating the Arrangement of the Blood-Vessels and of the Hepatic Cells and Bile Ducts within a Lobule of the Liver . 1123
793. Two Diagrams to illustrate the Development of the Intestinal Canal 1123
794. The Viscera and Vessels on the Posterior Abdominal Wall . . 1125
795. The Peritoneal Relations of the Duodenum, Pancreas, Spleen, Kidneys, etc. 1126
796. The Pancreas and Duodenum from Behind 1128

THE URINOGENITAL SYSTEM.

797. Dissection to show the Position and Relationships of the Kidneys . 1131
798. Transverse Section through the Abdomen at the Level of the Second Lumbar Vertebra . . 1132
799. The Posterior Relationships of the Kidneys 1133
800. The Kidneys viewed from Behind . 1134
801. Right Kidney and Duodenum . 1135
802. Left Kidney, the Pancreas, the Spleen, and the Descending Colon 1135
803. The Kidneys and Great Vessels viewed from the Front . . 1136
804. Longitudinal Section through the Kidney 1137
805. Section through a Portion of the Kidney 1138
806. Diagrammatic Representation of the Structures forming a Kidney Lobe 1139
807. Longitudinal Section of the Kidney opening up the Kidney Sinus . 1141
808. Mesial Section of an Adult Male Pelvis 1142
809. Mesial Section through the Male Pelvis 1145
810. Mesial Section of the Male Pelvis . 1146
811. Under Aspect of the Empty Male Bladder 1147
812. The Bladder, Prostate, and Seminal Vesicles, viewed from Below . 1147
813. The Bladder, Prostate, and Seminal Vesicle, from the Outer Side . 1148
814. The Bladder and the Structures traversed by the Urethra in the Male 1149
815. Lateral Aspect of Bladder containing ten ounces of Fluid . . 1150
816. View looking into the Pelvis from Above and somewhat Behind . 1150
817. View of the Interior of the Bladder in the Region of the Urethral Orifice 1151
818. Mesial Section of the Pelvis in an Adult Female 1152
819. The Bladder of a Newly-born Male Child 1152
820. Mesial Section through the Pelvis of Newly-born Child . . . 1153
821. View looking from Above into the Pelvis and Lower Part of the Abdominal Cavity in a Fœtus of about the Seventh Month . . 1154
822. View looking into the Male Pelvis seen from Above and somewhat Behind. 1154
823. Mesial Section of the Pelvis in an Adult Male 1155
824. Mesial Section through the Female Pelvis 1158
825. The Right Testis and Epididymis . 1159
826. Right Testis within Tunica Vaginalis 1160
827. Transverse Section of Testis and Epididymis and of Spermatic Cord below External Abdominal Ring 1161
828. Diagram to illustrate the Structure of the Testis and Epididymis . 1162
829. The Peritoneum of the Pelvic Cavity 1163
830. Horizontal Section through the Rectum and Bladder . . . 1164
831. View of the Base of the Bladder, Prostate, Seminal Vesicles, and Vasa Deferentia from Behind . 1165
832. The Bladder, Prostate, and Seminal Vesicle viewed from the Side . 1166
833. The Seminal Vesicle and the Ampulla of Vas Deferens . . 1166
834. View looking from Above into the Pelvis and Lower Part of the Abdominal Cavity in a Fœtus of about the Seventh Month . . 1167
835. Diagram to illustrate the Descent of the Testis and the manner in which the Tunica Vaginalis is derived 1168
836. Transverse Sections of Testis and Epididymis, and of Spermatic Cord below External Abdominal Ring 1169
837. Deep Dissection of the Inguinal Region 1169
838. Dissection to illustrate the Component Parts of the Penis . . 1171
839. A Longitudinal Section of the Terminal Portion of the Penis, and a Tranverse Section through the Body of the Organ . . 1172
840. Bladder, Prostate, and Seminal Vesicles, from the Outer Side . 1173
841. Prostate, Bladder, and Seminal Vesicles, seen from Below . . 1174
842. Transverse Section through the Prostate 1175
843. Transverse Section through the Prostate 1176
844. The Bladder and the Structures traversed by the Urethra . . 1177
845. Mesial Section of an Adult Male Pelvis 1178

FIG. PAGE
846. The Prostatic, Membranous, and the Upper Portion of the Spongy Urethra 1178
847. A Longitudinal Section of the Terminal Portion of the Penis, and a Transverse Section through the Body of the Organ . . . 1180
848. Mesial Section through the Female Pelvis 1181
849. Side Wall of the Female Pelvis . 1183
850. The Uterus and Broad Ligament, and Diagrammatic Representation of the Uterine Cavity . . 1183
851. Graafian Follicle 1185
852. The Uterus and Broad Ligament, and Diagrammatic Representation of the Uterine Cavity . . 1188
853. Mesial Section of the Pelvis in an Adult Female 1193
854. The Vagina, the Base of Bladder, and the Recto-vaginal Pouch of Peritoneum 1194
855. Female External Genital Organs . 1196
856. Dissection of the Female External Genital Organs 1197
857. Dissection of Female Perineum to show the Clitoris, the Bulb of the Vestibule, and Bartholin's Glands. 1198
858. Development of the Bladder, Ureter, and Kidney . . . 1199
859. Transverse Section through the Body of a Fowl Embryo . . 1200
860. Diagram to illustrate the Manner in which the Ureter, the Vas Deferens, and the Bladder arise in the Embryo. 1201
861. Diagrammatic Representation and Comparison of the Manner in which the Urinogenital Passages arise in the two Sexes . . . 1202
862. Transverse Section through the Body of a Rat Embryo . . 1203
863. Development of the External Genital Organs 1205
864. External Genital Organs in Male Embryo 1206
865. Dissection of the Mammary Gland 1207
866. Section through a Mammary Gland 1208

THE DUCTLESS GLANDS.

867. Dissection of the Spleen, Liver, and Kidneys from Behind . . . 1211
868. The Spleen 1212
869. Anterior Surfaces of Suprarenal Capsules 1214
870. Posterior Surfaces of Suprarenal Capsules 1214
871. Transverse Section through the Suprarenal Capsule of a Newborn Child *in situ* 1215
872. Dissection of the Thyroid Body and of the Parts in immediate relation to it 1216
873. Thymus Gland in a Full-time Fœtus hardened by Formalin-injection . 1218
874. Dissection to show the Thymus Gland in an Adult Female . . 1219
875. Deep Surface of Thymus Gland . 1220
876. Section through Carotid Body . 1221
877. Schema of the Relation presented by the Carotid Gland and its accessory outlying Parts to Branches of middle Sacral Artery . . 1221

SURFACE AND SURGICAL ANATOMY.

878. Diagrammatic Representation of a Coronal Section through the Scalp, Cranium, Meninges, and Cortex Cerebri 1223
879. Cranio-Cerebral Topography . 1226
880. Scheme showing Relative Topography of the Chief Subdivisions of the Motor Area (adapted from Grünbaum and Sherrington) 1227
881. Cranio-Cerebral Topography . 1228
882. View of the Outer Wall of the Middle Ear 1230
883. Left Tympanic Membrane . . 1230
884. View of the Inner Wall of the Middle Ear 1231
885. Section through Left Temporal Bone, showing Outer Wall of Tympanic Cavity, etc. 1231
886. Section through Petrous Portion of Temporal Bone of Adult . . 1232
887. Frontal Sinuses of Average Dimensions, with a Mesial Septum (Logan Turner) 1234
888. A Large Right Frontal Sinus with Septum Oblique to the Left (Logan Turner) 1234
889. Right Frontal Sinus of very large Dimensions; Left Sinus unopened (Logan Turner) 1235
890. Vertical Coronal Section through the Nose and Frontal Sinuses . 1236
891. Head of Human Embryo about 29 days old 1240
892. Coronal Section through the Face of a Human Embryo at the Seventh Week 1241
893. From a Photograph showing Double Complete Hare-Lip and Cleft Palate 1241
894. Shows arrangement of Bones in Double Cleft Palate . . . 1242
895. Coronal Section through the Tongue and Submaxillary Region in a Plane behind the Molar Teeth . 1243
896. Open Mouth with Tongue raised and the Sublingual and Apical Glands exposed 1243
897. Horizontal Section through Mouth and Pharynx at the Level of the Tonsils. 1245
898. Anterior Aspect of Neck and Shoulders 1247
899. Dissection of the Front of the Neck 1248

TEXT-BOOK OF ANATOMY.

TEXT-BOOK OF ANATOMY.

INTRODUCTION.

ANATOMY is a comprehensive term, which includes several closely related branches of study. Primarily it is employed to indicate the study of the several parts which build up the body, and the relationship which these present to each other. But during the period of its existence the individual exhibits many structural changes: its structure is not the same at all stages of its life. The ovum or starting-point of every individual is very different from the finished organism as represented by the adult, and the series of changes through which the organism passes until its structure is perfected and full growth is attained constitute the study of **development**. The general term "development" includes not only the various and striking structural changes which occur during the intrauterine life of the individual, to the study of which the term **embryology** is more specially applied, but also many growth processes which occur after birth, such as the later stages in the ossification and growth of the bones, the eruption of the two series of teeth, the adjustment of the vascular system to its new requirements, etc. The actual observation of the processes by which the parts of the body are gradually formed, and of the structural arrangements by means of which a temporary connexion is established between the ovum and the mother, through which an interchange of nutritive and other matters between the two takes place, renders embryology one of the most interesting of all the departments of anatomy. The term **ontogeny** is also used to denote the development of the individual. There is, however, another form of development, slower, but just as certain in its processes, which affects not only the individual, but every member of the animal group collectively to which it belongs. The theory of descent or evolution leads us to believe that between man of the present day and his remote ancestors there is a wide structural gap, which, if the geological record were perfect, would be seen to be completely occupied by long-lost intermediate forms. In the process of evolution, therefore, structural changes have gradually taken place which have modified the entire race. A more or less close or remote blood-relationship links together all the members of the animal kingdom. These evolutionary phases constitute the ancestral history or **phylogeny** of the individual. Ontogeny and phylogeny are intertwined in a remarkable manner, and present certain extraordinary relationships. In other words, the ancestral evolutionary development appears to be so stamped upon an individual that it repeats certain of the phylogenetic stages with more or less clearness during the process of its own individual development. Thus at an early period in the embryology of man we recognise evanescent gill-slits comparable with those of a fish, whilst a study of the development of his heart shows that it passes

through transitory structural conditions in many respects similar to the permanent condition of the heart in certain of the lower animals. It is in connexion with this that the phrase has arisen that every animal in its individual development or ontogeny climbs up its own genealogical tree—a saying which, taking it even in the broadest sense, is only partially true.

The higher conceptions of anatomy, which are obtained by taking a general survey of the structural aspects of the entire animal kingdom, constitute **morphology**. The morphologist investigates the laws of form and structure, and in his generalisations he gives attention to detail only in so far as this is necessary for the proper establishment of his views. The knowledge of anatomy which is required by the student of medicine is different. It is essentially one of detail, and often details important from the practical and utilitarian points of view have little or no morphological value. This want of balance in the interest attached to anatomical facts, according to the aspect from which they are examined, so far from being unfortunate, affords the teacher the means of making the study of anatomy at once fascinating and attractive. Almost every fact which is brought under the notice of the student can be accompanied by a morphological or a practical application. This it is that lightens a study which, presented to the student of medicine in any other way, would be at once dry and tedious.

Certain terms employed in morphology require early and definite explanation. These are homology, serial homology, and homoplasy. The same organ repeated in two different animals is said to present a case of **homology**. But this morphological identity between these two organs must be proved beyond dispute before the homology between them can be allowed. In deciding this identity the great and essential test is that the two organs in question should have a similar developmental origin. Thus the fore-limb of a quadruped is homologous with the upper limb of man; the puny collar-bone of a tiger, the fibrous thread which is the only representative of this bone in the horse, and the strongly marked clavicle of the ape or man, are all, strictly speaking, homologous with each other. Homologous organs in different animals usually present a similar position and a similar structure, but not invariably so. It is not uncommon for a muscle to wander somewhat from its original position, and many cases could be quoted in which parts have become completely transformed in structure, either from disuse or for the purpose of meeting some special demand in the animal economy. In the study of the muscles and ligaments instances of this will be brought under the notice of the reader. Identity or correspondence in the function performed by two organs in two different animals is not taken into consideration in deciding questions of homology. The gills of a fish and the lungs of a higher vertebrate perform very much the same physiological office, and yet they are not homologous. The term **analogy** is often used to express functional correspondence of this kind. Often organs which perform totally different functions are yet perfectly homologous. Thus the wing of a bat or the wing of a bird, both of which are subservient to flight, are homologous with the upper limb of man, the office of which is the different one of prehension.

In the construction of vertebrates and certain other animal groups a series of similar parts are repeated along a longitudinal axis, one after the other. Thus the series of vertebræ which build up the backbone, the series of ribs which gird round either side of the chest, the series of intercostal muscles which fill up the intervals between the ribs, the series of nerves which arise from the brain and spinal cord, are all examples of this. An animal exhibiting such a condition of parts is said to present the **segmental type** of organisation, and in the early stages of development this segmentation is much more strongly marked, and is to be seen in parts which

subsequently lose all trace of such a subdivision. The parts thus repeated are said to be **serially homologous**. But there are other instances of serial homology besides those which are manifestly produced by segmentation. The upper limb is serially homologous with the lower limb: each is composed of parts which, to a large extent, are repeated in the other, and the correct adjustment of this comparison between the several parts of the upper and lower limbs constitutes one of the most difficult and yet interesting problems of morphology.

Homoplasy is a term which has been introduced to express a form of correspondence between organs in different animals which cannot be included under the term homology. Two animal groups, which originally have sprung from the same stem-form, may independently develop a similar structural character which is altogether absent in the ancestor common to both. Thus the common ancestor of man and the carnivora in all probability possessed a smooth brain, and yet the human brain and the carnivore brain are both richly convoluted. Not only this, but certain anatomists seek to reconcile the convolutionary pattern of the one with the convolutionary pattern of the other. What correspondence there is does not, in every instance, constitute a case of homology, because there is not in every case a community of origin. Correspondence of this kind is included under the term "homoplasy." Another example is afforded by the heart of the mammal and that of the bird. In both of these groups the ventricular portion of the heart consists of a right and a left chamber, and yet the ventricular septum in the one is not homologous with the corresponding septum in the other, because the common ancestor from which both have sprung possessed a heart with a single ventricular cavity, and the double-chambered condition has been a subsequent and independent development in the two groups.

Systematic Anatomy.—The human body is composed of a combination of several systems of organs, and the several parts of each system not only present a certain similarity in structure, but also fulfil special functions. Thus we have—

1. The *skeletal system*, composed of the bones and certain cartilaginous and membranous parts associated with them, the study of which is known as **osteology**.

2. The *articulatory system*, which includes the joints or articulations, the study of which is termed **arthrology**.

3. The *muscular system*, comprising the muscles, the study of which constitutes **myology**.

4. The *nervous system*, in which are included the brain, the spinal cord, the spinal and cranial ganglia, the sympathetic ganglia, and the various nerves proceeding from and entering these. The study of these parts is expressed by the term **neurology**. In this system the organs of sense may also be included.

5. The *vascular* and *lymphatic* system, including the heart, blood-vessels, the lymphatic vessels, and the lymphatic glands. **Angeiology** is the term applied to the study of this system.

6. The *respiratory system*, in which we place the lungs, windpipe, and larynx.

7. The *digestive system*, which consists of the alimentary canal and its associated glands, and parts such as the tongue, teeth, liver, pancreas, etc.

8. The *urogenital system*, composed of the urinary organs and the reproductive organs—the latter differing in the two sexes.

The term **splanchnology** denotes the study of the organs included in the respiratory, digestive, and genito-urinary systems.

9. The *integumentary system*, consisting of the skin, nails, hair, etc.

These numerous organs which form the various systems are themselves built up of tissues, the ultimate elements of which can only be studied by the aid of the

microscope. The study of these elements and the manner in which they grouped together to form the various tissues of the body forms an important br of anatomy, which is termed **histology**.

The structure of the human body may be studied in two different ways. several parts may be considered with reference to their relative positions, eithe they are met with in the course of an ordinary dissection, or as they are see the surface of a section through the body. This is the *topographical method.* the other hand, the several systems of organs may be treated separately an sequence. This constitutes the *systematic method,* and it is the plan whic adhered to in this treatise.

Descriptive Terms.—Anatomy is a descriptive science founded on observa and in order that precision and accuracy may be attained it is absolutely neces that we should be provided with a series of well-defined descriptive terms. It r be clearly understood that all descriptions are framed on the supposition that body is in the erect position, with the arms by the side, and the hands held so

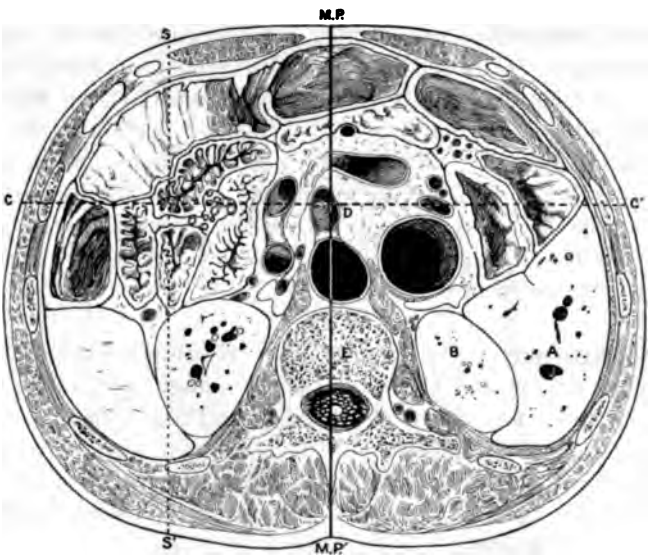


FIG. 1.—HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH THE TRUNK AT THE LEVEL OF THE FIRST LUMBAR VERTE

the palms look forwards and the thumbs outwards. An imaginary plan section, passing longitudinally through the body so as to divide it accurately in right and left half, is called the **mesial plane**, Fig. 1 (M.P.). When the right left halves of the body are studied it will be found that both are to a large ex formed of similar parts. The right and left limbs are alike; the right and halves of the brain are the same; there are a right and left kidney and a r and left lung, and so on. So far the organs are said to be **symmetrically** arran But still a large amount of **asymmetry** may be observed. Thus the chief bul the liver lies to the right side of the mesial plane, and the spleen is an o which belongs wholly to the left half of the body. Indeed, it is well to state perfect symmetry never does exist. There always will be, and always must certain want of balance between symmetrically placed parts of the body. T the right upper limb is, as a rule, constructed upon a heavier and more ma plan than the left, and even in those organs where the symmetry appears perfect, as for instance the brain and spinal cord, it only requires a closer stud reveal many points of difference between the right and left halves. The on the front of the body along which the mesial plane reaches the surfa

termed the **anterior median line**; whilst the corresponding line behind is called the **posterior median line**.

It is convenient to employ other terms to indicate other imaginary planes of section through the body. The term **sagittal** is, therefore, used to denote any plane which cuts through the body along a path which is parallel to the mesial plane (S S'); and the term **coronal** or **frontal** is given to any vertical plane which passes through the body in a path which cuts the mesial plane at right angles (C C'). The term **horizontal** as applied to a plane of section requires no explanation.

Any structure which lies nearer to the mesial plane than another is said to be **internal** or **mesial** to it; and any structure placed further from the mesial plane than another is said to lie **external** or **lateral** to it. Thus in Fig. 1, A is external to B; whilst B is internal to A.

The terms **anterior** and **ventral** are synonymous, and are used to indicate a structure (D) which lies nearer to the front or ventral surface of the body than another structure (E) which is placed nearer to the back or dorsal surface of the body, and which is thus said to be **posterior** or **dorsal**. In some respects it would be well to discard the terms "anterior" and "posterior" in favour of "ventral" and "dorsal," seeing that the former are only applicable to man in the erect attitude, and cannot be applied to an animal in the prone or quadrupedal position. They have, however, become so deeply ingrained into the descriptive language of the human anatomist that it would hardly be advisable at the present moment to adopt this course. A similar objection may be raised to the terms **superior** and **inferior**, which are employed to indicate the relative levels at which two structures lie with reference to the upper and lower ends of the body. The equivalent terms of **cephalic** and **preaxial** are, therefore, frequently used in place of "superior," and **caudal** and **postaxial** in place of "inferior."

The terms **proximal** and **distal** should only be applied in the description of the limbs. They denote relative nearness to or distance from the trunk. Thus the hand is distal to the fore-arm, whilst the upper arm or brachium is proximal to the fore-arm.

GENERAL EMBRYOLOGY.

By ALFRED H. YOUNG and ARTHUR ROBINSON.

ALTHOUGH the tissues and organs of the body when fully formed differ greatly not only in respect of their functional characteristics, but also with regard to their structural features, they are developed from cell elements so similar in appearance at first that they cannot be distinguished from one another. They are all the offspring of parent cells—the female cell or **ovum**, and the male cell or **spermatozoon**. Developmental processes apparently take place in the female cell alone, but they cannot occur unless the essential elements of a sperm or male cell previously unite with it.

Like all animal cells, the ovum is a mass of protoplasm (*cytoplasm*) containing a nucleus. In many cells the cytoplasm or cell body is itself enclosed by an external investing membrane, the cell wall, and such a membrane is present in the ovum. Speaking generally, animal cells are minute structures, those of the human body rarely attaining a diameter of more than about ·083 mm., but they vary somewhat in size, they assume different forms, and they acquire characteristic peculiarities associated with their positions and functions; thus, whilst the majority of the constituent cells of an individual form the various tissues and organs of the body, others are reproductive or germinal cells.

Ova are simply specialised cells modified and adapted for the purpose of reproduction and the continuance of the species. They are enclosed, and partially or entirely matured, in the ovaries, or female generative glands, in the cell-lined spaces known as Graafian follicles.

When an ovum has reached a certain stage of development it is discharged from the ovary, and passing along the oviduct or Fallopian tube it eventually reaches the cavity of the uterus. Though mature and capable of being fertilised it may not be impregnated, in which case it does not remain in the uterus, but is cast out from that organ. If, however, it becomes fertilised, by union with the male germinal element, it is retained in the uterus, and develops into an embryo which possesses all the characteristic features of the species to which it belongs and most of the special peculiarities of its parents.

When the embryo, or the fœtus as it is termed after it has assumed definite form, is capable of independent existence, its intrauterine life terminates, and it is separated from the rest of the ovum and is born. The development of the individual, however, is not complete, nor does it become complete until the new being reaches the adult condition.

The term embryology is sometimes used to include the consideration of all the developmental changes and processes which take place in the ovum from the beginning up to the final adult stage. It is more convenient, however, to restrict its application to the study of those changes which take place during the development and growth of the organism before the fœtus is separated from the rest of the ovum, or, in other words, during its intrauterine existence.

Briefly epitomised, the sequence of changes is as follows:—Impregnation of the mature ovum is followed by segmentation or cleavage. By a series of successive divisions the egg-cell is divided into two, four, eight, and ultimately into a large

number of cells, and so is transformed into a multicellular mass, the morula. The majority of the "segmentation masses" or cells, or blastomeres, as they are termed, are differentiated into tissue elements, but a certain number retain the characters of the original germ-cells and become ova or sperm-cells, which form the "points of departure" of succeeding generations. Every germ-cell is derived, therefore, "by a continuous and unbroken series of cell-divisions" which have extended through the past from the most primitive ancestor, and it forms a point from which, under ordinary circumstances, all future generations will commence. It is in this sense that the changes through which a living being passes in the course of its life "may, in their completest form, be considered as constituting a morphological cycle, beginning with the ovum and ending with the ovum again."

To follow these changes it is necessary that the characters and capabilities of the constructive elements should be clearly understood. The animal cell, which plays an all-important part in the life-history of the individual, and the modified germ-cells must be carefully studied, and as far as possible the exact nature of their constituent parts ascertained.

The phenomena of impregnation and segmentation, and the subsequent developmental processes and morphological changes which result in the formation of the embryo, and, finally, the arrangements for the nutrition and protection of the ovum during its intrauterine existence, will then be considered.

THE ANIMAL CELL.

Cells are the structural units of the body. Each cell has an individual life-history within the tissue or organ to which it belongs, it is produced by a pre-existing cell, it develops and grows, is modified by circumstances, reproduces other cells similar to itself, or it dies.

A cell possesses a body and a nucleus. An external investing membrane or cell wall may or may not be differentiated.

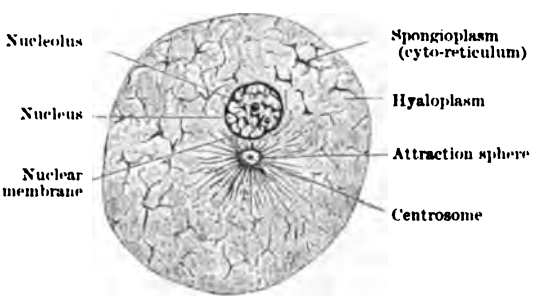


FIG. 2.—DIAGRAM OF AN ANIMAL CELL.

The **cell body** consists of protoplasm—an unstable, highly complex organic substance, the constitution of which is approximately represented by the formula $C_{60}H_{100}N_{16}O_{20}$. It is colourless, semi-fluid, viscous, insoluble in water, capable of osmosis, and it is contractile and irritable. In the living condition it always contains a certain amount of water and various inorganic matters. It is to be observed, however, that there are many varieties of protoplasm, differing somewhat in nature and qualities.

The protoplasm of the cell body is called **cytoplasm**. Under low powers of the microscope it is homogeneous or slightly granular, but with higher magnification, and especially after the application of staining agents, it is possible to distinguish—

(1) A highly refractile, elastic, and extensile network—the **cyto-reticulum** or **spongioplasm**—the meshes of which are filled with

(2) A clear, semi-fluid substance—the **cytolymph** or **hyaloplasm**.

The fibres of the reticulum present some few minute rounded bodies of doubtful nature, which are termed **microsomes**.

The **nucleus** is a spherical vesicle embedded in the cell body. It is surrounded by a distinct nuclear membrane, and usually contains nucleoli.

It consists of modified protoplasm, which is termed **karyoplasm**, the precise relation of which to the cytoplasm is not clear. Structurally it resembles cytoplasm in that it presents a fine reticulum, the fibres of which seem to be continuous with the cyto-reticulum through the nuclear membrane, whilst its meshes are occupied by **nuclear juice**.

The reticulum forms a fine network composed of **linin** fibres (achromatic substance). There is also a coarser network, more readily stainable, consisting of **chromatin**, granular portions of which may also be embedded in the linin. Instead of forming a coarse network the chromatin may be arranged in the form of a convoluted cord, or as a number of separate filaments, and in certain cases it constitutes a series of loops from which secondary branches are projected, the apices of the loops being grouped together at one pole of the nucleus round a clear area known as the "polar field."

The **nuclear membrane** consists of both chromatin and linin.

Nucleoli are of two kinds, true and false. A true nucleolus is a small, refractile particle, of spherical outline, embedded in the reticulum. It stains deeply, and is said to consist of a special modification of the karyoplasm which is called pyrenin. False nucleoli are simply the nodes of the chromatin reticulum.

The nucleus is capable of motion; it has been seen to alter its shape in the living cell, and it undoubtedly plays an active part in the process of cell reproduction.

In addition to the nucleus many cells contain one or more small rounded bodies called **centrosomes**. The centrosomes are modified portions of the protoplasm, and they lie, as a rule, in a modified, clear-looking area of the cytoplasm, which is known as the **attraction sphere**. This is generally situated close to the nucleus, and from its surface a number of fine radiating lines project into the adjacent cytoplasm.

Centrosomes become very evident when reproduction commences, but are not so distinct at other times.

The attraction sphere also becomes more evident when cell-division commences, and the radii which project from it, as well as the contained centrosome, appear to play important parts in the reproductive process.

Reproduction of Cells.—Cell division or reproduction may take place either—

1. By direct division—**amitosis**;
2. By indirect division—**mitosis** or **karyokinesis**.

In the **amitotic or direct form of division** the nucleus, and then the cell body, are equatorially constricted, the constrictions deepen until both are completely divided, and so two daughter cells are produced. Apparently the attraction sphere

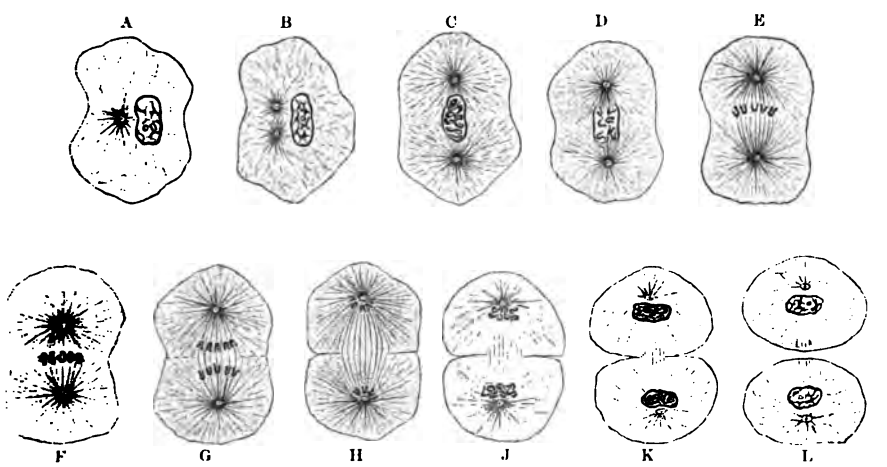


FIG. 3.—CELL DIVISION.

Successive stages of mitosis or karyokinesis (diagrammatic, modified from Henneguy). A, B, C, D, and E illustrate the phenomena of the prophase; F those of the metaphase; G and H those of the anaphase; J, K, and L those of the telophase.

and centrosome play some part in this process, but whether their influence is initiative or directive is unknown.

Mitosis, the process of indirect division, is by far the most common mode of

cell-division. It is a complex process, and the phenomena observable during it progress are classified into four groups: (1) the *prophase*, (2) the *metaphase*, (3) th *anaphase*, and (4) the *telophase*.

The phenomena of the *prophase* commence with the division of the centrosom and attraction sphere into two parts which travel to opposite poles of the nucleu At the same time the reticulum of the nucleus disappears, and in its place a con voluted cord of chromatin, the skein or spirem, is formed (Fig. 3, A, B, and C) this is afterwards broken up into a number of segments which may be mere rod but which more frequently have the form of V-shaped loops (Fig. 3, D). Th nucleoli disappear, and some of the filaments which radiate from the newly-formec attraction spheres seem to penetrate the nuclear membrane at the poles of th nucleus. The nuclear membrane subsequently disappears, and the filament passing from the attraction spheres into the nucleus form two cones, the bases o which meet at the equator of the nucleus, where they fuse together, forming a achromatic spindle which extends between the two attraction spheres (Fig. 3, E).

The loops, or rods, of chromatin are gradually grouped at the equator of th spindle, each rod, or chromosome, being apparently connected with one of th achromatic fibrils; and the prophase is completed.

In the *metaphase* each chromosome is split longitudinally into two halves— daughter chromosomes—which separate from one another; the separation com mences at the apex of each V-shaped chromosome, which appears to be attached t an achromatic fibril (Fig. 3, F).

In the *anaphase* the daughter chromosomes pass to the opposite poles of th spindle. It is suggested that this movement is brought about by the contractio of the spindle fibrils, but this is doubtful, though it is noteworthy that in som cases fine achromatic fibrils connecting the separated daughter chromosomes ar present (Fig. 3, G and H). Slightly before, or simultaneously with, the completio of the anaphase the cell body is equatorially constricted.

During the *telophase* the constriction deepens and the cell is divided into tw daughter cells. Whilst this division is taking place the daughter chromosome which are grouped in the neighbourhood of each attraction sphere at opposite end of the spindle, unite into a convoluted cord, round which a nuclear membrane formed, whilst the cord is converted into a reticulum, and nucleoli appear (Fig. J, K, L). Therefore when the separation of the daughter cells is completed, at th end of the telophase, each possesses all the characteristic features of the mother cel

Reproductive Cells.—The germinal elements, the union of which is essenti to the formation of a new being, are the ovum or female element, and the sperm tozoon or male element.

THE OVUM.

Structurally an ovum presents all the characteristic features of a typical cel It is peculiar because of the large size of the nucleus and nucleolus and in th possession of two investing membranes, an inner one, the vitelline membran which corresponds to the cell wall, and an outer one, the oolemma or zona pellucid Moreover, the nucleus always occupies an excentric position in the cytoplasm, an the cell body contains nutritive material in the form of yolk granules.

The constituent parts of an ovum have received distinctive names, however thus the cell body is known as the yolk or vitellus, the nucleus is termed th germinal vesicle, and the true nucleolus is called the germinal spot.

Vitellus or Yolk.—The body of the ovum, consisting as in an ordinary cell cytoplasm resolvable into reticulum and cytolymph, contains also numerous granul of small but varying size called yolk granules. These are highly refractile, fatt and albuminoid bodies containing phosphorus and mineral salts; collectively the constitute the **deutoplasm** or **nutritive yolk**, in contradistinction to the **cytoplasm** **formative yolk**.

Nutritive or food yolk plays an important part in development. In son animals it is the only means of support for the embryo in the early stages development; in most mammals, on the other hand, the embryo is supplied almo from the first with food not from the egg itself, but directly from the moth

through the placenta. The amount of deutoplasm present in the ova of different animals therefore varies greatly.

Ova in which there is no deutoplasm are spoken of as *alecithal*. Such ova, if they exist, are very rare; most of those usually classed under this head undoubtedly contain a certain amount of deutoplasm granules scattered throughout the cytoplasm, and are better described by the term *oligolecithal*. The size of an ovum is determined by the amount of food yolk present, and all oligolecithal ova are small; the human ovum, which may be taken as a type of the class, is about ·2 mm., or $\frac{1}{125}$th of an inch in diameter.

As the deutoplasm is increased in amount the ovum is increased in size. The deutoplasm also tends to accumulate in certain situations; if the accumulation is at one extremity of the cell the ovum is described as *telolecithal*; such ova are naturally divisible into two areas or poles, a cytoplasmic or formative pole, and a deutoplasmic or nutritive pole.

In *entelolecithal* ova the deutoplasm almost entirely displaces the cytoplasm from one pole, as in the egg of the fowl, in which the cytoplasm is represented by a disc spread over one pole of a large deutoplasmic mass. In many of the arthropoda the deutoplasm accumulates at the centre of the ovum, which is therefore termed *centrolecithal*.

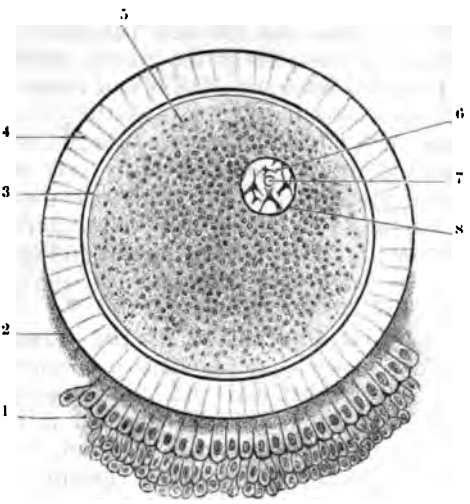


FIG. 4.—THE OVUM AND ITS COVERINGS (Diagrammatic).

The corona radiata, which completely surrounds the ovum, is only represented in the lower part of the figure.

1. Corona radiata.
2. Granular layer.
3. Vitelline membrane.
4. Zona pellucida (oolemma).
5. Vitellus or Yolk.
6. Germinal vesicle (nucleus).
7. Germinal spot (nucleolus).
8. Nuclear membrane.

The **germinal vesicle** or nucleus of the human ovum is about ·05 mm. or $\frac{1}{500}$th of an inch in diameter, *i.e.* $\frac{1}{4}$ the diameter of the whole ovum. It lies excentrically in the yolk, and has the usual characters of a cell nucleus, *i.e.* it possesses a nuclear membrane within which is the karyoplasm, divisible into reticulum or nucleoplasm, and nuclear juice. The nucleoplasm consists of chromatin and achromatic fibres (linin), and the nuclear juice contains one or more spherical and highly refractile true nucleoli or germinal spots; the nodes of the reticulum constitute false nucleoli.

In addition to the nucleus, the vitellus, at certain periods, also contains a structure known as the **vitelline body, body of Balbiani**, or accessory nucleus. It is readily seen in young ova lying near the nucleus. It contains one or more centrosomes, and probably represents an attraction sphere.

Vitelline Membrane. — The vitelline membrane is simply the peripheral portion of the vitellus, modified and transformed into a fine structureless envelope which covers the outer surface of the yolk. It is usually closely applied to the inner aspect of the outer membrane, the zona pellucida, and is best seen in the dead ovum and after treatment by reagents. It is therefore thought by some to be merely a condensation of the outer part of the vitellus produced by the action of the reagents. There is evidence, however, to show that it is present in the normal living ovum.

Zona Pellucida or Oolemma.—This membrane is thick, tough, and refractile. It serves as a protective covering for the ovum, and persists for a considerable time after fertilisation, only disappearing when the ovum becomes attached to the uterus. It is perforated by numerous fine canals, which give to the broad clear membrane a finely striated appearance, from which circumstance it has been called the "zona striata." The zona pellucida is not formed by the ovum, but is secreted by the cells of the Graafian follicle in which the ovum lies; it is consequently regarded as a secondary membrane, and is altogether different from the vitelline

membrane. The perforations in the zona serve for the passage of nutritive material to the ovum.

When the ovum leaves the Graafian follicle it is surrounded by several layers of cells, the innermost of which are columnar. They are derived from the cells of the follicle, and collectively constitute the **corona radiata**; the cells gradually diminish in size, and ultimately disappear. Their function is unknown, but between them and the zona pellucida there is a layer of granular matter, probably formed by the cells of the corona radiata, which rapidly swells up when the ovum is liberated from the follicle, and forms a gelatinous elastic layer called **the albumen**; this increases in thickness as the ovum passes along the oviduct, and persists for some time after it enters the uterine cavity. The function of the albumen has not been definitely ascertained; it may act merely as a protective covering against undue pressure, possibly it may be nutritive, whilst in the dog it apparently helps to fix the ovum to the wall of the uterus. It has not been found in all mammalian ova, and it has not been seen round the human ovum; still it may be present, for human ova at the stage when it might be expected to develop have not yet been observed.

Special Characters of the Ovum.—The ovum as it lies in the Graafian follicle presents no obvious structural modifications when compared with an ordinary animal cell, but undoubtedly differs greatly in its capabilities and life history. Unlike an ordinary cell, it has no inherent power of division into two *equal* parts, but before it is capable of fertilisation it twice undergoes *unequal* division during the period of ripening or maturation; again, its history is different from that of ordinary tissue cells, though it corresponds closely with that of the male germinal elements or spermatozoa.

Maturation of the Ovum.—As it lies in the Graafian follicle before matura-

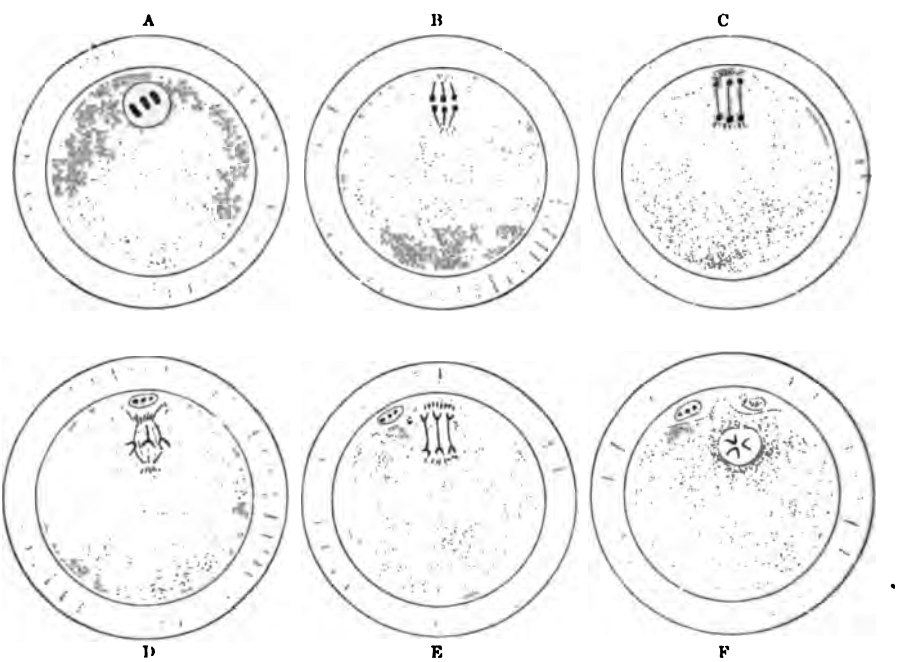


FIG. 5. -THE MATURATION OF THE OVUM: EXTRUSION OF THE "POLAR BODIES" (Diagrammatic).

A, An ovum at the commencement of the process; B, After the formation of the spindle. The chromosome are gathered at the equator of the spindle. C, One apex of the spindle has projected into a bud on th surface, and half of the divided dyads have passed to each pole; D, The separation of the first pola body; E, The commencement of the second polar body; F, The completion of the second polar body.

tion commences, the ovum is, strictly speaking, an oocyte of the first order, derive by a process of cell-division and growth from a primitive germinal cell whic became embedded in the ovary. The more direct descendants of this primitiv germ cell are called **oogonia**, and from them **oocytes of the first order** are developed

The oocyte of the first order is at first small, but as the Graafian follicle in which it lies grows the oocyte also increases in size, and either before or immediately after its extrusion from the follicle it undergoes the changes which constitute maturation or preparation for fertilisation; in other words, it divides twice into unequal parts by a modified process of mitotic division.

It is a well-known fact that all animal cells contain in their nuclei a definite number of chromosomes, the number varying in different groups of animals, but being constant in any given species, and both the primitive germ cells and the oogonia descended from them contain the same number of chromosomes as ordinary tissue cells. But when the oocyte of the first order begins to prepare for the first division during the process of maturation, it is seen that the number of chromosomes it contains is only half that of the ordinary tissue cells. Moreover, the chromosomes are not slender V-shaped loops, but short, thick rods in rings or groups of four granules, and if they are rod-like they do not lie in the prophase with their long axes at an angle with the achromatic spindle, as in ordinary mitosis, but parallel with the filaments of the spindle. During the metaphase the chromosomes do not split longitudinally as in ordinary mitosis, but transversely. This modifica-

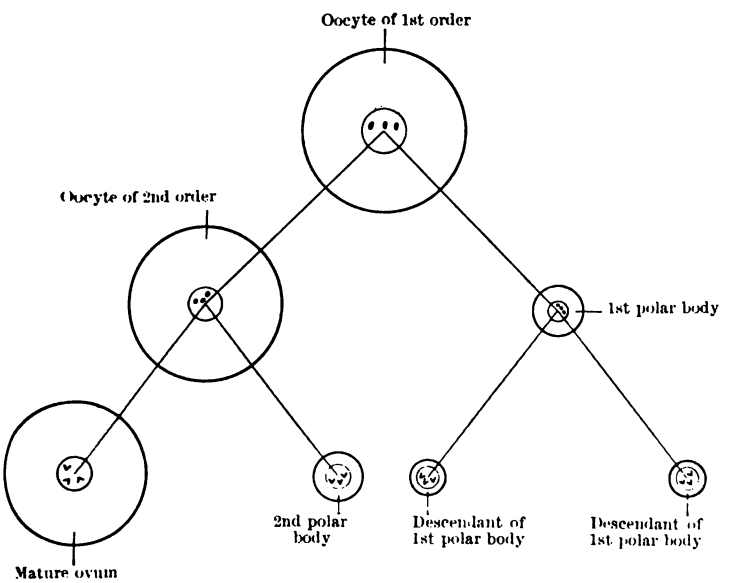


FIG. 6.—DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE MATURATION OF THE OVUM. It must be remembered that in some cases only one polar body is formed, and in others the first polar body does not divide into two parts.

tion of ordinary or *homotype mitosis* is known as *heterotype mitosis*; it takes place not only in oocytes of the first order at the commencement of maturation, but also in the cells of malignant tumours, and its exact signification is not understood. If we imagine that the nuclei of the tissue cells of the animal with which we are dealing contain six chromosomes each, then at the commencement of the first maturation division of the oocyte only three chromosomes will be seen on the spindle which forms. The spindle at its appearance is parallel with one surface of the ovum, but it gradually rotates till it stands at right angles to the surface upon which it impinges, pushing a small part of the cytoplasm before it in the form of a small bud (Fig. 5, B and C). In the anaphase the chromosomes divide transversely, and three half chromosomes pass to the inner end of the spindle and three to the outer end, that is, into the bud-like projection. When the telophase is completed the oocyte of the first order is divided into a small part, the **first polar body**, and a larger part, the **oocyte of the second order**, and each contains three chromosomes (Fig. 5, D). Almost immediately the heterotype division is followed in the oocyte of the second order by a homotype division, no resting stage intervening. A new spindle appears, the three chromosomes radiate from its equator in the usual way, and they divide longitudinally. Three of the daughter

chromosomes pass to the inner end of the spindle and three to the outer, w projects into a second polar bud. Division now occurs, and the oocyte of second order divides into the **mature ovum** and the **second polar body**, each of w contains three chromosomes in its nucleus (Fig. 5, E and F). Thus at the en maturation there lie within the zona pellucida the mature ovum and two p bodies, and the nucleus of the mature ovum, or female pronucleus as it is ca contains half the number of chromosomes which were present in the primi germ cell.[1]

THE SPERMATOZOON.

Spermatozoa are modified cells produced in the testicles or male genera glands. They are formed from the spermatogonia or sperm mother cells which derived from the primitive germ cells of the testicle, and which ultimately pro the **spermatocytes of the first order** (Fig. 7), the latter constituting the immed point of departure in the production of a spermatozoon, and corresponding there with the ovum or oocyte of the first order immediately before its matura commences. The daughter cells of the spermatocytes of the first order **spermatocytes of the second order**, and their descendants the **spermatids** are granddaughter cells of the spermatocytes of the first order. The sperm become closely associated with special sustentacular or nurse cells, and during association are converted into spermatozoa.

Each spermatid is a cell possessing a cell body, a nucleus, two centrosomes, a structure known as an idiosome. The latter is believed by some authoriti

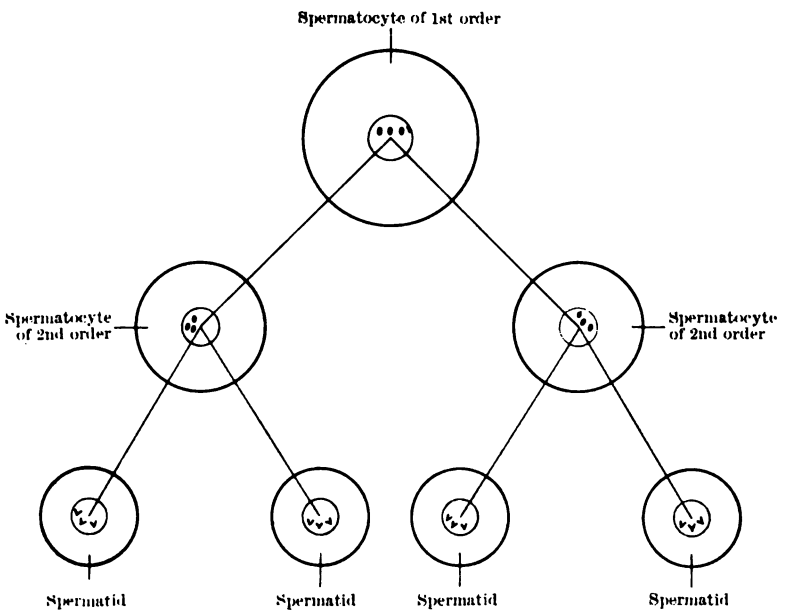
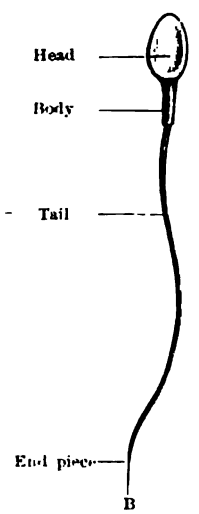


FIG. 7. -DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE PROCESS OF CELL-DIVISION RESULTING IN THE FORMATION SPERMATIDS WHICH ARE AFTERWARDS MODIFIED INTO SPERMATOZOA.

represent the attraction sphere, whilst others look upon it as a special modifica of the protoplasm only established during the process of mitosis, and distinct f the attraction sphere. However this may be, the nucleus of the spermatid bec the head of the spermatozoon (Fig. 9). The idiosome forms the head cap, a filament grows out from the region of the centrosomes, and the body of spermatid forms part if not all of the neck, body, tail, and end piece of spermatozoon. The centrosomes become embedded in the neck, one at its cepl and the other at its caudal end. The axial filament is closely connected the posterior centrosome, which has possibly united with the cytoplasm ir formation.

[1] In the mouse, and probably also in some other mammals, only one polar body is formed in many ca

ere is no doubt that the mature ovum and the spermatozoon, so far as their pment is concerned, are very similar. Each is derived from a primitive ell, which becomes embedded in the generative gland. From the primitive ell in the one case oogonia are formed and in the other spermatogonia, and he oogonia and spermatogonia respectively oocytes and spermatocytes of the der are derived. The oocyte of the first order divides by heterotype mitosis oocyte of the second order and the first polar body, and the spermatocyte first order divides, also by heterotype mitosis, into two spermatocytes of the order. By a second and homotype mitosis the oocyte of the second order into a mature ovum and a second polar body, and the spermatocyte of the order divides into two spermatids. Thus the final result of the division of rmatocyte of the first order is the formation of four granddaughter cells or tids, each of which contains half the number of chromatic particles present primitive germ cell, whilst the final result of the division of the oocyte of st order is the production in some cases of only three granddaughter he mature ovum and two polar bodies, but in many cases the first ody divides in the homotype manner simultaneously with the division oocyte of the second order, and thus the final result of the division oocyte is four granddaughter cells, the mature ovum and three polar each containing half the number of chromosomes present in the primitive ell. There are, however, two differences of importance between the male and the female elements. The final result of the division of the female element is one mature ovum immediately capable of fertilisation and further development, and two or three polar bodies which are incapable of further development and which ultimately disappear. On the other hand, the result of the division of the male element is the production of four equal parts, the spermatids, each of which undergoes further modification, and is transformed into a spermatozoon capable of fertilising a mature ovum.



UMAN SPERMATOZOA
fter Retzius).
iew; B, Front view.

A **spermatozoon**, like an ovum, is a nucleated mass of cytoplasm, but it presents striking modifications in structure. It is very small, and possesses a head, a neck, a body, a tail, and piece (Fig. 8). In addition it is provided with cap which covers more than the anterior half head (Fig. 9). This cap is modified over the apex head into a sharp cutting edge, by means of which rmatozoon, driven forward by the movement of the rces its way through the oolemma of the ovum. the short neck are an anterior and a posterior ome separated by an intermediate disc, and from sterior centrosome an axial filament extends h the body and tail, and terminates posteriorly as l piece. The axial filament is surrounded by a which is thicker in the body than in the tail. Outside the sheath of the lament, in the body, is a spiral sheath, and this is enclosed by a sheath of orm substance, the mitochondrial sheath, which rests at the lower end of y on an annulus or terminal disc.

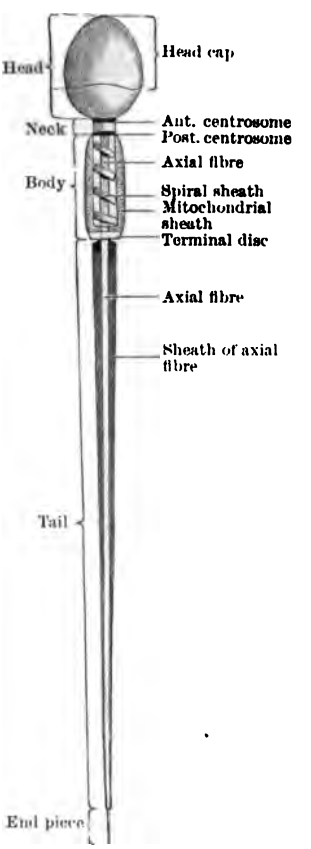


FIG. 9. STRUCTURE OF A HUMAN SPERMATOZOON (after Meeves).

A transverse striation of the head, a spiral filament, a spiral sheath associa with the body and tail, and a terminal spear connected with the head have b described by Bardleben and others, but apparently they do not exist normally parts of the human spermatozoon.

The head of the spermatozoon is ovoid and laterally compressed, so that w viewed from the side it appears pointed; it is about 4·5 μ long, 2·5 μ broad, 1·5 μ thick. The body is somewhat longer than the head, and the tail is six ti as long as the body, therefore the total length of the spermatozoon is about fifth of the diameter of the ovum.

FERTILISATION OF THE OVUM AND THE RESULTS THAT ENSU

Fertilisation.—The mature ovum is fertilised by a spermatozoon. The generative elements meet, and fertilisation takes place as a rule in the u part of the Fallopian tube. The spermatozoon penetrates the zona pellucid the ovum, cutting through it by means of the sharp edge of its head cap. At same time a conical projection, the **cone of attraction**, appears on the surfac the ovum, within the zona pellucida, directly beneath the point at which

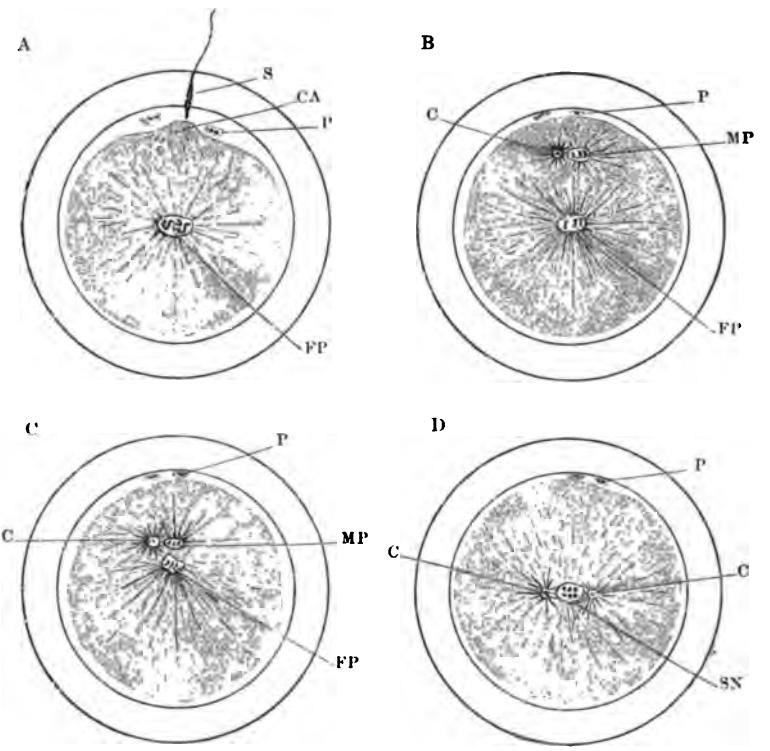


FIG. 10.—FERTILISATION OF THE OVUM (Diagrammatic).

A, The entrance of the spermatozoon and the formation of the cone of attraction; B, The appearance centrosome; C, The approachment of the male and female pronuclei; D, The first segmentation nu

C. Centrosome. FP. Female pronucleus. P. Polar body.
CA. Cone of attraction. MP. Male pronucleus. SN. Segmentation nucleus.

spermatozoon is entering. The head, and probably a portion of the body of spermatozoon, plunge into the cone of attraction; the remainder of the body and tail are cast off and disappear. The portion of the spermatozoon which enters cytoplasm of the ovum is converted into a nucleus, the **male pronucleus**, whic accompanied by its attraction sphere and centrosome. When the male pronuc is distinctly formed the granules of the cytoplasm in its neighbourhood begi radiate around it, as if under its influence, and the pronucleus itself tra inwards.

As the male pronucleus approaches the female pronucleus the latter sl

of activity, it undergoes changes of form, and moves to meet the male cleus. For a time the two pronuclei lie in juxtaposition, and ultimately they gether, forming the **first segmentation nucleus.**

e first segmentation nucleus is accompanied by two centrosomes which lie at posite poles, and are the products of the male centrosome which divides as nuclei fuse.

e **fertilised ovum**, the product of the fusion of the mature ovum and the tozoon, contains in its nucleus, the first segmentation nucleus, the same of chromosomes as the primitive ovum or the sperm-mother cell, but the somes of the segmentation nucleus are derived partly from a male and rom a female individual.

rding to some authorities, both the male and female pronuclei are accompanied by nes, and at the moment of union of the pronuclei each centrosome divides; thus four rosomes are formed, two male and two female. From the four half-centrosomes two new nes are formed by the union of half a male centrosome with half a female centrosome. view be correct, each of the two centrosomes which accompany the first segmentation ontains both male and female elements.

mentation.—Segmentation is the division of the fertilised ovum (oosperm) number of cells. These cells are afterwards arranged in layers—the germinal r layers of the blastoderm; ultimately they are differentiated into the tissue s of the body.

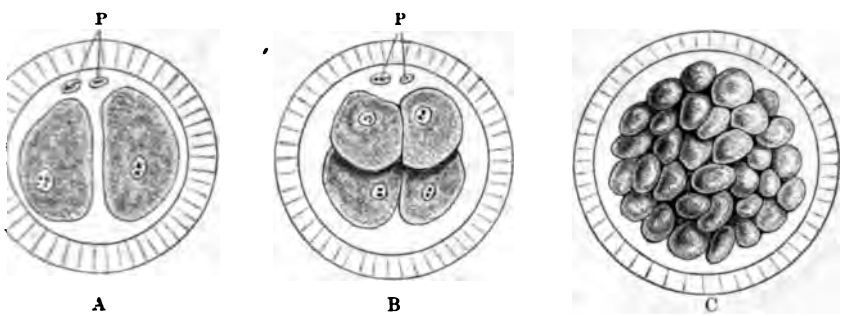


FIG. 11.—SEGMENTATION OF THE FERTILISED OVUM IN THE RABBIT.

Formation of blastomeres and morula (Diagrammatic).
A, Division into two segments; B, Division into four segments; C, Morula; P, Polar bodies.

the phenomena of segmentation have not been observed in the human ovum, is to be understood that the following description is based chiefly upon the ons met with in rodents, more especially in the rabbit, an animal well l for the study of these phenomena.

er a period of quiescence, which succeeds the fusion of the male and female lei, a period of activity supervenes, during which repeated divisions of the nated ovum result in the production of a solid mass of cells called a **morula.** isions are mitotic, and all the phenomena associated with mitosis are readily ble in properly prepared specimens.

planes which separate the several segments of the divided ovum in its stages are termed the "planes of segmentation," and in some animals the ane by which the ovum is divided into the first two daughter cells coincides e future mid-axial or mesial plane of the body, the descendants of the cell the right of it being developed into the right half of the body, and those cell to the left into the left half. There is no proof, however, that this in mammals; all that is definitely known is that the first division separates um into two parts of unequal size but of similar colour and structure.

second plane of segmentation is at right angles to the first, and it separates daughter cells into four granddaughter cells, of which, in some cases, two larger and two smaller. The subsequent divisions occur irregularly, and sult in the formation of numerous cells (blastomeres) which apparently only n size in the rabbit, but which also differ in appearance in many mammals. are mixed together so irregularly that it is impossible to distinguish the

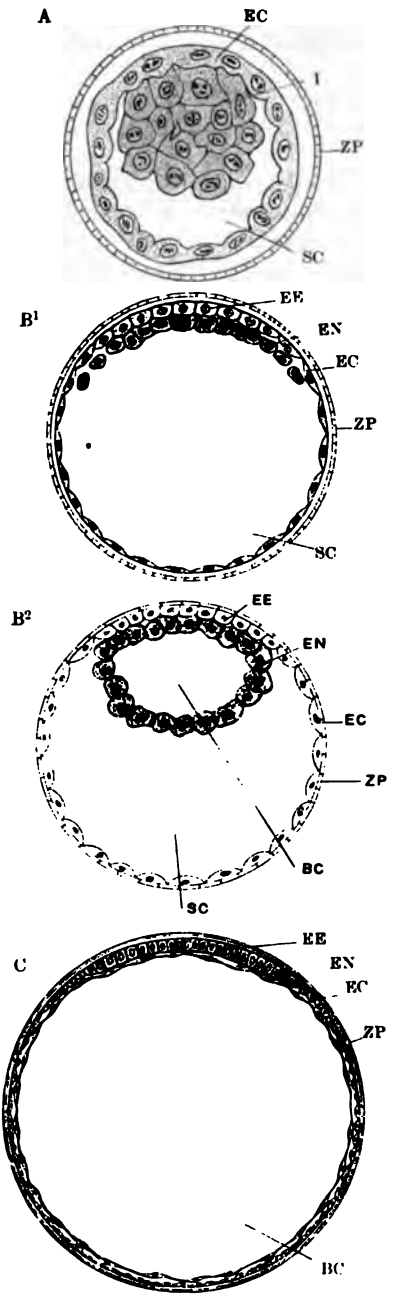


FIG. 12.—CONVERSION OF THE MORULA TO THE BLASTULA.

Formation of blastodermic vesicle and membrane.

A, Appearance of segmentation cavity and attachment of inner cell mass to ectoderm at upper pole of ovum; B^1, Extension and flattening of inner cell mass as it occurs in rabbit and some other mammals; B^2, Extension of entoderm as it occurs in insectivora, monkeys, apes, and man; C, Completion of bilaminar blastodermic vesicle. BC, Blastodermic cavity; EC, Ectoderm; EE, Embryonic ectoderm; EN, Entoderm; I, Inner cell mass; SC, Segmentation cavity; ZP, Zona pellucida.

descendants of one daughter cell from th the other, and in this, the **morula stage,** is frequently no indication of any sepa of the cells into layers. In the meantin polar bodies have disappeared.

The next phenomenon of importance appearance of a cavity—**the segmentation** —in the morula; the ovum assumes a ve character, and is now termed a **blastula.** taneously with the appearance of the the cells of the morula are arranged in two —an outer and an inner. The cells of th group form a layer, the primitive **ectod epiblast**; those of the inner group remain t together and constitute the **inner cell mass** two groups are in contact at one pole ovum, and it is in this region that the e develops (Fig. 12, A).

In the rabbit and in some other ma the outer cells of the inner mass at the emb pole of the ovum blend with the supe primitive ectoderm (Rauber's cells) to fo embryonic ectoderm. This is merely a fication of the more general plan, by whi inner cell mass becomes the inner layer now vesicular ovum, but the conversion inner mass into the entoderm may take in two different ways.

(1) In the rabbit and in many other mals the inner mass gradually flattens o its cells form a layer at the embryonic and the wall of the vesicular ovum, which called a blastodermic vesicle, is partly unil and partly bilaminar (B^1, Fig. 12). Gra however, the margins of the entodermal extend, and ultimately the cavity of the is surrounded by two complete layers, ect and entoderm.

In the hedgehog, in monkeys, apes, a human subject, a cavity appears in the cell mass (B^2, Fig. 12), and the cells arc assume a laminar character, constituting t toderm, which is separated from the ect except in the embryonic area, by the o cavity of the blastodermic vesicle.

In the case of the hedgehog the in the entoderm expands until the entod forced into contact with the ectoderm, condition is attained similar to that m in the rabbit (C, Fig. 12), but in monkey and the human subject the expansion entoderm cavity is not so great, and the en does not attain contact with the ect except in the embryonic area.

In amphioxus and many of the invertebr results of the segmentation are not quite t as in mammals, for at a very early period, the definite formation of a morula mass, the se tion cells arrange themselves in a layer round a

form a complete unilaminar blastoderm. In these cases the bilaminar condition
l by the invagination of a portion of the wall of the vesicle. The opening at
invagination occurs is called the **blastopore**. The cavity enclosed by the
cells is the archenteron, or primitive alimentary cavity or gastrula cavity.
the blastopore the cavity is surrounded by two layers of cells, an outer the
nd an inner the entoderm, and the animal at this period of its development is

In the mammal the cells which become invaginated in amphioxus to form
n are enclosed in the interior of the morula mass at a very early period of the
n, before the vesicular condition is attained, but eventually, as already pointed
rm a layer inside the ectoderm and they enclose a cavity, the blastodermic
h is homologous with the archenteron or gastrula cavity of the lower forms,
ity is closed and the blastopore is not obvious. In amphioxus, however, the
ecomes elongated antero-posteriorly, and along the margins a third layer, the
grows out between the two primitive layers. In the mammal, on the other
the entoderm and ectoderm are definitely established, a linear streak, called
e streak, to which further reference will be made, appears on the surface of
this becomes perforated at its anterior end, and from its margins and mesoderm
wards; clearly, therefore, it represents the blastopore of amphioxus though
rforation is only present for a short time, and the mammalian ovum at this
be looked upon as a gastrula.

oderm and entoderm together constitute the blastoderm or blastodermic
which is bilaminar, and the vesicle of which they form the wall is no
en of as the blastula, but as the **blastodermic vesicle**.

ire of the Ectoderm and Entoderm.—The cells of the ectoderm are at
lar in size and shape, and their outlines are indistinct; but after a short
toderm cells at one pole of the blastodermic vesicle become cubical or
umnar, whilst the remaining cells of the outer layer are flattened and
lar outlines.
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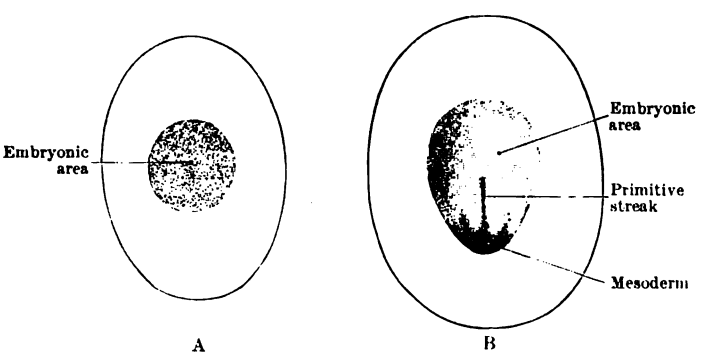


FIG. 13.—SURFACE VIEW OF THE BLASTODERMIC VESICLE.
Showing the embryonic area and the commencement of the mesoderm.
A, Before the appearance of the primitive streak—the embryonic area is circular in form and bilaminar throughout; B, After the appearance of the primitive streak. The posterior end of the primitive streak shows a crescentic thickening, which indicates the commencement of the mesoderm or middle layer of the blastodermic membrane.

later period they are transformed into polygonal plates which appear
ped in section (Fig. 12).

onic Area.—When the upper pole of the bilaminar blastodermic
xamined in surface view from above, a dark, somewhat opaque circular
ble; this is known as the embryonic area. It is coextensive with the
portion of the ectoderm. Very soon after it appears the embryonic area
oid; the small end of the ovoid area is posterior, that is, it lies in the
ch is afterwards converted into the posterior part of the embryo. At
end of the ovoid area a still darker patch of triangular form is developed;
ecomes crescentic, and is the first indication of the primitive streak and
ation of a third blastodermic layer termed the **mesoderm** or **mesoblast**.

mitive streak consists of thickened ectoderm which is seen in transverse
jecting downwards, and resting upon the entoderm in the form of a ridge.

From the sides and the posterior extremity of the ectodermal ridge a lamina of cells projects outwards, and gradually insinuates itself between the ectoderm and the entoderm over the whole area of the vesicle, except in certain regions to be afterwards described. This lamina is the rudiment of the mesoderm. With the formation of the mesoderm the blastodermic membrane becomes trilaminar.

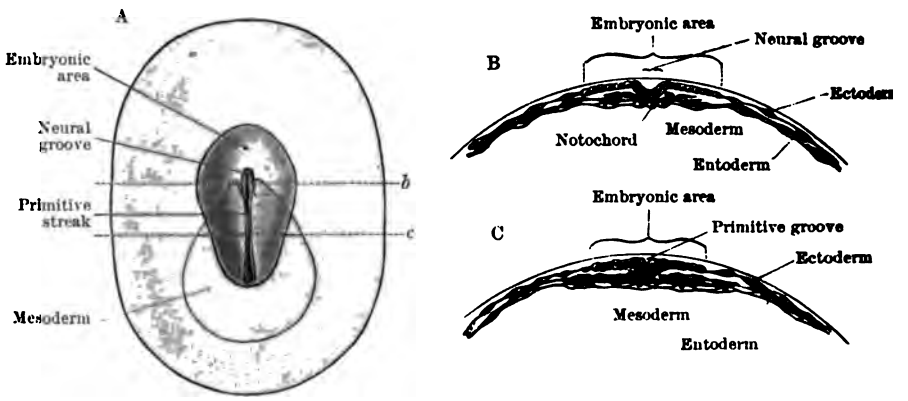


FIG. 14.—THE UPPER POLE OF THE BLASTODERMIC VESICLE.

Showing the embryonic area, the primitive streak with the extension of the mesoderm from its sides at posterior end, and the commencement of the neural groove.

A, Surface view (diagrammatic); B and C, Transverse sections through the blastoderm of the ferret a stage represented in A and along the lines *b* and *c* respectively.

The majority of the cells of the mesoderm are derived from those of primitive streak, but it is said that cells from the entoderm also take part in formation. Young mesodermal cells are round or ovoid, and some give off numer processes. In later stages they may assume various shapes, and many clo resemble the cells of the ectoderm or those of the entoderm.

As the blastodermic vesicle grows, the embryonic or germinal area beco pyriform and increases in length, principally in the posterior part of its ex where the primitive streak is situated; at the same time the streak lengthens

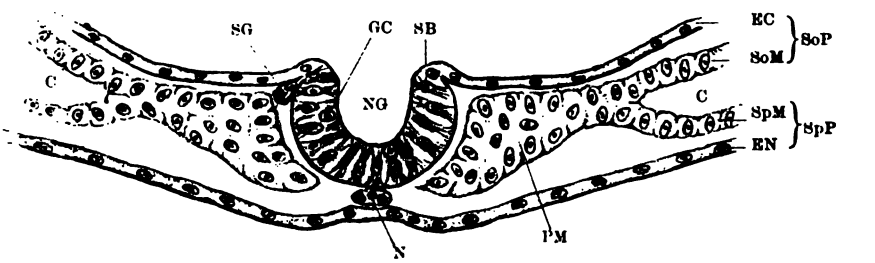


FIG. 15.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A FERRET EMBRYO.

Showing neural groove before the separation of the paraxial from the lateral mesoderm.

C. Coelom. GC. Germinal cell. PM. Paraxial mesoderm. SoM. Somatic mesoder
EC. Ectoderm. N. Notochord. SB. Spongioblast. SoP. Somatopleure.
EN. Entoderm. NG. Neural groove. SG. Spinal ganglion. SpM. Splanchnic meso
SpP. Splanchnopleure.

becomes more linear. For a short time a groove, the **primitive groove**, appear the surface of the streak. It is deepest in front, where in some mammals, inc ing man, a small transitory perforation is formed, the **neurenteric canal.**

A second broader and shallower groove then appears in the embryonic immediately in front of the primitive streak; this is the **neural groove**, the rudir of the nervous system. The neural groove, its bounding folds, and the ner system subsequently developed from them are formed entirely of ectodermal elem which at first are continuous with those forming the outer layer of the em The posterior end of the neural groove embraces the anterior end of the prim streak and groove, and at this period the neurenteric canal forms a communica

tween the interior of the ovum and the bottom of the neural groove, which ter afterwards becomes the closed canal of the central nervous system. In some tebrates the neurenteric canal persists for a considerable period, and upon the lopment of the alimentary canal it constitutes a communicating channel ween it and the cavity of the neural tube.

ls the neural groove grows backwards the anterior part of the primitive streak sorbed, and although the posterior part continues to grow, the primitive streak whole diminishes in length; ultimately the greater part of the primitive k disappears, but a portion is recognisable for a considerable time extending the base of the tail, a transitory structure in the human embryo, to the al wall of the body. This portion forms the posterior boundary of the tive alimentary canal; it remains bilaminar, and is called the cloacal brane.

e primitive streak is of great morphological importance; recent researches have shown rom it and the cells in its neighbourhood the greater part of the body of the embryo, he exception of the anterior part of the head and heart region, is developed. It possibly ents the mouth of a remote (pre-vertebrate) ancestor, the fused lips of which formed the of a primitive vertebrate animal. The aperture of this mouth is still represented in lower rates by an opening known as the blastopore. The neurenteric canal is the only represen- of the opening in the human subject.

he **neural or medullary groove** is bounded laterally by medullary folds h are continuous in front of the groove, but separate behind where they

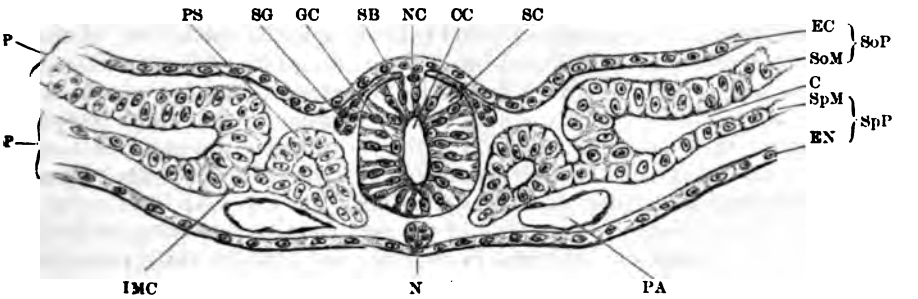


FIG. 16—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF FERRET EMBRYO.

ng the closure of the neural groove, the formation of the neural crest, the outgrowth of the spinal ganglia, the commencement of the separation of the paraxial mesoderm from the lateral plates, and the differentiation of the intermediate cell mass.

elom.	GC.	Germinal cell.	PA.	Primitive aorta.	SG.	Spinal ganglion.
ntral canal.	IMC.	Intermediate cell mass.	PS.	Mesodermic somite.	SoM.	Somatic mesoderm.
toderm.	N.	Notochord.	SB.	Spongioblast.	SoP.	Somatopleure.
ntoderm.	NC.	Neural crest.	SC.	Spinal cord.	SpM.	Splanchnic mesoderm.
			SpP.	Splanchnopleure		

ace the anterior end of the primitive streak. The neural groove increases ngth both in front and behind. The backward increase takes place at the se of the primitive streak, whilst the anterior increase is due to the rapid th of the anterior part of the embryonic area; at the same time, not because ough coincident with, an increase of the mesoderm which has grown beneath , the medullary folds are gradually elevated, and their apices bending inwards together over the neural groove, which is thus converted into a tube or canal **neural tube**. The medullary folds unite, in the first place, in the region afterwards becomes the neck; and subsequently they unite progressively, rds and backwards.

long the line of union the neural tube is connected, for a time, with the ce ectoderm by a ridge of cells, the **neural crest**. The crest soon separates the surface, but it remains connected with the neural tube, and is utilised in ormation of the cranial and spinal nerve ganglia, the sympathetic ganglia, the id and coccygeal bodies, and the medullary parts of the suprarenal bodies, st the walls of the neural tube are converted into the nervous and sustentacular e elements of the whole of the central nervous system (brain and spinal cord).

Before the tube is closed the neural groove is dilated at each end (see Fig. The posterior dilatation is single; it constitutes the rhomboidal sinus, which u ordinary circumstances soon disappears. Anteriorly, numerous dilatations distinguishable at first. The exact number of these dilatations (neuromeres) said to be eleven. As the tube closes they resolve themselves into three distin vesicles termed the **primary cerebral vesicles.** These constitute the rudiments of t fore- mid- and hind-brains, and their respective ventricular cavities. The remainde of the cavity of the tube becomes the central canal of the spinal cord.

After the separation of the neural crest from the surface the mesoderm co pletely surrounds the whole of the neural tube, and from it are formed t membranes of the brain and spinal cord and their skeletal environments.

The ectodermal cells which form the wall of the primitive neural tube are defined, but they soon differentiate into two sets, **spongioblasts** and **germinal c** The spongioblasts are the more numerous, they are columnar in form, and extend from an internal limiting membrane which is developed round the periphe of the central canal to an external limiting membrane which forms the out limit of the neural tube. There is frequently considerable difficulty in recogni their columnar character, even in the early stages, partly because their nuclei not all lie at the same level, and partly because they are so closely opposed. T spongioblasts are converted into the sustentacular tissue, or **myelospongium,** of t brain and spinal cord, but all do not undergo precisely the same transformatio The inner portions of those spongioblasts whose nuclei lie near the central ca retain a columnar form, and cilia grow from their free surfaces into the lumen of th canal; in other words, they are converted into the ciliated epithelium of the centr canal, but the outer portions of the same cells are transformed into fibrillar proces which terminate externally by fusing with the external limiting membrane. Th remaining spongioblasts entirely lose their columnar form, they become mu branched, and their branches interlace with the fibrillar processes of the ciliate epithelial cells, and with similar branches of neighbouring cells, forming th reticular sustentacular tissue or myelospongium; the external limiting membran is produced by the close interweaving of the peripheral myelospongial fibrils.

The germinal cells are spherical in outline, and contain clear protoplasm an darkly-staining nuclei. They lie between the inner ends of the spongioblasts clo to the central canal where, at the fourth or fifth week, they form an irregular laye and it is believed that they very soon give rise to a new generation of cells, th **neuroblasts,** or young nerve-cells—at all events neuroblasts appear as the germin cells disappear. Each neuroblast rapidly becomes pyriform by the outgrowth of a **axial process** or **axon,** which projects from its outer end towards the periphery o the tube.

Shortly after their formation the neuroblasts migrate outwards, and ultimately those of the cord are arranged in longer or shorter columns in the myelospongium whilst those of the brain are grouped together in definite areas to form th cerebral nuclei.

Each neuroblast as it develops gives off many processes, which vary in lengt and thickness. The first formed of these is the axial process or axon alread referred to. It carries impulses from the cell, gives off lateral branches, an terminates either in association with a special end-organ or by ramifying amid other nerve-processes or round a nerve-cell of the central or peripheral nervou system. The remaining processes of the neuroblast are called **dendrites** protoplasmic processes. They are usually shorter and more branched than th axon, and they carry impulses to the cell. The whole system of cell body, axo and dendrites into which a neuroblast develops is termed a **neuron.**

Every neuron is probably a separate and distinct entity. Its processes neith anastomose together nor with the processes of other neurons. They lie, howeve in close contiguity with either the body or processes of other neurons, or wit special end-organs, and it is possible for impulses to pass from one neuron t another although there is no structural continuity between them.

Extension of the Mesoderm and Division of the Blastodermic Membran into Areas.—It has already been pointed out that when the primitive streak fir

it consists of a thickened ridge of ectoderm situated in the posterior part mbryonic area and resting upon the entoderm. The anterior end of the on fuses with the entoderm beneath it, and from its sides and posterior y a lamelliform outgrowth, the mesoderm, is projected between the and entoderm. At its commencement the mesoderm is an outgrowth primitive streak, but during its subsequent extension it is probably added ls proliferated from the entoderm.

extends the mesoderm forms a semilunar sheet of cells, the concavity of lune being turned forwards, whilst the convexity is gradually projected he margins of the embryonic area. The cornua of the semilunar sheet vards on either side of, and at some little distance from the middle line, ely beneath the medullary folds. Each cornu on reaching the anterior e embryonic area bifurcates, and the resulting processes unite with their f the opposite side.

ie same time the mesoderm grows from its convex margin, and extends rest of the ovum as a continuous sheet. But even when the extension is d, in the majority als, three areas on r aspect of the main devoid of n, and consist only rm and entoderm. rgest of these areas ctly in front of yonic region. In mmals it is folded and backwards in the head of the when this becomes shable, and it takes the formation of e protecting fœtal es, viz. the amnion; refore called the n, and the area ich it is developed es the **proamniotic area.** Probably it is not present in the human blasto- if it exists it is very transitory.

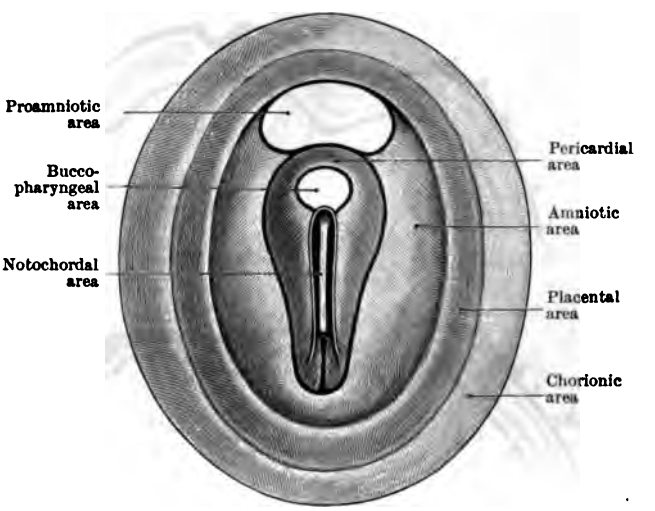


FIG. 17.—SURFACE AREAS OF THE BLASTODERM.

econd of the areas into which the mesoderm does not extend lies in the ic region. It is separated from the proamniotic area by a bar of mesoderm the pericardial cavity afterwards appears. The anterior part of this rea is situated in front of the neural groove, and as, at a later period, it septum between the primitive mouth and the pharynx, it may be termed **o-pharyngeal area.** The posterior part of the area forms the floor of the y groove, and as the notochord is formed from its entodermal layer we ned it the **notochordal area.**

third area corresponds to the posterior part of the primitive streak. It from the base of the tail towards the umbilicus, forming the **cloacal mem-** hich itself forms the posterior boundary of the primitive alimentary canal. ntually perforated by the genito-urinary and anal apertures.

pt in the areas just described, the blastodermic membrane is trilaminar, and rly period it is possible to distinguish the regions in which the heart and um, the amnion, and the placental and non-placental parts of the chorion equently developed. These regions form fairly well-defined areas, to the positions of which reference may now be made.

anterior part of the embryonic area in front of the bucco-pharyngeal area gion in which the pericardium and heart are developed, and it may therefore d the **pericardial area.**

blastodermic membrane immediately surrounding the embryonic area,

including the proamniotic part in those animals in which it exists, is the **amniotic area**, and this is bounded externally by a band of elevated and thickened ectoderm which indicates the **placental area**. The latter, together with the blastoderm over the rest of the ovum, forms the **chorionic area**, which is separable, therefore, into placental and non-placental portions.

These areas are further referred to in the description of the folding off of the embryo and the formation of the fœtal membranes and placenta.

Formation of the Notochord.—The notochord is the primitive skeletal axis of the embryo. When differentiated it forms a rod which intervenes between the ectodermal neural tube and the entoderm of the primitive alimentary canal. It is developed from the entoderm beneath the neural groove in the notochordal area. A linear strip of entoderm thickens and then separates as a solid rod of cells, the continuity of the entodermal layer being restored beneath it. When it is completed the notochord extends from a point immediately behind the primitive fore-brain, and

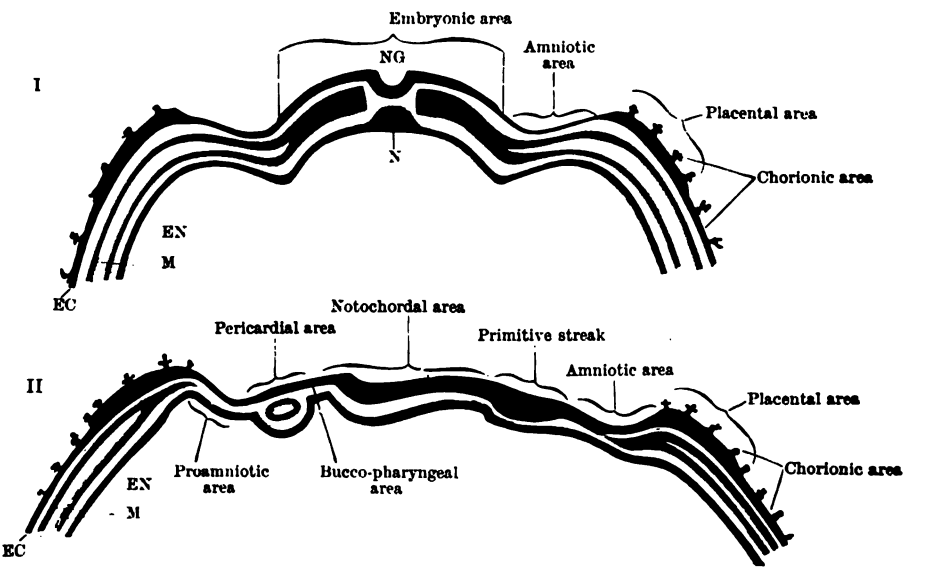


FIG. 18.—SECTIONS SHOWING THE DIFFERENT AREAS OF THE BLASTODERMIC VESICLE (Diagrammatic).

I. Transverse section ; II. Longitudinal section.

EC. Ectoderm. M. Mesoderm. N. Notochordal thickening.
EN. Entoderm. NG. Neural groove.

beneath the anterior end of the mid-brain, to the anterior end of the primitive streak, and in later stages, as the skeleton is formed, the notochord can be traced from the post-sphenoid section of the base of the skull, which is situated beneath the mid-brain, to the tip of the coccyx.

The separation of the notochord from the entoderm commences in the cervical region, and extends forwards and backwards. The anterior extremity is the last part to be detached, the separation occurring shortly after the perforation and disappearance of the bucco-pharyngeal membrane.

The cellular notochord develops a cuticular sheath ; it is subsequently surrounded by mesoderm which separates it both from the neural tube and the entoderm, and which is ultimately transformed into the vertebræ and their ligaments, the intervertebral discs, the basi-sphenoid and basi-occipital parts of the skull, and the membranes of the brain and cord.

As the surrounding mesoderm is differentiated the notochord becomes nodulated ; the thickened portions are situated in the regions of the intervertebral discs, and the intermediate constricted portions in the regions of the vertebral bodies. The vertebral portions gradually disappear, and the intervertebral parts are converted into a kind of mucoid tissue, the pulp of the intervertebral discs.

Formation of the Cœlom.—In all animals in which the entoderm and ectoderm

lie in close relation with each other over the whole surface of the ovum, the

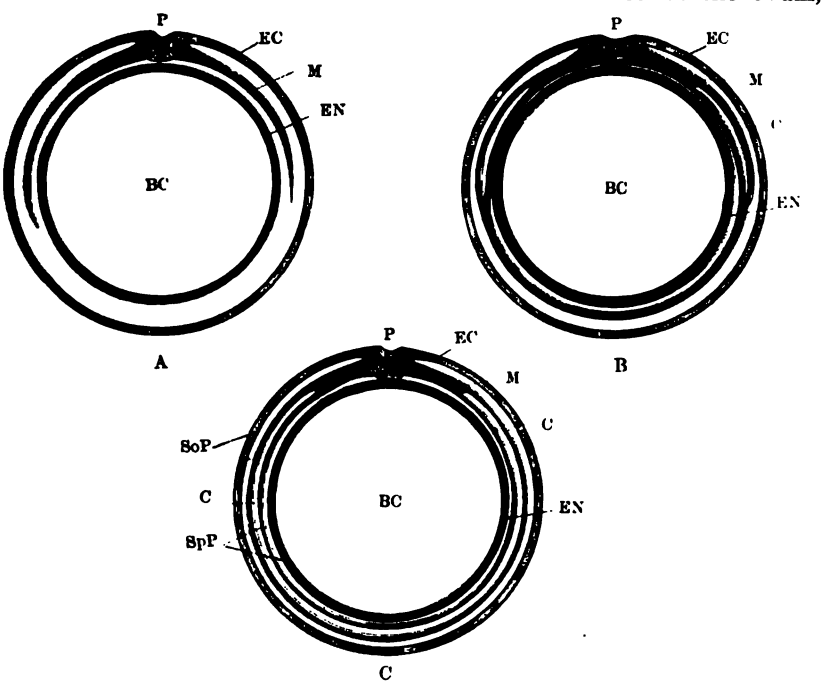


Fig. 19.—Extension of Mesoderm and Formation of Cœlom (Diagrammatic).

A. Mesoderm spreading from the sides of the ectodermal primitive streak, and extending between the ectoderm and entoderm. B. Further extension of the mesoderm and appearance of cœlomic cleft-like spaces. C. Complete delamination of the mesoderm and formation of cœlom.

BC. Blastodermic cavity. C. Cœlom. EC. Ectoderm. EN. Entoderm. M. Mesoderm. P. Primitive Streak. SoP. Somatopleure. SpP. Splanchnopleure.

mesoderm as it extends from the primitive streak forms a single layer, and where this exists the blastoderm is trilaminar, but in monkeys, apes, and the human subject, as the ectoderm and entoderm are separated from each other by the segmentation cavity Fig. 12, B², the mesoderm almost from its commencement extends in two layers, one the splanchnic on the entoderm, and the other the somatic on the inner surface of the ectoderm. In other mammals before the extending mesoderm entirely separates the ectoderm from the entoderm, a cavity is formed in it by the union of a series of cleft-like spaces which appear near the margin of the embryonic area and rapidly fuse together, forming the cœlom or body cavity. Thus in the majority of mammals the cœlom is formed by the cleavage of the mesoderm, but in the higher forms it represents the segmentation cavity which has become surrounded by two extending layers of mesoderm. In those animals

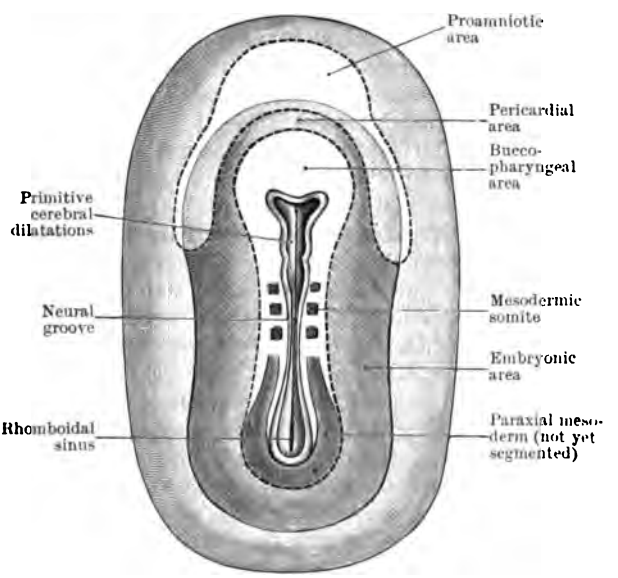


Fig. 20.—Surface View of an Early Embryo (Diagrammatic). Showing the neural groove, dilated in the head region but still unclosed, and the first protovertebral somites. The margins of the cœlomic space are indicated by dotted lines.

in which it appears by cleavage of the mesoderm, it extends towards both pc of the ovum, but in the higher forms only towards the embryonic pole, and both groups its extension in the embryonic area is arrested before it qu reaches the side of the notochord and the mesial plane of the primitive streak. extends across the pericardial area, however, and forms the rudiment of t pericardial cavity, which appears as a transverse tubular passage continuous each side with the general body cavity. The outer or parietal layer of t mesoderm becomes more or less closely attached to the ectoderm, and with forms the **somatopleure**, whilst the inner or visceral layer is similarly associat with the entoderm to form the **splanchnopleure**.

When the cœlom is fully formed the blastoderm contains two cavities, one, t cœlom or body cavity, situated between the two layers of the mesoderm, and t other the cavity of the blastodermic vesicle, usually called the vitelline cavity, wh lies inside the entoderm.

Mesodermic or Protovertebral Somites.—During the formation of the cœl the undivided mesoderm at each side of the notochord thickens, principally b dorsal upgrowth which is coincident with the uprising of the ectodermal medull folds which bound the neural groove. There are thus formed two thickened bars mesodermal tissue, one on each side of the neural tube, and they together constitu the **paraxial mesoderm** (Fig. 15); the more laterally situated portions of the mesode are known as the **lateral plates.**

The paraxial mesoderm is soon divided, except in the head region, by a numl of transverse clefts into a series of cubical masses termed the **mesodermic somit** These are at first partially, and afterwards more completely separated from t lateral plates by longitudinal grooves. After the longitudinal grooves are form the mesodermic somites of each side are connected with the lateral mesoderm b somewhat contracted strand of cells, the **intermediate cell mass** (Fig. 16). T strand is represented in lower vertebrates by a series of separate cords of ce the stalks of the somites, each somite possessing one stalk.

The separation of the paraxial mesoderm from the lateral plates and t segmentation of the former into somites extends forwards to the region of the hi brain, where the first protovertebral somite is formed. In front of this t mesoderm, in mammals at least, does not become segmented.

The cavity of the cœlom may extend into the paraxial mesoderm before it segmented into protovertebral somites, or it may stop just outside the limits of paraxial mesoderm. In the former case each somite, when separated from lateral plate, contains a cavity, and the intermediate cell mass is also hollow fo time. In the latter case the protovertebral somites and the intermediate cell mas are solid; at a later period, however, a cavity which contains a few spherical c appears temporarily in each somite.

Folding Off of the Embryo from the Blastodermic Vesicle.—Although many rudiments of the embryo become distinguishable at an early period in development (the embryonic area, the primitive streak and groove, the neu groove, the notochord, and the protovertebral somites), the body of the embryo d not assume its characteristic form until it becomes raised and folded off from general surface of the blastodermic vesicle.

The main cause of the folding off of the embryo from the surface of the vesi is the more rapid growth of the embryonic area as contrasted with the slower grov and expansion of the remainder of the wall of the vesicle; and the moulding of increasing embryonic area into the form of the embryo is due to differences in rate of growth of the various parts of the area itself.

The manner in which the area is folded, and the changes in the relat positions of its various parts which necessarily result, will be easily understood reference to Figs. 21 and 27.

The embryonic area at an early period increases rapidly, especially in leng Its margins, however, appear to remain comparatively fixed, and hence as the a increases it must fold upon itself. It becomes more convex externally, and raised slightly above the general surface, but at the same time it apparently sin into the interior of the ovum, and the amnion folds close over it.

The antero-posterior growth is greater than the lateral; consequently the folding of the embryonic area is most marked in front and behind. Anterior and posterior, or cephalic and caudal folds are formed, which indicate the head and tail extremities of the embryo. Similarly, lateral folds define the lateral limits of the body.

When the body of the embryo thus becomes folded off it contains a portion of the blastodermic cavity and of the cœlom; the former is the primitive alimentary canal, and the latter is the rudiment of the pericardial, pleural, and peritoneal cavities.

The communication between the pleuro-peritoneal and the extra-embryonic

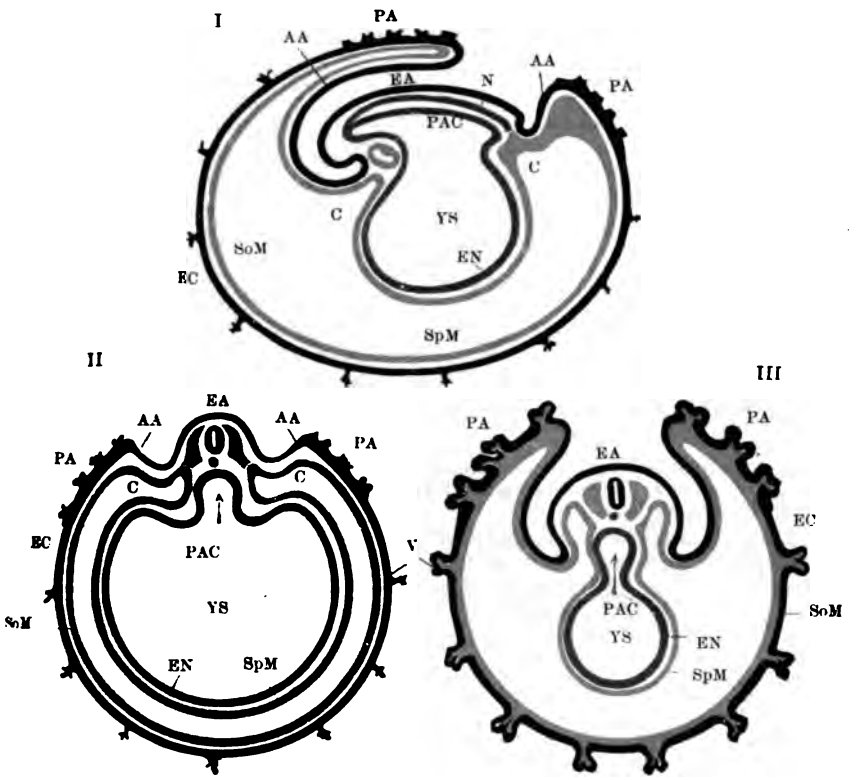


FIG. 21.—EARLY STAGES IN THE FOLDING OFF OF THE EMBRYO (Diagrammatic).

I. Longitudinal section of a developing ovum. The folding off of the embryo has commenced, and the head fold, bending down in front, has invaginated the amniotic area. The tail fold is partly formed, and the primitive alimentary canal, closed in front, communicates freely with the yolk-sac by a wide umbilical aperture.

II. Transverse section of a developing ovum showing the commencement of the "folding off." The thickened embryonic area is convex externally, and it already appears to sink below the surface of the ovum.

III. Transverse section showing the "folding off" more advanced. The changes seen in II. are more marked, and by apparent constriction at the junction of the embryonic area with the rest of the blastodermic vesicle the embryo is still further nipped off, and distinct lateral folds are formed.

The division of the cavity of the blastodermic vesicle into that of the primitive alimentary canal and that of the yolk-sac is shown in all the figures.

The amniotic area, directed upwards and inwards in II., forms with the placental area the amniotic fold, and in III. the amniotic folds of opposite sides are approaching one another over the back of the embryo to enclose the cavity of the amnion. The relative positions of the different areas of the blastoderm are correspondingly modified.

AA.	Amnion fold.	EC.	Ectoderm.	PA.	Placental area.	SpM.	Splanchnic mesoderm.
C.	Cœlom.	EN.	Entoderm.	PAC.	Primitive alimentary canal.	YS.	Yolk-sac.
EA.	Embryonic area.	N.	Notochord.	SoM.	Somatic mesoderm.	V.	Villi.

portion of the cœlom is obviously bounded by the margins of the embryonic area, which constitutes the limits of the umbilical orifice.

The margins of the embryonic area retain approximately their original positions, and in its further growth the embryo extends beyond them in all directions.

THE EMBRYO.

The embryo, now easily distinguishable from the rest of the ovum, is already sufficiently developed to give some indication of the general plan of its organisation, and of the ultimate relation and fate of the three layers of the blastoderm which enter into its constitution. There are as yet no limbs, but the general contour of the head and body are defined. It possesses a notochord, afterwards replaced by the permanent vertebral column, which constitutes a longitudinal central axis. On the dorsal aspect of the notochord the neural groove is closing to form the neural canal, or primitive cerebro-spinal nervous system, whilst on its ventral side a portion of the blastodermic cavity is being included as a primitive tubular alimentary canal, which freely communicates with the remainder of the blastodermic cavity now called the cavity of the yolk-sac.

The formation of the mesodermic somites has commenced, and this is the first indication of that segmentation which is such a characteristic feature in the structure of the vertebrate body.

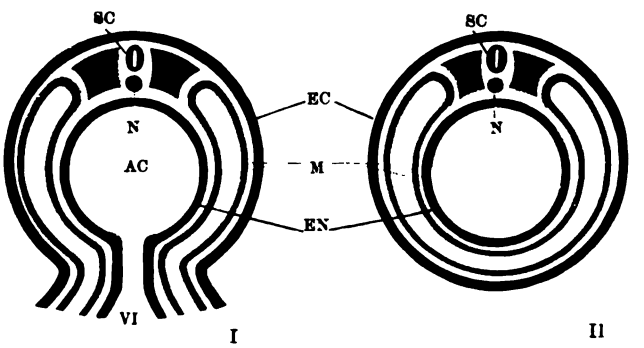


FIG. 22.—THE RELATIVE POSITIONS OF THE BLASTODERMIC LAYERS IN THE BODY OF THE EMBRYO WHEN THE "FOLDING OFF" IS COMPLETED (Diagrammatic).

I. Transverse section through the umbilical aperture.
II. Similar section in front of or behind the umbilicus.

AC. Alimentary canal. EN. Entoderm. N. Notochord.
EC. Ectoderm. M. Mesoderm. SC. Spinal cord.
VI. Vitello-intestinal duct and umbilical aperture.

The general relations of the three layers of the blastoderm remain unaltered. Thus, externally, there is a layer of ectoderm forming the surface of the body; internally, a layer of entoderm lining the primitive alimentary canal; and between them is the mesoderm enclosing the cœlom.

The **surface ectoderm** forms the epithelial elements[1] of the skin and its appendages, and of the glands which open on it. Thus the hairs and hair-follicles, the nails, the enamel of the teeth, the epithelium of the sebaceous glands, of the sweat glands, and of the mammary glands are all ectodermal. The epithelium of the conjunctivæ and of the lachrymal glands is also derived from ectoderm. The roof of the mouth, the inner surfaces of the cheeks, the nasal passages and their associated cavities, together with the adjacent part of the pharynx and the anterior lobe of the pituitary body, as well as the external auditory canal and the outer layer of the tympanic membrane, are all developed from the surface, and their epithelium, with that of their glands, is ectodermal in origin. The epithelium of the sense organs, except that of taste (the tongue), is derived from ectoderm; the auditory and olfactory epithelial elements, and those of the lens and cornea, are from surface ectoderm; whilst the epithelial elements of the retina are from neural ectoderm.

The **neural ectoderm** is removed from the surface to form the neural tube and neural crest, from which the cells and fibres of the whole of the nervous system,[2]

[1] The term "Epithelium" is applied to tissues consisting of cells which are united with one another by means of a small amount of intercellular substance.

The cells constituting epithelium are always arranged in one or more layers; they cover free surfaces and line the various cavities of the body, including the vascular and lymphatic systems; they also form the active elements in secretory glands and line their ducts. Epithelium is always non-vascular, and the cells receive their nourishment from blood-vessels which are in their vicinity. Epithelial cells are modified in accordance with the particular functions they are called upon to serve, and they present many variations in shape, size, and structure, *e.g.* the neuro-epithelial cells of the central nervous system and of the peripheral sense organs differ considerably from the more ordinary epithelial type; but they are simply more specialised, and therefore more modified.

[2] It seems possible that this statement may, before long, require modification, for evidence is being brought forward to show that some portions of the system are developed from peripherally situated ectodermal cells

both central and peripheral, and the sustentacular tissue of the brain and spinal

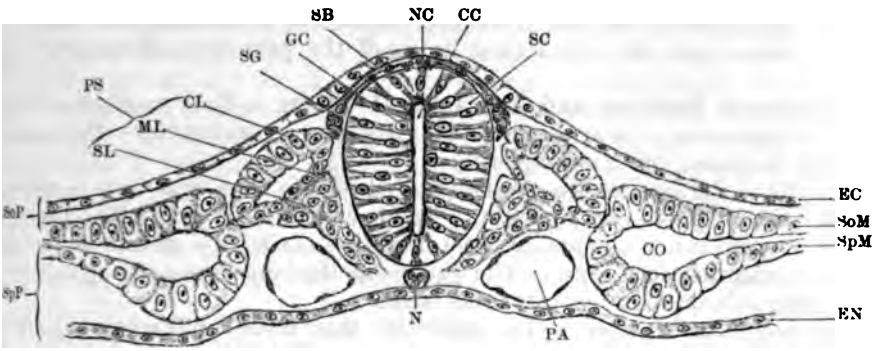


FIG. 23.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A FERRET EMBRYO,

Showing further differentiation of the mesoderm.

CC. Central canal.
CL. Cutaneous lamella of protovertebral somite.
CO. Coelom.
EC. Ectoderm.
EN. Entoderm.
GC. Germinal cell.
ML. Muscular layer of mesodermic somite.
N. Notochord.
NC. Neural crest.
PA. Primitive aorta.
PS. Mesodermic somite.
SB. Spongioblast.
SpP. Splanchnopleure.
SC. Spinal cord.
SG. Spinal ganglion.
SL. Scleratogenous layer of protovertebral somite.
SoM. Somatic mesoderm.
SoP. Somatopleure.
SpM. Splanchnic mesoderm.

cord, are developed. The neural ectoderm also furnishes the epithelial elements of the retinæ, the pineal gland, and of the posterior lobe of the pituitary body. It forms a large part of the vitreous humour of the eye, and contributes to the formation of the carotid, coccygeal and suprarenal bodies.

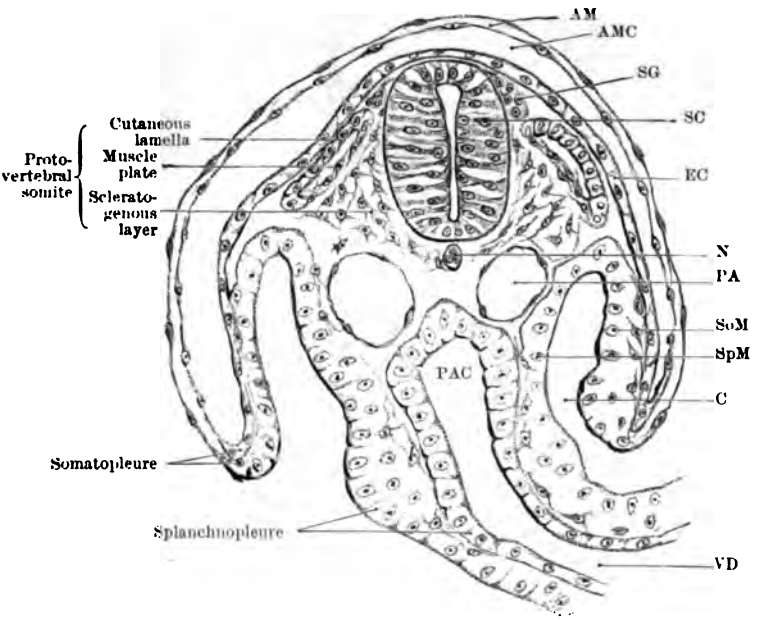


FIG. 24.—FURTHER DIFFERENTIATION OF THE MESODERM.

Transverse section of a rat embryo, showing the transformation of the cells of the scleratogenous layer of a protovertebral somite and their extension round the notochord and spinal cord.

AM. Amnion.
AMC. Amnion cavity.
C. Coelom.
E.C. Ectoderm.
N. Notochord.
PA. Primitive aorta.
PAC. Primitive alimentary canal.
VD. Vitello-intestinal duct.
SC. Spinal cord.
SG. Spinal ganglion.
SoM. Somatic mesoderm.
SpM. Splanchnic mesoderm.

The **entoderm** lines the alimentary canal and the spaces and glands which open into it, except the upper parts of the mouth and pharynx and the terminal portion of the rectum; thus the epithelium of the Eustachian tube and tympanic cavity, the trachea, the bronchi, the air-vesicles of the lungs, the gall-bladder, the urinary bladder, and part of the urethra is entodermal. It forms the epithelial constituents of the taste buds or organs of taste, the liver and the pancreas, the

of the connective tissues, fasciæ, and vessels of the ventro-lateral walls of the body and in mammals, apparently, it also gives origin to the ventro-lateral body muscles and the muscles of the limbs. The splanchnic portions of the lateral plates form the fasciæ, the connective tissues, the smooth muscles of the walls of the alimentary canal, the heart and great blood-vessels, the visceral layers of the pleural and peritoneal membranes, the spleen, and the germinal epithelium, which becomes transformed into the mother cells of the ova and spermatozoa.

In the cephalic region, in higher vertebrates, lateral plates are not recognisable, except so far as they may be represented by the walls of the pericardium; but in some lower vertebrates lateral plates can be distinguished, corresponding in number with the cephalic somites, and it has been asserted that the muscles of the face and the muscles of mastication are developed from the lateral plates associated with the second and third cephalic somites. The subject, however, is one which is still obscure, and requires further investigation before any very positive conclusion can be arrived at.

Intermediate Cell Mass.—As already mentioned, the lateral plates and the mesodermic somites are connected by the intermediate cell masses, which are intimately associated with the development of the ducts and tubules of the genital and urinary organs in man and other mammals. On each side the mass soon separates from the mesodermic somites, and is transformed by rapid proliferation of its cells into an elongated body, the Wolffian body or primitive kidney, which projects downwards into the dorsal angle of the body cavity. In early stages it extends from the fifth somite of the body, backwards to its posterior end, but is most clearly differentiated in the middle portion. The Wolffian duct and tubules and the Müllerian duct are developed in connexion with it; after the second month of intrauterine life it degenerates, and is replaced by the permanent kidney, which is formed dorsal to its posterior extremity.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRIMITIVE ALIMENTARY CANAL.

When the cephalic, caudal, and lateral folds are established, and the general outline of the embryo is clearly defined, its dorsal and lateral surfaces and it

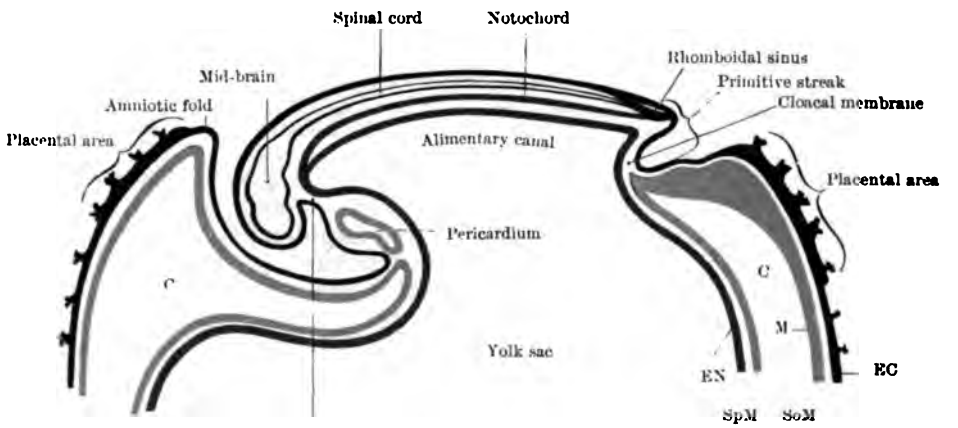


FIG. 27.—DIAGRAM OF A DEVELOPING OVUM, SEEN IN LONGITUDINAL SECTION.

The folding off of the embryo has commenced, and the downward bend of the head fold in front has invaginated the amniotic area. The tail fold is partly formed, and the primitive alimentary canal, closed in front by the bucco-pharyngeal membrane and behind by the cloacal membrane, is distinguishable; it communicates freely with the yolk sac by a wide umbilical aperture.

C. Cœlom. EN. Entoderm. SoM. Somatic mesoderm.
EC. Ectoderm. M. Mesoderm. SpM. Splanchnic mesoderm.

anterior and posterior extremities are easily recognisable, and, as the embryo is folded off from the surface of the blastodermic vesicle, a portion of the blastodermic cavity is enclosed within it; this is the primitive alimentary canal. It is simply an incomplete tubular cavity, situated beneath the notochord, which is bounded

y the head fold, behind by the tail fold, and laterally by the lateral folds, videly open below and continuous with the cavity of the yolk-sac.

the head of the embryo grows more rapidly than any other part, the head more marked than the other folds, and with its formation the pericardial bent round until it becomes ventral in position, its original upper and lower s being reversed (Fig. 27). It is owing to this change of relative position ie ventral wall of the alimentary canal is completed in front, and it is that its anterior limit corresponds to the bucco-pharyngeal area of the erm. The part of the blastodermic cavity enclosed in the head fold con- the **fore-gut.**

tail fold at this period is small, but it limits the primitive gut behind. ventral closing of the posterior end of the primitive alimentary canal to **hind-gut** is produced, ie case of the fore-gut, ling of the embryonic This takes place in the of the tail fold; but terior part of the em- area retains for a con- e time its original , and forms a connect- lk, termed the **body-** between the embryo chorionic area of the erm. Ultimately, how- is terminal section of lbryonic area is re- n position, its posterior ng carried forwards till s the posterior boundary mbilical orifice, and the wall of the hind-gut is mpleted.

rest of the primitive tary canal constitutes **d-gut.** It remains for ime in free communica- ith the cavity of the ic, and this communica- etween the alimentary and the yolk-sac at a stage forms a tubular e, the **vitello-intestinal**

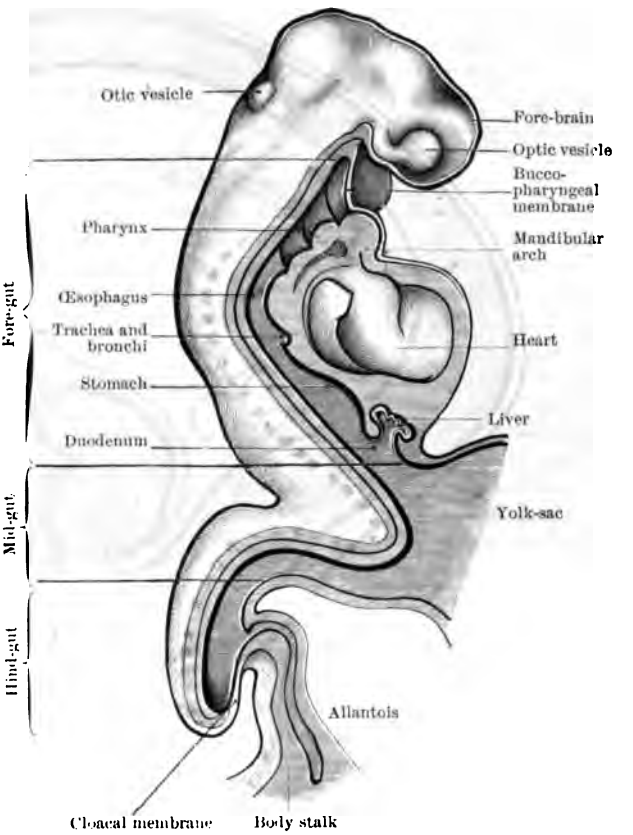


FIG. 28.—DIAGRAM REPRESENTING THE CONDITION OF THE ALIMENTARY CANAL IN A HUMAN EMBRYO ABOUT FIFTEEN DAYS OLD (modified from His).

The visceral clefts are formed, and the subdivisions of the fore-gut, together with the rudiments of the bronchi and liver, are distinct.

e entoderm forms the epithelium of the ali- y canal, but this is d by the splanchnic layer of the mesoderm, which is separated from the pleure or body wall by the cœlom or body cavity. As the splanchnic erm passes on each side to its continuity with the somatic mesoderm it forms by which the gut is suspended from the under surface of the primitive al column; this fold is the **mesentery.**

nen the diaphragm is formed at a later period it separates the thorax from lomen, and divides the cœlom into pleural and peritoneal portions.

e primitive alimentary canal is almost a straight tube, blind at both its ities, and communicating only with the cavity of the yolk-sac. As yet there outh and no anal passage or aperture. The simple tubular canal is divisible ore-gut, mid-gut, and hind-gut, parts which are conveniently associated mentally with definite portions of the fully-formed alimentary canal.

Thus the fore-gut is converted into the pharynx, œsophagus, stomach, and the greater part of the duodenum; whilst from the mid-gut and the hind-gut the rest of the small intestine (jejunum and ileum), and the whole length of the large intestine (cæcum, colon, and rectum), are formed. There is no sharp limit between the mid-gut and the hind-gut, or between the portions of the intestinal canal which develop from them.

Diverticular outgrowths from the entoderm of the primitive alimentary canal form the rudiments of the intestinal glands, including the liver and pancreas; of the respiratory apparatus; and of the thyroid and thymus glands. Details of the formation of these structures are given in the special description of the development of the system to which each belongs.

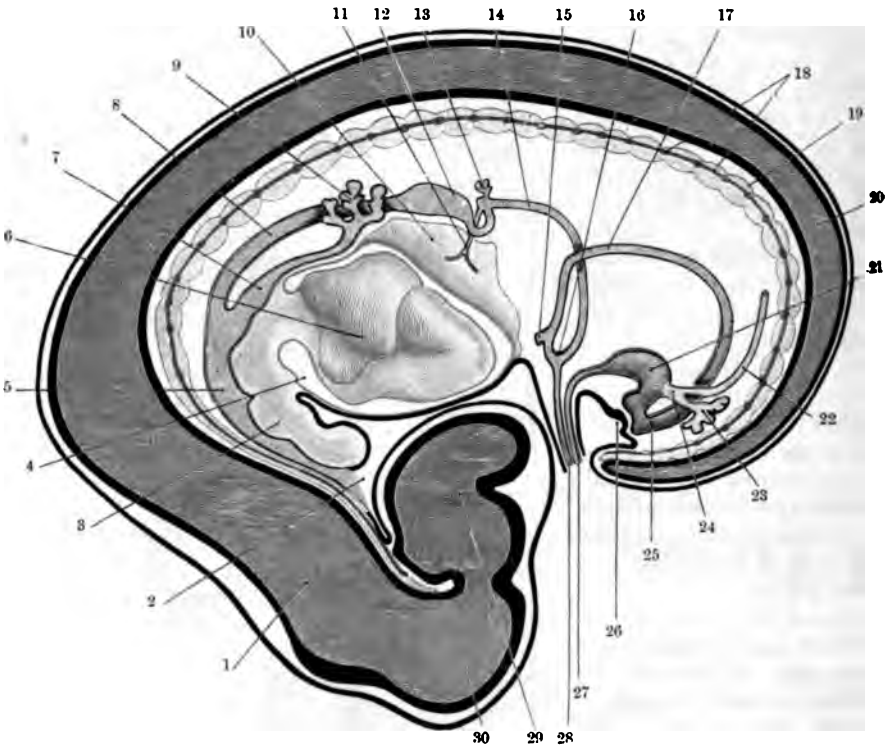


FIG. 29.—FURTHER DEVELOPMENT OF THE ALIMENTARY CANAL, AS SEEN IN A HUMAN EMBRYO ABOUT FIVE WEEKS OLD (Diagrammatic).

The tongue is well formed, the trachea and œsophagus are separated, the bronchi have commenced to branch; the duodenal curve is well formed, and the cæcum has appeared in the loop of the mid-gut. The cloaca is partially separated into genito-urinary and rectal portions.

1. Hind-brain.	7. Trachea.	13. Pancreas.	19. Vertebra.	25. Rectum.
2. Mouth.	8. Œsophagus.	14. Small intestine.	20. Spinal cord.	26. Proctodæum.
3. Tongue.	9. Lung.	15. Cæcum.	21. Bladder.	27. Allantoic diverticulum.
4. Pericardium.	10. Liver.	16. Intestinal loop.	22. Wolffian duct.	28. Vitello-intestinal duct.
5. Pharynx.	11. Bile duct.	17. Large intestine.	23. Kidney.	29. Fore-brain.
6. Heart.	12. Stomach.	18. Notochord.	24. Ureter.	30. Mid-brain.

Except with respect to the anterior part of the fore-gut, the changes in shape and position which the originally simple alimentary tube undergoes during its conversion into its final or adult form are described in the account of the development of the digestive organs; but the development of the pharynx and the structures associated with it, and the formation of the mouth and anus, may be considered now.

Development of the Pharynx and Stomatodæum.—The development of the anterior part of the fore-gut into the pharynx and the floor of the mouth is so intimately associated with the formation of a primitive mouth, the stomatodæum, that the two must to a certain extent be considered simultaneously.

The **stomatodæum** first appears as a depression between the head and the peri-

cardial region. It is produced by the downward growth of the fore-part of the head in front and the bulging forward of the pericardium behind, and it is separated from the anterior end of the fore-gut by the bilaminar bucco-pharyngeal membrane. When the stomatodæum first appears it is not enclosed laterally; but at a later period side boundaries are formed, and the space is developed into the upper part of the mouth and the nasal cavities.

The fore-gut, a relatively wide space, continuous posteriorly with the mid-gut, is at first closed anteriorly by the bucco-pharyngeal membrane, which separates it from the stomatodæum. About the fifteenth day, in the human embryo, the bucco-pharyngeal membrane disappears, the fore-gut is then thrown into continuity with the stomatodæal space, and the anterior opening of the alimentary canal is formed.

As development proceeds the cavity of the fore-gut is gradually compressed dorso-ventrally until its transverse section assumes a triangular outline; but in the earliest stages there are no indications of the various organs which are ultimately developed from its walls. After a short interval, however, two elevations appear in its ventral wall. The anterior of these is a rounded elevation, termed the **tuberculum impar**. It is situated directly behind the lower ends of two raised bars or **arches**, called the mandibular arches, which are growing down into the floor of the fore-gut from the anterior parts of its lateral walls. The tuberculum impar is the rudiment of the anterior two-thirds of the tongue, which is thus formed in the floor of the entodermal portion of the alimentary canal. The more posterior elevation, termed the **furcula**, is a curved ridge, which bounds a mesial longitudinal depression. It is separated from the lateral walls of the fore-gut and from the tuberculum impar by a groove, the **sinus arcuatus**. The anterior part of the furcula is transformed into the epiglottis and the margins of the upper aperture of the larynx; the median depression becomes the cavity of the larynx and of the trachea, and from its posterior end hollow outgrowths extend and form the rudiments of the epithelial lining of the bronchi and lungs. Still more posteriorly, behind the region of the furcula, a dilatation of the fore-gut is formed, which projects forwards and downwards towards the pericardium. This is the first indication of the stomach.

Visceral Clefts and Visceral Arches.—In the lateral wall of the anterior part of the fore-gut, on each side, four incomplete and more or less transverse clefts, the visceral clefts, appear. They are due to outward linear pouchings of the entoderm, and corresponding, but less marked, inward depressions of the ectoderm. The anterior cleft is the best marked, and the rest diminish in size from before backwards. At the bottoms of the clefts the ectoderm and the entoderm are in contact, but the thin membranes thus formed, which intervene between the cavity of the fore-gut and the exterior, are only exceptionally and abnormally perforated in the human subject, though in lower vertebrates they invariably disappear, and the pharyngeal or anterior part of the fore-gut is thrown into continuity, laterally, with the exterior by a number of narrow slits, the gill slits, which are used for respiratory purposes. In man and other mammals, however, the floors of the second, third, and fourth clefts are utilised in the formation of the sides of the neck; that of the first cleft is transformed into the tympanic membrane, which separates the external auditory meatus from the cavity of the tympanum.

In the further consideration of the fate of the visceral clefts, it must be borne in mind that each consists of an inner or entodermal portion and an outer or ectodermal portion. The inner part of the first cleft is converted into the tympanum and the Eustachian tube, and the outer part becomes the external auditory meatus. No traces of the outer part of the second cleft are left, but a portion of the inner part can be recognised as a slight depression above the tonsil in the lateral wall of the pharynx and in a recess, the fossa of Rosenmüller, behind the pharyngeal end of the Eustachian tube. Both the outer and inner portions of the third and fourth clefts disappear, but from their inner parts diverticula are given off which form the rudiments of the thymus and the lateral lobes of the thyroid body. The diverticula from which the thymus is developed are derived from the third clefts, whilst each lateral lobe of the thyroid body, in the majority of mammals, is formed by a diverticulum from the fourth cleft, but in some mammals the lateral lobes are

derived from the median diverticulum, and the outgrowths from the posterior pa of the fourth clefts constitute the post-branchial bodies.

The margins of the visceral clefts are thickened by the growth of the mesode between the entodermal and ectodermal layers, and they are moulded into a se of five rounded bars, the **visceral arches**, of which the fifth is not recognisa externally, though it is easily seen internally. The dorsal extremities of the arc terminate at the sides of the head below the level of the neural tube, and in t early stages the ventral ends rest upon the pericardial region. When the neck formed, it grows forwards from the pericardial region and carries with it the lo ends of the visceral arches, which henceforth terminate in its ventral wall. As t visceral arches are carried forwards the head is strongly curved towards the vent aspect, and the lower ends of the visceral arches are pushed backwards over ea other till t fourth is ov lapped by t third, and t third by t second.

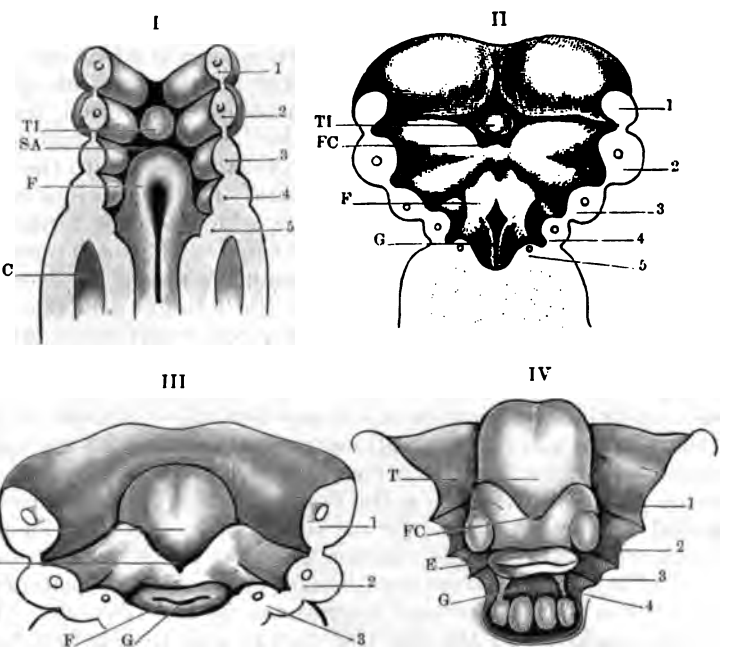


FIG. 30.—STAGES IN THE FORMATION OF THE TONGUE AND UPPER APERTURE OF THE LARYNX IN THE HUMAN EMBRYO (after His).

I. Embryo 14 days old. II. Embryo 23 days old. III. Embryo 28 to 30 days old. IV. Embryo 2 months old.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5 Visceral arches.

C. Cœlom.
E. Epiglottis.
F. Furcula.
FC. Foramen cæcum.
G. Glottis.
SA. Sinus arcuatus.
T. Tongue.
TI. Tuberculum impar.

The first a is the man bular, the sec the hyoid, third the thy hyoid; the fou and fifth have special desig tions. Each a is covered— ternally by e derm, interna by entoderm, its core is for of mesoderm which there developed a of cartilage a blood-ve called a ceph aortic arch.

At first e arch is limite the side wal the fore-gut; after a time i prolonged into the ventral wall, encroaching, with the exception of the first, u the sinus arcuatus.

The **first**, or **mandibular arch**, is formed between the first visceral cleft and bucco-pharyngeal membrane. As it develops it forms the lateral and lo boundaries of the stomatodæal space, and it grows downwards till it meets fellow of the opposite side in the ventral middle line, immediately in front of tuberculum impar. The greater part of this arch is converted into the lower and the soft tissues which invest it. From its upper part a process grows forwa the **maxillary process**, from which the upper lateral part of the face, between orbit and the mouth, is developed, and in which the superior maxillary, the ma and the palate bones, and possibly the internal pterygoid plate also, are develo and ossified.

From the posterior border of the outer aspect of the mandibular arch the tra and a portion of the helix of the pinna of the external ear are formed. The ca laginous bar in its interior is known as **Meckel's cartilage**. It forms the primit

columnar or cubical epithelium, or as cords of cells, and these occasionally undergo abnormal development, forming tumours at the base of the tongue or in the upper part of the neck.

The portion of the sinus arcuatus which lies behind the conjoined lower extremities of the second and third arches of opposite sides, and in front of the furcula, persists in a modified form in the adult, and is recognisable as glosso-epiglottidean pouches or valleculæ at the base of the tongue.

The furcula and the groove in the ventral wall of the fore-gut, which it embraces antero-laterally, are both of considerable importance. The anterior part of the furcula is situated in the ventral wall of the pharyngeal portion of the fore-gut, but its backward prolongations and the furrow between them lie in what may be termed the intermediate part of the fore-gut, that is, in that part of the fore-gut which intervenes between the pharyngeal and stomach regions. Gradually the furrow deepens, and its posterior extremity dilates on each side. Afterwards the margins of the furrow coalesce from behind forwards, and in this manner the cavity of the furrow is separated from the fore-gut, its walls are converted into the trachea and the lower part of the larynx, whilst the diverticula which are projected from its posterior end form the rudiments of the bronchi. The fusion of the margin of the furrow ceases a short distance behind its anterior extremity, which latter persists as the superior aperture of the larynx. The anterior part of the furcula, which bounds this aperture in front, becomes the epiglottis, and its lateral extensions, which form the margins of the aperture, are converted into the arytenoepiglottidean folds in the substance of which the arytenoid cartilages and the cartilages of Santorini and Wrisberg (cuneiform cartilages) are formed.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE MOUTH AND THE NOSE.

The nose is formed entirely from the stomatodæum. The mouth has a double origin; the roof and fore-part, including the teeth, are developed from the stomatodæum, whilst the floor and the tongue are developed from the pharyngeal portion of the fore-gut.

It has already been pointed out (p. 34) that the stomatodæal depression lies between the anterior part of the head (*i.e.* the tissues forming the base of the primary fore-brain) and the pericardial region, and that it is separated posteriorly from the fore-gut by the bucco-pharyngeal membrane. At first it has no distinct lateral boundaries, but subsequently the mandibular arches, which are developed at the sides of the bucco-pharyngeal membrane, project forward beyond the membrane and form lateral limits of the depression. If the stomatodæal space is examined from the front at this period the following boundaries are recognisable:—Above and in front is the projecting anterior part of the head which is termed the **fronto-nasal process**, laterally are the mandibular arches, and below and posteriorly is the anterior part of the pericardial region. After a short time the lower ends of the mandibular arches meet in front of the pericardial region, and, fusing together, form the posterior or lower margin of the aperture; simultaneously the lateral boundaries of the space are still further completed by the forward growth of a nodular projection, the **maxillary process**, from the upper end of each mandibular arch. About the fifteenth day the bucco-pharyngeal membrane disappears, and the stomatodæal space and pharynx are thenceforth continuous. No trace of the bucco-pharyngeal membrane is recognisable in the adult, but its position may be represented by an imaginary plane extending from the anterior part of the basi-sphenoid above to the base of the alveolar process of the lower jaw, on its lingual surface, below.

Whilst the boundaries of the stomatodæal space are being defined, two oval depressions, lined with thickened epithelium, appear in its upper boundary on the lower and anterior surfaces of the fronto-nasal process; these are the **olfactory pits** or depressions. A portion of the epithelium of their walls is separated off and takes part in the formation of the olfactory bulbs, whilst the remainder is transformed into the olfactory epithelium, from which the olfactory nerve-fibres grow inwards to the olfactory bulbs. As the olfactory pits deepen they grow backwards into the roof of the stomatodæal space, and at the same time they separate the lower portion

upon the globular processes, and ultimately their upper borders and anterior extremities fuse with the lateral nasal and globular processes, completing the lower boundaries of the anterior nasal orifices and the lateral parts of the primitive upper lip. At the same time the oculo-nasal sulci are converted first into solid cords of cells, and afterwards into the lachrymal sacs and the nasal ducts, which henceforth constitute the channels of communication between the conjunctival sacs and the nose.

The result of the ingrowth of the maxillary processes and their fusion with the

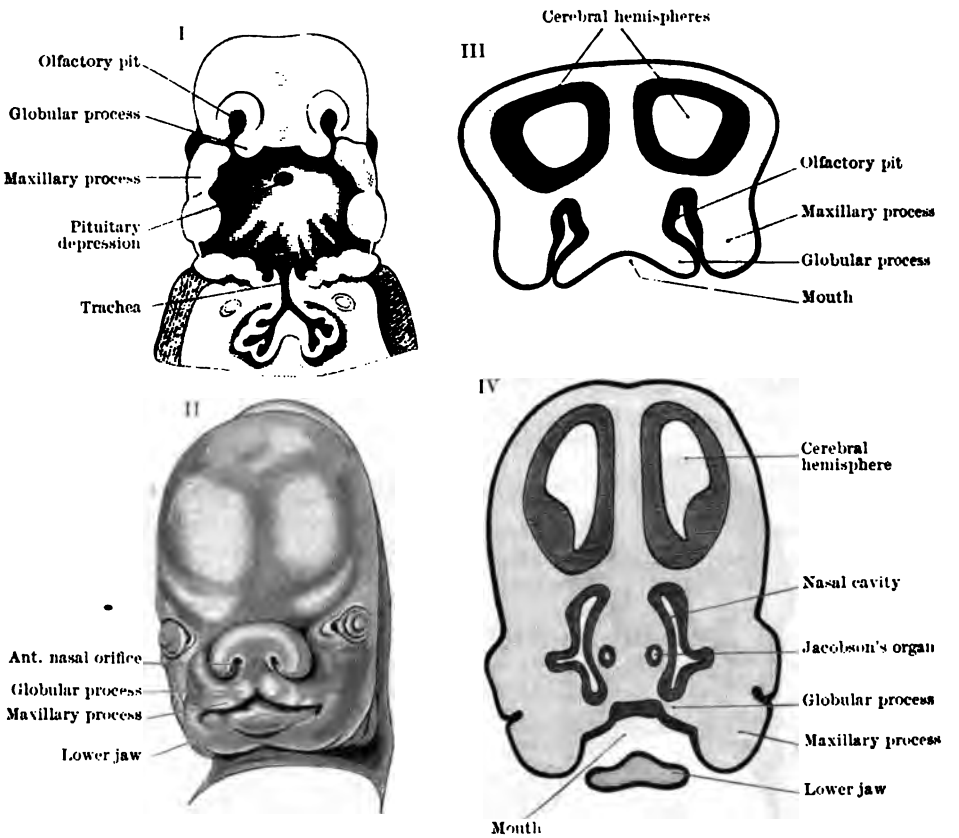


FIG. 32.

I. Portion of the head and neck of a human embryo 32 days old. The floor of the mouth and pharynx and the ventral part of the anterior portion of the body have been removed. By the approximation of the globular and maxillary processes the boundaries of the anterior nares are almost complete, but the olfactory pits still open in the whole of their lengths into the roof of the mouth (from His).

II. Transverse section of the head of an embryo, showing the close apposition of the globular and maxillary processes.

III. Head of human embryo about 2 months old, showing the union of the globular processes and their fusion with the maxillary processes. The anterior nasal apertures are now completely defined (from His).

IV. Transverse section of the head of an embryo, showing the fusion of the maxillary processes with the globular processes, and the separation anteriorly of the nose from the mouth.

lateral nasal and globular processes is the division of the large orifice which led into the stomatodæal space into three parts—a large lower, and two smaller upper apertures. The lower opening is the aperture of the mouth; it is bounded below by the united mandibular arches, and above by the fused mesial nasal and maxillary processes. The smaller upper openings are the anterior nares, which on their first formation are merely foramina of communication between the exterior and the upper part of the stomatodæal space; the latter is not yet separated into nasal and oral chambers.

Formation of the Palate and the Separation of the Nasal and Buccal Cavities.—This separation is effected by the formation of the palate, which is developed to a slight extent by the backward growth of the globular processes

The outer part of the cleft is moulded into the external auditory passage. remains relatively shallow and devoid of bony boundaries till after birth, but the subcutaneous tissue round the lower margin of the tympanic membrane incomplete ring of bone is formed during the third month, and at an earlier perio above the upper part of that membrane, the rudiment of the squamous part of th temporal bone appears. To the outer side of the tympanic ring in the subcutaneou tissue of the pinna and the outer part of the external auditory passage three piece of cartilage appear, and they afterwards join to form the cartilage of the pinna an the external auditory meatus.

After birth the external meatus is deepened by the outgrowth of the tympanic ring below and of the squamous part of the temporal bone above, together with a coincident increase of the outer part of the canal.

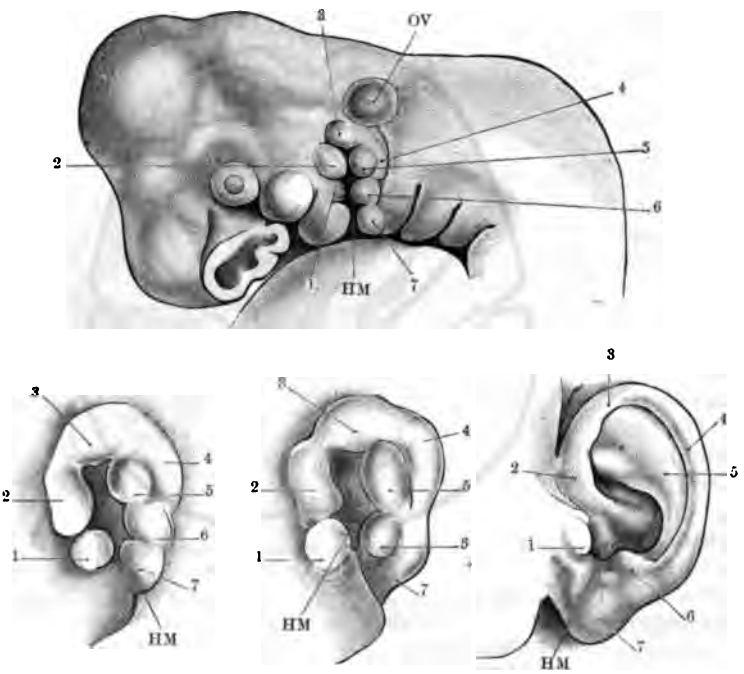


FIG. 36. —FIGURES, MODIFIED FROM HIS, ILLUSTRATING THE FORMATION OF THE PINNA.

1. Tuberculum tragicum = Tragus.
2. ,, anterius helicis
3. ,, intermedium helicis } Helix.
4. Cauda helicis
5. Tuberculum anthelicis = Antihelix.
6. Tuberculum antitragicum = Antitragus.
7. Tuberculum lobulare = Lobule.
HM. Hyo-mandibular cleft.
OV. Otic vesicle.

The tympanic cavity and the Eustachian tube are both formed from the inner part of the first visceral cleft, and consequently they are both lined by entoderm.

The tympanic cavity is developed from the dorsal or upper end of this portion of the cleft and it is prolonged upwards on the outer side of the otic vesicle which simultaneously descends in the tissues of the head. Thus the upper end of the inner portion of the cleft which is somewhat dilated, comes to lie between the otic vesicle, which is developed into the internal ear on the inner side, and the tympanic membrane which separates it from the external auditory meatus on the outer side, and remains in the adult as a laterally compressed space, the tympanic cavity, which is continuous through the Eustachian tube with the upper part of the pharynx. In the mesoderm round the inner, upper, and back part of the cavity the petrous part of the temporal bone is developed and ossified, and in the lower and anterior part the tympanic ossification extends outwards during the formation of the tympanic plate.

The upper part of the tympanic space is prolonged backwards between the ossifying petrous and squamous parts of the temporal bone, where it forms a recess known in the adult as the mastoid antrum, from which at a later period diverticula are projected into the mastoid portion of the temporal bone, forming the mastoid air cells.

The lower portion of the inner part of the cleft is moved obliquely forward. As development proceeds it is contracted and carried downwards and forwards in front of the developing otic vesicle. It is the rudiment of the Eustachian tube and, as the septum which separates the nasal chambers from the mouth is formed

its lower end attains a position just behind and at the side of the posterior narial orifice in the upper and lateral part of the pharynx. Apparently, therefore, the lower end of the Eustachian tube has a much higher position than that originally occupied by the lower end of the cleft from which it is formed, for it will be remembered that the lower end of the first visceral cleft is situated, in the early stages, at the side of the tuberculum impar from which the anterior two-thirds of the tongue is formed. This alteration in relative position is due, however, not to elevation of the lower end of the first visceral cleft during its transformation into the Eustachian passage, but to the enormous downgrowth of the mandibular arches, which carry with them the tongue, as they enlarge to form the lower jaw.

THE HIND-GUT, THE ANAL PASSAGE, AND THE POST-ANAL OR TAIL-GUT.

By the formation of the mouth the primitive alimentary canal opens anteriorly; it remains closed posteriorly until a later date, when the anal passage and orifice are developed.

The posterior end of the hind-gut which is enclosed in the tail-fold is termed the cloaca. The **cloaca** is dilated, and, assuming a conical form, receives the terminations of the genito-urinary ducts. It is bounded postero-inferiorly by the **cloacal membrane** which extends from the root of the tail to the body stalk by which the embryo is attached to the chorion. The cloacal membrane is modified from the posterior part of the primitive streak; this remains on the surface of the body after the anterior part has been separated and enclosed during the completion of the posterior part of the neural canal, and it forms a septum between the cavity of the cloaca and the exterior. It consists at first of ectoderm and entoderm alone, and it is only at its lower and anterior part that it is subsequently invaded to a slight extent by mesoderm.

During the second month of intrauterine life the cloaca is divided into a ventral or genito-urinary, and a dorsal or rectal section, by the formation and fusion of lateral folds, which gradually unite, from before backwards, till finally the posterior end of the septum approaches and fuses with the cloacal membrane, and the rectum is separated from the genito-urinary chamber. Before this separation is completed an eminence appears in the region of the anterior part of the cloacal membrane at the junction of the ventral surface with the posterior extremity of the body, *i.e.* in that part which afterwards becomes the region of the symphysis pubis. This eminence is the **genital eminence**, and from it are formed the penis in the male and the clitoris in the female. The genital eminence is surrounded by an oval fold of skin, **genital fold**, which extends from the front of the eminence to the root of the tail and encloses a shallow fossa, the **cloacal fossa**, at the bottom of which is the **cloacal membrane**. The posterior part of the cloacal fossa is afterwards separated from the anterior part by a transverse fold, the **perineal fold**, which crosses the external surface of the cloacal membrane in a position which corresponds internally with that occupied by the lower end of the septum separating the genito-urinary from the rectal portions of the cloacal. The posterior part of the cloacal fossa, behind the transverse fold, is the proctodæal depression or **proctodæum**; at first its long axis lies transversely, afterwards it assumes a triangular and then a circular form, the sphincter ani muscle develops in its walls, and it is transformed into the greater part, if not the whole, of the anal canal of the adult. It is separated from the rectum by the posterior part of the cloacal membrane, but when that disappears, at a date which has not yet been definitely ascertained, but probably about the third month, the anal passage forms the canal by which the rectum communicates with the exterior of the body.

The orifices of the alimentary canal are thus completed.

The Post-anal or Tail-Gut.—When the hind-gut is first enclosed there is no tail, but a rudimentary tail is subsequently developed as an outgrowth from the dorsal end of the tail-fold, *i.e.* from the posterior extremity of the body of the embryo. As the tail is formed, a narrow tube, which communicates in front with the hind-gut, is developed within it. This is called the post-anal or tail-gut. As a rule it only exists for a short

time, disappearing from before backwards about the period when cartilage begins t formed in the body and limbs, and before the cloaca is divided into its rectal and ge urinary portions. In the few cases in which it pe it retains its continuity with the rectum, whic formed from the dorsal part of the cloaca.

The tail-gut appears in the human subject v the embryo is 3 mm. long, and the rudimentary t just visible as a small nodule. When the em attains the length of 4·8 mm. the anterior pa the tail-gut begins to degenerate, its cavity disapp and it is converted into a solid cord of cells whi still attached in front to the hind-gut. In emb 11·5 mm. long, when the tail has been enclosed i posterior part of the body, the connexion of the gut with the hind-gut is lost, and the tail-g represented by a small vesicle with a short cor degenerating cells attached to its anterior part.

In larger embryos the tail-gut entirely disapp When, as in the human subject, the rudimentary t eventually embedded in the posterior end of the b any rudiments of the tail-gut which persist wil found in this situation; it is stated that such ments occasionally develop into tumour format In mammals with free tails, rudiments of the tai may be met with in any part of the tail, and appar the anterior portion occasionally persists and main its connexion with the rectum, from which it ext backwards as a narrow and blind diverticulum.

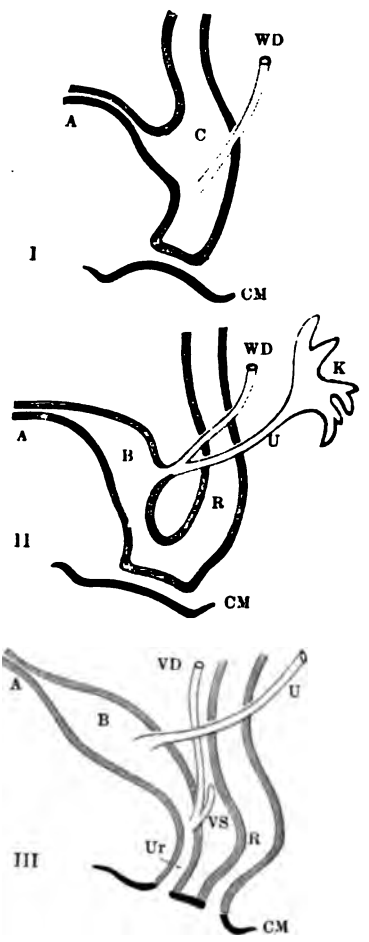


FIG. 37.—DIAGRAMS showing the separation of the cloacal part of the hind-gut into genito-urinary tract and rectum.

A.	Allantoic stalk.	U.	Ureter.
B.	Bladder.	Ur.	Urethra.
C.	Cloaca.	VD.	Vas deferens.
CM.	Cloacal membrane.	VS.	Vesicula seminalis.
K.	Kidney.		
R.	Rectum.	WD.	Wolffian duct.

THE LIMBS.

Though the body of the embryo begins to ass definite form as soon as it is folded and nippe from the rest of the ovum, it does not present distinguishable human characteristics until anterior and posterior limbs are formed. Then no traces of these before the third week of trauterine life when two longitudinal ridges, **Wolffian ridges**, are developed, one on each lat surface of the body, just external to the o margins of the mesodermic somites, and opp the line of the intermediate cell mass. The r ments of the fore- and hind-limbs are discern almost from the first, as slight prominences of Wolffian ridges, and in the fourth week they pr as bud-like outgrowths in the thoracic and p regions respectively. The development of the fore-limb or arm is throug slightly in advance of that of the hind-limb or leg. At the fourth week limb-bud is a flattened semilunar projection, as long as it is broad, with a d and a ventral surface and an anterior or preaxial, and a posterior or post border. As growth proceeds the elongating limb-buds are bent ventrally, an the fifth week two transverse furrows, on the ventral aspect of each, indicate positions of the joints and the division of each limb into three segments—di middle, and proximal—representing the hand, fore-arm, and arm in the upper l and the foot, leg, and thigh in the lower limb. The terminal or distal segm are broad, flat plates with rounded margins, but each is soon divided into a s what enlarged basal part, and a thinner and more flattened marginal part. where these two parts are continuous that the rudiments of the digits ap They become distinguishable about the end of the fifth week as small lobes w gradually extend outwards. In the fore-limb the fingers project beyond the ma of the hand-segments in the sixth week, but the toes do not reach the margi

the foot till the early part of the seventh week. The nails appear at the third month, and reach the ends of the digits at the sixth month.

In the primary position of the limbs the elbow and the knee appear alike to be directed outwards, but this is soon altered. At the end of the sixth week each limb undergoes a partial rotation, the direction of which is different in the fore- and hind-limbs respectively. In the former the elbow is turned backwards, the ventral surface therefore becomes anterior, and the preaxial (thumb) margin is directed outwards; in the hind-limb the knee is turned forwards, and the ventral surface of the limb becomes posterior, whilst the preaxial (great toe) margin is directed inwards; thus in the adult the anterior surface and outer border of the upper extremity correspond with the posterior surface and inner border of the lower extremity, whilst obviously the posterior surface and inner border of the former are homologous with the anterior surface and outer border of the latter.

Each limb-bud may be regarded as an extension from a definite number of the segments of the body; it contains a core of mesoderm, and the anterior or ventral primary divisions of the corresponding spinal nerve segments are apparently prolonged into it.

The central part of the mesoderm, except in the regions of the joints where cavities appear, is condensed and then converted first into cartilage, and afterwards into bone. The proximal part of the bony skeleton of each limb, the limb girdle, is not, however, developed in the limb-bud, but in the body-wall at its base. The more superficially situated mesoderm is transformed into muscles and subcutaneous tissues, the extensor muscles appearing on the dorsal and the flexor muscles on the ventral aspect.

As the nerve trunks pass into the free portion of the limb they bifurcate, the branches passing respectively to the dorsal or extensor aspect of the limb, and to the ventral or flexor aspect.

Apparently in mammals the whole of the mesodermal core of each limb-bud is formed from the somatic mesoderm of the lateral plates. If this is the case the muscles of the limbs differ in origin from those of the back, for the latter are developed from the muscle plates of the protovertebral somites. In lower vertebrates (cartilaginous fishes) buds are given off to the limbs from the muscle plates and cutaneous lamellæ in the thoracic and pelvic regions, and as the muscle plates pass downwards in the somatopleure towards the ventral aspect of the body, these buds grow outwards into the limb-rudiments and develop into the muscles of the limbs. Presumably this is the more primitive arrangement, and that met with in man and other mammals is secondary, and it is stated that although no distinct buds from the muscle plates pass into the limbs of mammals, nevertheless the limb-muscles are formed by cells, proliferated from the muscle plates, which have migrated into the somatopleural mesoderm of the limbs.

THE NUTRITION AND PROTECTION OF THE EMBRYO DURING ITS INTRAUTERINE EXISTENCE.

The impregnated ovum during its passage down the Fallopian tube, and for a brief period also after it enters the uterus, lives either on the yolk granules (deutoplasm, embedded in its own cytoplasm, or upon material absorbed from the fluids by which it is surrounded. The human ovum is very small, and consequently it is almost from the first dependent for its nutrition upon sources of supply outside itself. The urgent necessity for adequate arrangements whereby this may be effected leads to that early establishment of an intimate vascular connexion between the embryo and the mother which is so characteristic a feature in the development of the human ovum. At the end of the second week, after fertilisation of the ovum, the embryo is separated by a slight constriction from the rest of the blastodermic vesicle, and already a primitive heart and rudimentary blood-vessels are distinguishable.

The development of the vascular system, and the establishment of the fœtal

circulation, however, cannot well be understood until the formation and structure features of the group of closely associated extra-embryonic organs or appendages have been considered.

This group includes the yolk-sac, the chorion, the amnion, the allantois, and the placenta.

THE FŒTAL MEMBRANES AND APPENDAGES.

Yolk-Sac or Umbilical Vesicle.—That portion of the blastodermic cavity and its wall which is not included in the body of the embryo to form the primitive alimentary canal constitutes the umbilical vesicle or yolk-sac. Its walls, like its cavity, are continuous with the corresponding parts of the intestine, and their structural features are identical, there being an inner layer of entodermal cells and an outer layer which is formed by the splanchnic layer of the mesoderm.

In the human embryo the yolk-sac is a small flask-like body, suspended from the ventral wall of the alimentary canal by a hollow stalk, the **vitello-intestinal duct**, which passes through the umbilical orifice. It lies in the extra-embryonic continuation of the body-cavity (cœlom), and is filled with fluid. Possibly the contents of the yolk-sac are utilised in the nutrition of the embryo in its earliest stages, and the first rudiments of the blood vascular system, viz. blood corpuscles and vessels, appear in its walls. In the human embryo, however, it is of little nutritional importance; it soon atrophies and almost entirely disappears, but leaves traces of its existence in the umbilical cord.

Amnion.—The amnion is a protective sac which surrounds the embryo. It is formed, after the development of the cœlom, from the amniotic area of the blastoderm, and its wall is continuous, at the margins of the umbilical orifice, with the body-wall of the embryo. Both walls consist of a layer of ectoderm and a layer of somatic mesoderm, but whilst in the body-wall the ectoderm is external and the mesoderm internal, the relative positions of the layers are reversed in the amnion, the mesoderm being external and the ectoderm internal.

The cavity enclosed between the amnion and the embryo, the **amniotic cavity**, is filled with fluid, the **amniotic fluid**, in which the embryo floats. The amniotic cavity is quite shut off for some time from all the neighbouring spaces, but after the disappearance of the bucco-pharyngeal and cloacal membranes it communicates both anteriorly and posteriorly, with the alimentary canal of the embryo.

The development of the amnion in mammals is closely associated with the attachment of the ovum to the uterine wall and with the subsequent formation of the placenta. Thus in the carnivora, before the cœlom is formed, the ectoderm of the chorionic area becomes attached to the uterine tissues by small villous outgrowths which invade the uterine mucous membrane. This attachment is most complete in the placental region, that is, around the margins of the amniotic area. As the embryo is folded off from the blastoderm and the cœlom develops, both the embryo and the amniotic area remain quite free from the uterine tissues, indeed, it may be said that, at this period, the embryo is suspended from the margins of the placental area by the amniotic membrane.

As development proceeds the amniotic area increases in extent by interstitial growth, and thereupon the embryo, the membrane which suspends it being relaxed, sinks more and more into the interior of the ovum, or, to be more precise, into the cœlomic space, which, in the meantime, has considerably increased. At the same time the growth of the placental area causes all parts of its inner margin to converge, and as the inner margins of the placental area are continuous with the outer margins of the amniotic membrane, the amnion is gradually carried over the dorsal surface of the embryo till its margins meet and fuse. After the fusion of its margins the amnion separates entirely from the chorionic area, henceforth known as the chorion, and forms a closed sac which completely surrounds the embryo.

On reference to Figs. 21 and 27 it will be seen that as the wall of the blastodermic vesicle is carried inwards over the dorsal surface of the embryo it is folded, the outer part of the fold consists of the chorionic portion, and the inner part of

tic portion of the blastoderm. The fold is called the **amnion fold**; it is quite uous round the whole margin of the embryo, but some parts of it are more ed than others, or in other words the convergence of the inner margin placental area of the blastoderm over the dorsal surface of the embryo does ke place at the same rate or to the same extent in all parts. For convenience ription it is usual to divide the amnion fold into four parts—the cephalic, the , and the two lateral amnion folds; these, however, are all continuous with nother.

ie inner part of the hich is formed from amniotic area, is l the **true amnion**, ie outer part, formed the chorionic area, **alse amnion**. The term is, however, ymous with chorion, s it is misleading, it l be avoided.

s the amnion is d from the amniotic of the blastoderm he extension of the n, it must consist, as usly mentioned, of erm and somatic erm, and as the sur- f the amniotic area versed during the tion of the amnion it is obvious that in ully-formed amnion ectodermal layer is al and the somatic lerm external.

n the case of the n ovum the phe- na of amnion forma- re probably practi- similar, except that rum develops not in avity of the uterus, n the substance of ucous membrane into n it has penetrated. herefore surrounded e mucous membrane ll sides, and the

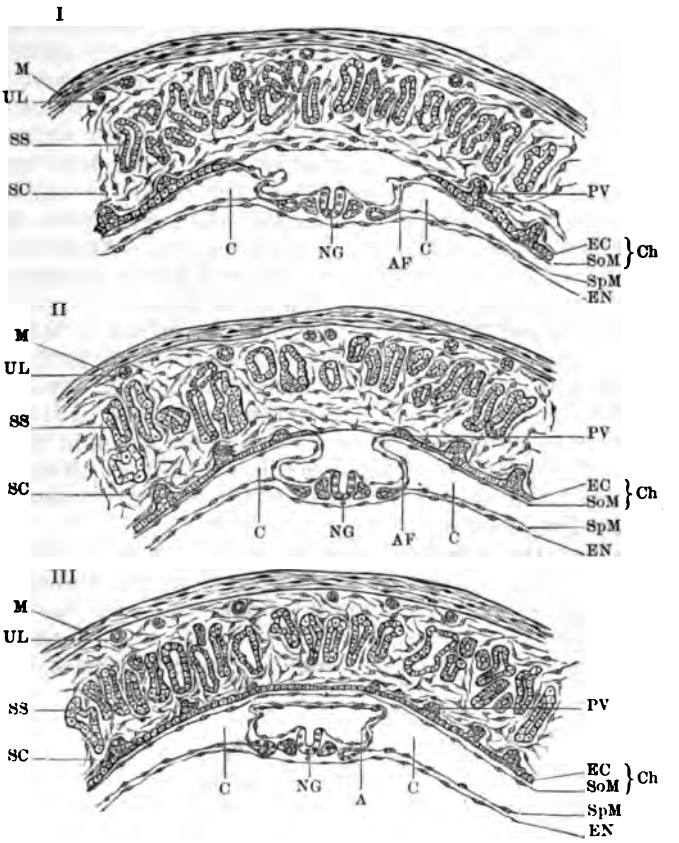


FIG. 38.—TRANSVERSE SECTIONS OF THE UTERUS AND DEVELOPING OVUM OF A FERRET.

Showing the formation and closure of the amnion folds, the completion of the amnion, and the coincident ingrowth of the inner margins of the placental area of the blastoderm.

A.	Amnion.	EN.	Entoderm.	SC.	Stratum compactum.
AF.	Amnion fold	M.	Muscular wall of uterus.	SS.	Stratum spongiosum.
C.	Cœlom.			SoM.	Somatic mesoderm.
Ch.	Chorion.	NG.	Neural groove.	Sp.M.	Splanchnic mesoderm.
EC.	Ectoderm.	PV.	Placental villus.	UL.	Unchanged layer of uterine mucosa.

onic part of the surface of the ovum is closely attached to the surrounding , but the amniotic and embryonic areas are free. If this is the case the process mion folding can take place in the human ovum exactly as in the ovum of a rorous animal, the inner margin of the chorionic area growing inwards over mniotic and embryonic areas, the only difference being that the process takes in a cavity in the mucous membrane and not on its surface. This conclusion pported by Spee's observations on human ova and by those of Selenka on the f monkeys and apes, but it is, however, possible that, as in some rodents and ivora, the amnion cavity appears in a mass of ectoderm which lies at the onic pole of the ovum, the mass being cleft by the appearance of the cavity mbryonic and amniotic sections. The two parts are then continuous at the

margin of the embryonic area, and the mesoderm growing round the amnio ectoderm separates it from the chorionic ectoderm.

After the amnion is completed its cavity is distended with fluid. As it expa it gradually obliterates the extra-embryonic part of the cœlomic cavity, and fina its outer surface, of somatic mesoderm, comes into contact and fuses with the somat mesoderm on the inner surface of the chorion. At this period the cavities in t ovum are the amniotic cavity, the remains of the yolk-sac, and those portions of t original blastodermic and cœlomic spaces which have been included in the embry

In the human ovum, when the amnion folds unite and the true amnion separat from the chorion, the embryo and its enclosing amnion would be free within t cavity of the chorion, or extra-embryonic cœlom, were it not that a very short co of somatic mesoderm and ectoderm, the body-stalk, connects the posterior end of t embryo with the somatic mesoderm on the inner surface of the chorion.

Body-Stalk.—To thoroughly understand how this union is effected in t human ovum, and to comprehend the nature of the body-stalk, it is necessary t refer to some striking peculiarities which are to be observed in the earlier stag in the development of the human embryo. When segmentation is completed, a the morula is converted into a blastula by the appearance of a cavity in its interi the human ovum consists of an outer layer, the ectoderm, and an inner cell-ma (Figs. 12 and 39). The latter, however, which is attached to a small area of t ectoderm, does not, as in many mammals, extend itself by migration round the inn surface of that layer, and so transform the unilaminar into a bilaminar blastoder and convert the cavity of the blastula into the blastodermic cavity. The sequen of events is different: a cavity or space appears in the inner cell-mass itself (Fig 41, 42, and 44), and this expanding rapidly, is ultimately converted into the yol sac and the alimentary canal of the embryo; it corresponds, therefore, with t blastodermic cavity of other mammals.

Thus the entoderm, though derived from the inner cell-mass, never lines t inner surface of the ectoderm except in the embryonic area, for soon after t appearance of the cavity of the inner cell-mass the mesoderm grows rapidly fro the primitive streak and extends, not in a single layer, as in the majority mammals, but as two layers, one over the outer surface of the entoderm, t splanchnic layer, and the other, the somatic layer, over the inner surface of t ectoderm. The cavity of the blastula is thus ultimately enclosed between t somatic and splanchnic layers of the mesoderm, and so becomes converted into t cœlomic space (Fig. 42).

As the mesoderm extends, the several areas of the blastoderm are differentiat as in other mammals, but the embryonic and amniotic areas remain of relative small size. The separation of the amnion from the chorion is effected at a ve early period, before the folding off of the embryo has commenced, but the somat mesoderm growing from the posterior end of the embryonic area still retains i connexion with the similar layer on the inner surface of the chorion, and it forn a short, and for a time a broad stalk which unites the embryo, and consequent the amnion and the blastodermic cavity, with which the embryo is connected, to t chorion (Fig. 42). In addition to forming a bond of union between the embr and the chorion the mesodermal stalk conducts blood-vessels from the embryo the chorion, and more especially to its placental part.

At an early period a pouch-like diverticulum projects from the posterior pa of the entodermal sac. This is the **allantoic diverticulum**; it lies beneath t posterior part of the embryonic area, and the area is curved upon itself so that i convexity looks towards the entodermal sac, and its concavity towards the amnio

After the embryonic area has increased in extent, and when the folding off the embryo has commenced, the anterior end of the area and the posterior end the primitive streak remain relatively stationary as in other mammals, the cephal and caudal folds appear, and the curvature of the greater part of the area reversed, but the most posterior part retains its original position, lying for a tim parallel with the caudal fold; afterwards, however, it assumes a more horizont position. This posterior section of the embryonic area contains the divert process of the entodermal sac which is called the allantois; it also conta

blood-vessels, allantoic arteries and veins, which pass between the embryo and the placenta. It is in relation at first with the amnion, it appears to be entirely behind the embryo, and it is called the "body-stalk." At a later period, when the stalk of mesoderm—the allantoic stalk—which connects it with the outer surface of the chorion is elongated, this part of the embryonic area is reversed in position, its anterior end is carried forwards till it forms the posterior boundary of the umbilical orifice, and the area in question forms the ventral wall of the body from the umbilical to the genital region.

Allantois.—The allantois plays an important part in the formation of the placenta. It consists of two portions, an entodermic diverticulum from the ventral wall of the cloacal part of the hind-gut, and a mesodermal covering. The entodermic diverticulum appears in the human subject, before the hind-gut is defined, as a hollow blind protrusion from the blastodermic cavity; it extends behind the primitive streak into the mesoderm of the body-stalk, but as the folding off of the embryo proceeds, and the body-stalk is carried forward into the ventral wall of the embryo, the position of the diverticulum is altered, and ultimately, when the folding off is completed, it springs from the ventral part of the cloaca, runs forward to the umbilical orifice, and passing through it, projects for a short distance still invested with the mesodermal covering primarily obtained from the body-stalk. The ventral part of the cloaca is afterwards converted into the bladder, while the rectum is formed from the dorsal part.

The mesodermal sheath which surrounds the entodermic diverticulum extends beyond it to the inner surface of the chorion; the part which extends beyond the diverticulum is at first extremely short, indeed it is only recognisable as a layer of mesoderm uniting the body-stalk and chorion, but as development proceeds and the body-stalk is folded forward to form the ventral wall of the body of the embryo, posterior to the umbilicus, this portion of the mesoderm is elongated, and it forms the **allantoic stalk** by which the embryo retains its connexion with the chorion, and along which pass the allantoic or umbilical arteries to, and the corresponding veins from, the chorionic villi.

After the separation of the cloaca into bladder and rectum, that portion of the allantois which lies in the body of the embryo, between the apex of the bladder and the umbilical orifice, is gradually converted into a fibrous cord, the **urachus**. The entodermal diverticulum disappears, and after birth, when the placental circulation ceases, the umbilical arteries are transformed into fine fibrous strands. The remainder of the allantois which lies outside the body of the embryo, and which takes part in the formation of the umbilical cord and placenta, is separated from the embryo at birth.

Umbilical Cord.—The umbilical cord is essentially a mesodermal structure which connects the embryo with the placenta, serving as a passage for the allantoic vessels to and from the fœtal portion of the latter organ. It replaces, functionally, the body-stalk and the allantoic stalk, which were earlier provisions for the same purpose, and it is formed by the fusion of the allantoic stalk with part of the vitello-intestinal duct and the remains of the yolk-sac.

The vitello-intestinal duct is at first a relatively wide channel which connects the primitive gut with the yolk-sac; it passes through the umbilical orifice. In later stages, as the body-stalk is swung round into the ventral wall of the body, the allantoic stalk, which projects from the end of the body-stalk, is brought into close relation with the distal end of the vitello-intestinal duct and the remains of the yolk-sac: the mesodermal constituents of the three structures then fuse together, and the whole is surrounded by the expanding amnion. In this way the umbilical cord is formed. It includes, therefore, the allantoic stalk and its blood-vessels, together with the remains of the yolk-sac and its stalk, the vitello-intestinal duct, all of which are invested and bound together by the amnion.

The mesodermal core of the cord forms a fibro-mucoid tissue known as "Wharton's jelly," which consists of stellate and irregular cells embedded in a gelatinous matrix. The blood-vessels of the cord are situated in the core, and include two allantoic or umbilical arteries which run spirally round a single umbilical vein. The terminal portion of the allantoic divert[illegible]ects into

the embryonic end of the cord, and at first a loop of intestine protrudes into it a short distance; the gut, however, soon recedes into the abdominal cavity.

The umbilical cord, which extends from the umbilical orifice to the centre of the placenta, is at first short and straight. As the amnion expands the length of the umbilical cord increases until, at the time of birth it measures, on an average, about 20 inches. This increase in the length of the cord allows the fœtus to float freely in the amniotic fluid, and prevents traction on the placenta.

After the middle of the second month the umbilical cord is twisted spirally, usually from right to left. It is suggested that this is due either to the greater elongation of the allantoic arteries or to muscular movements of the fœtus, and it involves a rotation of the fœtus in the amniotic fluid.

Chorion.—The chorionic area, by far the largest of the areas into which the blastoderm is divisible, lies external to the amniotic area. In most mammals it consists at first of ectoderm and entoderm, but after the extension and cleavage of the mesoderm has taken place, it is formed by ectoderm and somatic mesoderm. In man, however, it consists in the earliest stages of ectoderm alone, but on the formation and extension of the mesoderm it also acquires an inner layer of somatic mesoderm. In all cases, therefore, it eventually consists of the same two layers.

The ectoderm of the chorionic area which immediately surrounds the amniotic area thickens to form the annular placental area, and in this way the chorionic area becomes divisible into placental and non-placental regions.

When the blastodermic vesicle enters the uterus numerous ectodermal villous processes grow from the surface of the chorionic area, both in its placental and non-placental parts, and attach themselves to the uterine mucous membrane. As already pointed out in the description of the formation of the amnion, the embryonic and amniotic areas do not become attached to the uterus, but remain free from it, whilst by the approximation and fusion of its inner margins, the rapidly growing ring-like placental area is converted into a disc which intervenes between the amnion and the uterine wall.

The chorionic area after the separation of the amnion is known as the chorion or chorionic membrane.

The chorion forms the outer wall of a vesicle, the chorionic vesicle, which is the modified remains of the blastodermic vesicle, and which contains the embryo, the yolk-sac, the amnion, and the allantois. It consists of an outer layer of ectoderm and an inner layer of somatic mesoderm.

The cavity of the chorion is the extra-embryonic portion of the cœlom. For a time it remains distinct, and is traversed by the allantoic stalk which unites the embryo to the inner or mesodermal layer of the placental area. The cavity is ultimately obliterated by the growth of the amnion, the latter sac expanding rapidly till its outer surface is in contact and intimately blended with the inner surface of the chorion.

Chorionic Villi. — The villous processes which begin to grow from the surface of the chorionic area before it is separated from the amnion continue to develop after the separation of the two membranes is completed. They penetrate the surrounding uterine tissues. At first each consists of ectoderm only, but a core of vascular mesoderm is soon acquired. The villi increase in size and in complexity also, but ultimately only those in the placental area persist and continue to grow; the remainder atrophy and disappear.

Thus the placental region of the chorion eventually constitutes the main bond of union between the ovum and the mother, and it forms the fœtal part of the placenta.

THE PLACENTA.

The placenta is the organ of fœtal nutrition and respiration.

In it the blood-vessels of the fœtus and those of the uterus are brought into such close relationship with one another that free interchanges readily take place between the blood of the mother and that of the fœtus. In the simplest form of placenta the fœtal villi are merely embedded in the maternal mucous membrane and the relationship between fœtal and maternal blood is not very close. In other

forms, *e.g.* the human placenta, the relation of fœtal to maternal blood is much more intimate; this involves marked complications in the elements of the placenta, and its structure becomes correspondingly more complex. In all forms, however, the placenta consists of fœtal and maternal portions.

Before the impregnated ovum reaches the uterine cavity the mucous membrane of the uterus undergoes certain changes in preparation for its reception and reten-

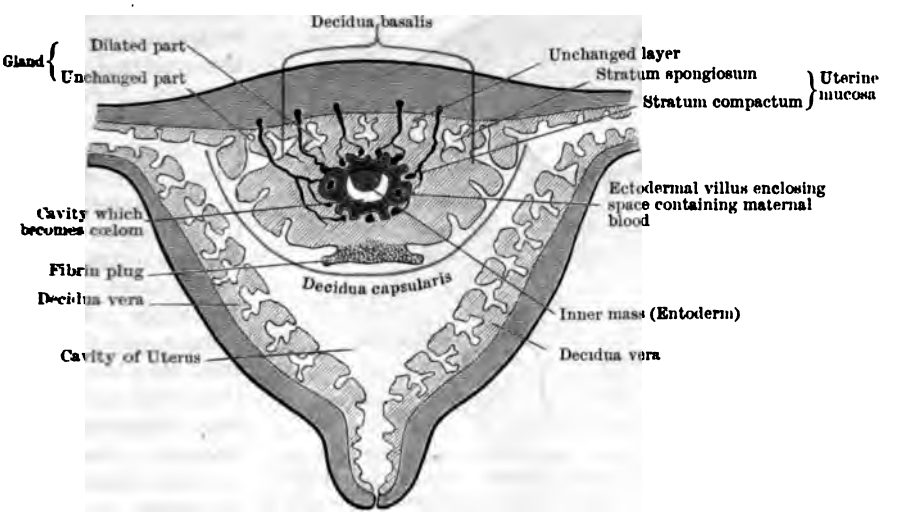


FIG. 39.—DIAGRAM representing a very young human ovum almost immediately after its entrance into the decidua, and whilst the place of its entrance is still covered with a plug of fibrin. The ectoderm has already proliferated and embraced spaces which contain maternal blood and are continuous with the maternal blood-vessels.

ion, and the modified mucous membrane is known as the uterine decidua. These hanges are, for the most part, hypertrophic; the vascularity of the mucous membrane is increased mainly by the dilatation of its veins and capillaries, the tubular terine glands become longated, irregular, and rtuous, and they dilate oth at their orifices and the deeper part of the ucous membrane; at the me time the interlandular connective tisue proliferates, and as a sult the decidua is icker, softer, and more pongy than the unaltered ucous membrane.

After the developing vum enters the uterus comes into contact ith the decidua, into hich it forces its way stroying the surface pithelium, and destroyor pushing aside, the perficial portions of the lands. In this way it comes embedded in the vascular interglandular tissue. The orifice which it makes in the superficial surface of the decidua is plugged, for a time, by a mass of fibrin, but all traces of the aperture which the fibrin closes eventually disappear and the ovum is entirely encapsuled in the decidua, which again presents an unbroken surface towards the uterine cavity.

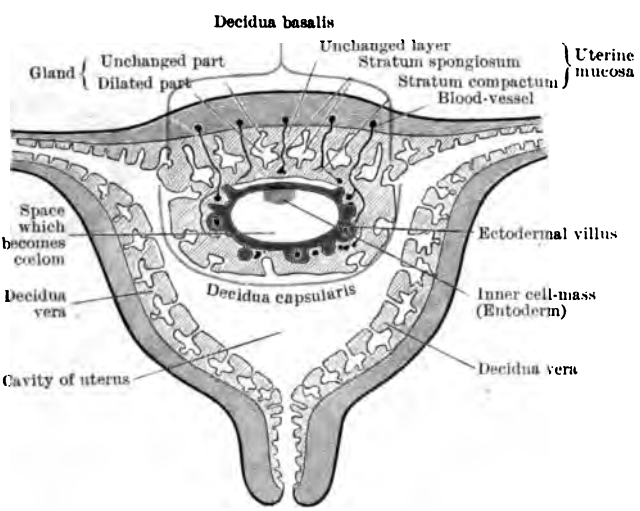


FIG. 40.—DIAGRAM, showing the relation of the young human ovum to the decidua.

The ectoderm is distinct from the inner cell-mass, but as yet there is no entodermal cavity in the latter.

Immediately after the ovum becomes embedded the superficial ectoderm its surface proliferate rapidly and form numerous branching processes or vill invade the surrounding decidua, destroying its cells and gradually enclosi maternal blood with which they into relation. time the maternal which at first surr the maternal blood entirely disappea from this period o the maternal blood lates in the spaces fœtal ectoderm. time the prolifera the ectodermal vi comes most mark mediately aroun margin of the ar area of the ovu thus a placental the chorion is entiated. In the time the expandin has forced the deci its superficial surf wards the cavity

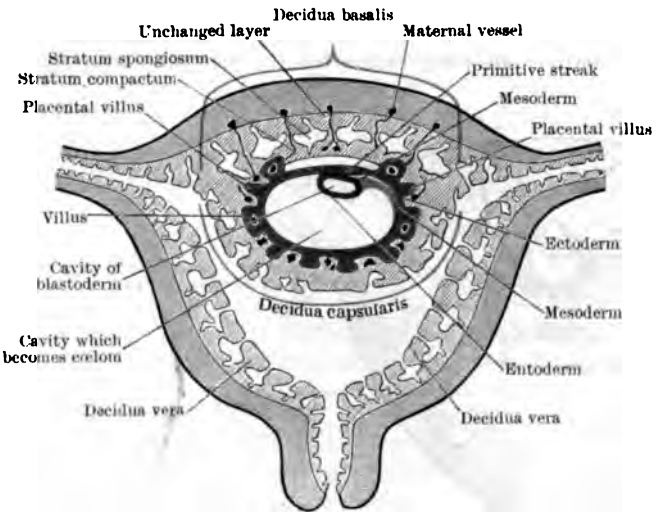


FIG. 41.—DIAGRAM, showing a further stage of development of the human ovum and its relation to the decidual tissues. The entodermal cavity or yolk-sac has appeared in the inner cell-mass, and the mesoderm has commenced to extend from the primitive streak in two layers, splanchnic on the yolk-sac and somatic on the ectoderm.

uterus, and at this period three areas of the decidua can be distinguished part outside the ovum, that is between the ovum and the muscular the uterus, is known as the **decidua basalis**; the part pushed into the cavity of the uterus around the growing ovum is the **decidua capsularis**; and the remainder of the decidua is the **decidua vera.**

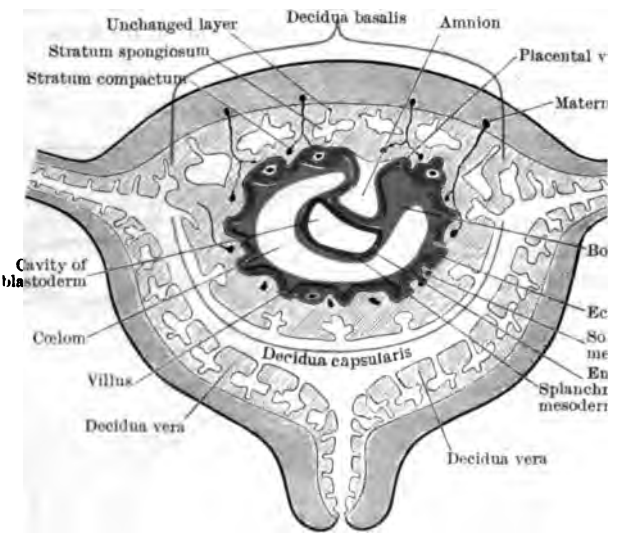


FIG. 42.—DIAGRAM, showing the completion of the decidua capsu enlargement of the maternal blood-vessels in the stratum comp the decidua basalis, the increase of the placental villi, the for the amnion folds, and the appearance of the allantoic diverticulu

The **decidua capsularis** is not formed, as was formerly believed, by folds of the decidua which have grown up and surrounded an ovum merely attached to the surface of the decidua basalis. On the contrary it is merely the superficial part of that portion of the decidua into which the ovum has penetrated, therefore it may contain glands or the rem glands which open on its superficial surface into the uterine cavity, but no open on its inner surface.

The **decidua basalis** lies in contact with the placental area of the chori the fœtal part of the placenta, and it forms the maternal part of the orga the fully developed human placenta, the fœtal and maternal tissues of w

nd are so intimately mingled and blended together that it is impossible where one ends and the other begins. By a careful study, however, of a f placentæ of different ages a fairly clear and satisfactory idea of the part by the maternal fœtal elements vely, as well as elations to each ay be obtained. uctural char- the completed ll be best under- the two con- parts are first d separately.

al Part of centa. — The the placental f the chorion nd penetrate idua basalis, e villi of the ntal chorionic he ovum enter ua capsularis. reviously ex- in connexion ormation both mnion and of

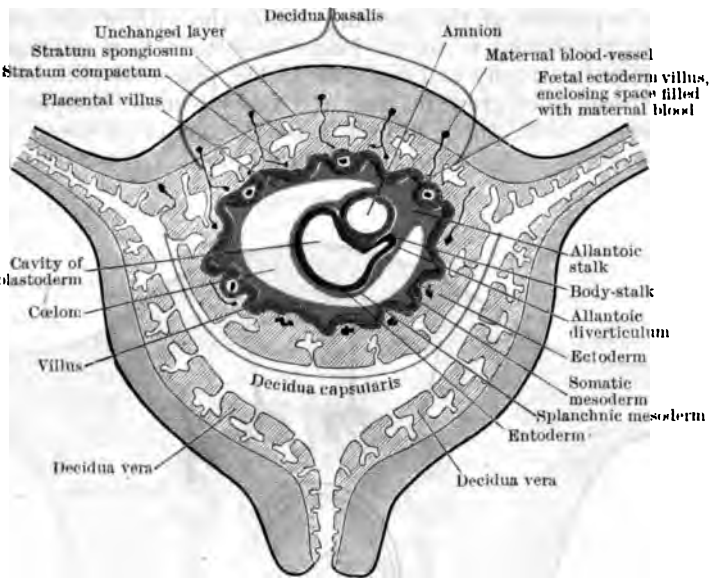
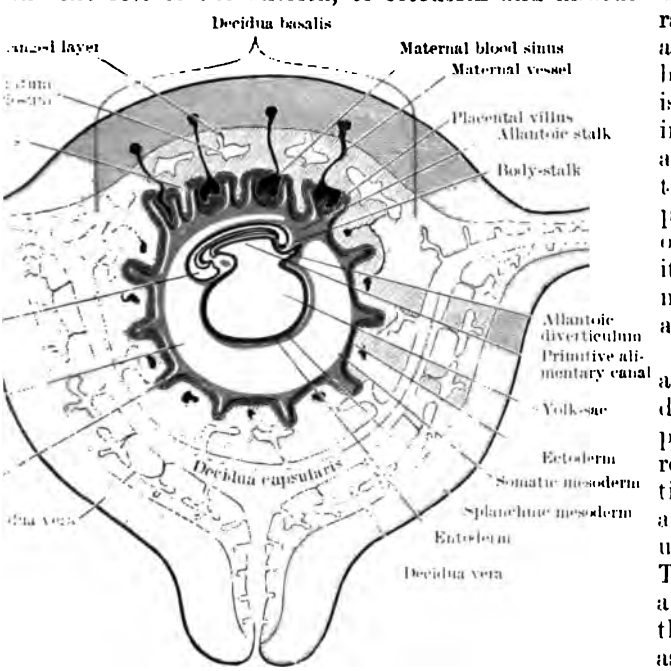


Fig. 43.—Diagram, showing enlargement of the blood sinuses in the maternal part of the placenta and the closure of the amnion.

ion, the annular placental area is converted into a circular disc. It like the rest of the chorion, of ectoderm and mesoderm, and it contains ramifications of the allantoic vessels; but the ectoderm is thickened and increased, its villi are larger than those of the non-placental region of the chorion, and it is directly connected with the allantoic stalk.



Diagram, showing the fœtal ectoderm surrounding the maternal blood the commencement of secondary fœtal villi which project into the and the disappearance of the superficial portions of the glands.

The early villi are merely ectodermal buds which penetrate the surrounding decidual tissues, destroying and replacing the uterine elements. These villi grow and branch, and their branches anastomose together surrounding the blood spaces of the decidua which are

mediate neighbourhood of the ovum. As development proceeds every l villus is penetrated by an outgrowth of the subjacent mesoderm

which carries branches of the allantoic vessels, and so the villi become vascu with fœtal blood. For some time all the villi, placental and non-placental, gr absorb nutriment from the maternal tissues, probably utilising as food the which they destroy and replace; but when the decidua capsularis is thin the expansion of the growing ovum, the villi of the non-placental region have penetrated it are no longer able to obtain nutrient matter, and the sequently atrophy and disappear. The placental villi, on the contrary, cont increase; they grow in size and become more complex, and secondary br growing from them project into the maternal blood spaces which they surrounded and float in the maternal blood. When the formation of the p is complet fœtal part c of villi, e which posse external c of two la ectoderma and a va mesodermal the villi into the i of large spaces whi surrounded or less com by fœtal ec and they are by materna from which t tain the nu necessary f nutrition growth of t bryo, and which they mit the eff cretory m from the en

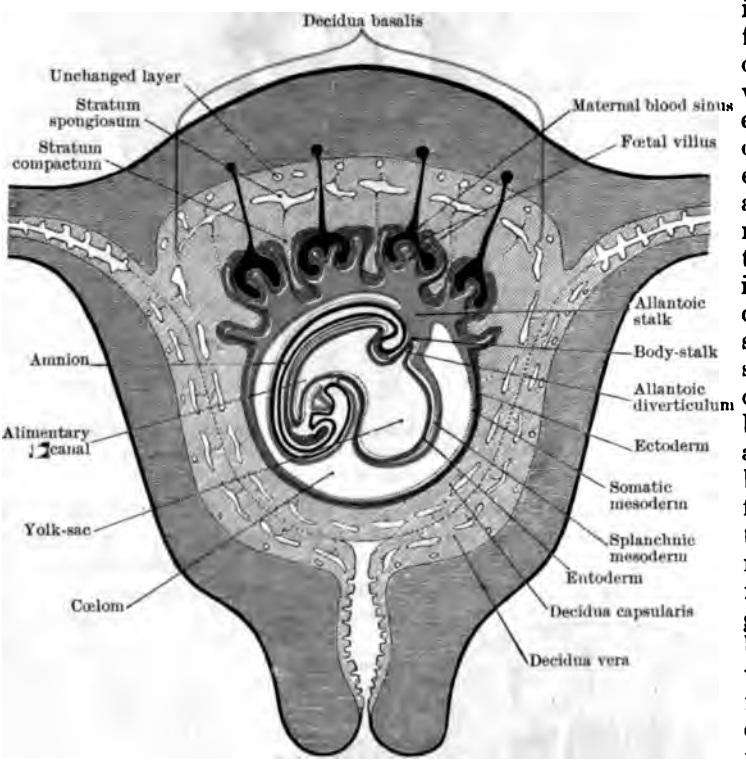


FIG. 45.—DIAGRAM, showing further growth of the placental sinuses and villi; the fusion of the decidua capsularis with the decidua vera, and the obliteration of the uterine cavity.

Mate Part of th centa an

Changes in the Decidua.—The occurrence of further changes in the decidu the developing ovum enters the uterus, is dependent upon the retention ovum in the substance of the decidua. These changes only occur, there what may be termed the decidua of pregnancy. They are intimately ass with and essential to the development of the maternal part of the placen a more detailed and complete account of the decidua and the modification several parts is therefore necessary.

The **decidua** is formed by the mucous membrane of the uterus, which is a thick-walled muscular organ, situated in the pelvic cavity. The mucous me contains numerous tubular glands embedded in an interglandular tissue for round and irregular cells. The uterine glands are lined by a columnar or epithelium, and they open into the cavity of the uterus on a surface which covered by columnar cells. The whole of the mucous membrane is ple supplied with blood-vessels which pass into it from the surrounding m walls, and it is transformed into the decidua by proliferation and hypertr all its parts. The interglandular tissue increases in amount and its blood- dilate, especially near the surface of the membrane; but the most striking early changes occur in the glands—they become longer, more tortuou

s enlarge and assume a funnel-like appearance, and they dilate a short
from their terminations into large irregular spaces. The increase of
rglandular tissue is most marked in the intervals between the dilated
of the glands and their apertures, and when all the changes are fully
ied it is possible to recognise three layers of the decidual tissue. (1) A
al relatively thick layer in which the interglandular tissue preponderates,
tum compactum; (2) A layer formed principally by the dilated portions
lands, the **stratum spongiosum**; and (3) a thin deep part of the membrane
ntains the outer extremities of the glands which are practically unchanged,
anged layer.

lecidua capsularis differs from the other portions of the decidua in that
ents only the superficial portion of the other parts of the decidua, and
contains no spongy layer or deep unchanged layer. This is obviously the
after the ovum has penetrated through the surface epithelium it becomes
d in the stratum compactum of that portion of the decidua which it has
and consequently the portion of the stratum which closes over it cannot
nore than the outer parts of some of the uterine glands with their orifices
intervening interglandular tissue.

changes which occur in the decidua capsularis are due, first, to its
n with and invasion by the chorionic villi; and, secondly, to the pressure
ıpon it by the enlarging ovum. The former influence is brought to bear
he decidua is still increasing; the latter after it has reached its full
ıent.

:hanges which result from its union with the chorion are the destruction
rption of some of the interglandular tissue; they are due to the activity
todermic cells of the chorion, which attack and invade the uterine tissues.

:hanges due to pressure exerted by the enlarging ovum are diminution of
ty, disappearance of the lumina of such portions of the glands as remain in
ua capsularis, and the removal of their epithelium, together with the co-
ıtrophy of the fœtal villi which have penetrated this portion of the placental
All these changes result in the reduction of the decidua capsularis to a
ıbrane in which no traces of the original structure are recognisable, in the
the altered decidua capsularis with the decidua vera, and the consequent
on of the uterine cavity.

the fifth month the decidua vera also undergoes atrophic changes, but they
roceed so far as in the decidua capsularis; nevertheless the stratum com-
is greatly reduced, the superficial epithelium and the superficial parts of
ds entirely disappear from it, the interglandular tissue becomes less
and it diminishes very considerably in thickness. The epithelium dis-
from the spaces in the spongy layer, and the spaces themselves are
out into long slit-like clefts, in which condition they remain till
d of pregnancy is completed. The decidua vera is thus reduced to the
ı of a relatively thin membrane, and its inner surface is fused with
ins of the decidua capsularis.

lua Basalis.—This portion of the decidua is constituted by the deeper
:he stratum compactum in which the ovum is embedded together with
externally situated spongy and unchanged layers, and, apart from the
lue to the invasion of the fœtal villi, the most important transformations
art of the decidua occur in the stratum compactum. The alterations in
gy layer are similar to those which occur in the same layer of the decidua
the lining epithelium disappears and the spaces are flattened out into a
:left-like slits.

e stratum compactum, however, much more striking changes occur; all
the glands disappear, but the blood-vessels become greatly dilated, and,
ntly, the layer increases considerably in thickness. The small blood-vessels
in the immediate neighbourhood of the ovum become converted into
ı blood sinuses, but in the deeper part of the stratum a thin layer, which
the stratum spongiosum, remains relatively unchanged; this deeper part
the basal layer, and through it the blood-vessels pass to and from the

blood sinuses in the more superficial portion of the membrane. When is completed, therefore, the maternal portion of the placenta, which is t transformed decidua basalis, no longer consists of the stratum compactum, t stratum spongiosum, and the unchanged layer, but it is formed from with outwards of—(1) a layer of blood sinuses, (2) the basal layer, (3) the modifi spongy layer, and (4) the unchanged layer. The difference between the decid basalis and the maternal part of the placenta may be tabulated as follows:—

Decidua basalis.	**Maternal placenta.**
Deep part of stratum compactum	Layer of blood sinuses. Basal layer.
Stratum spongiosum	Modified stratum spongiosum.
Unchanged layer	Unchanged layer.

It must not be forgotten, however, that whilst the changes which result in t formation of the maternal placenta out of the decidua basalis are taking place t stratum compactum has been invaded by the placental villi.

The first result of this invasion is the destruction of much of the decidual tissue l the ectoderm the fœtal vil Gradually the e toderm of the vil always in advan of the main bod reaches and su rounds the dilat decidual vesse destroys the i tervening tissu and ultimately places the end thelial walls of t vessels, which this time ha dilated into enc mous spaces. In these spaces t ramifications the villi proje and, as the enc thelial walls a destroyed, they directly with the cavities of t spaces, and a surrounded on sides by matern blood. The m peculiar feature this part of t placenta, wh fully developed that the whole the maternal p tion of it, exce the blood, h

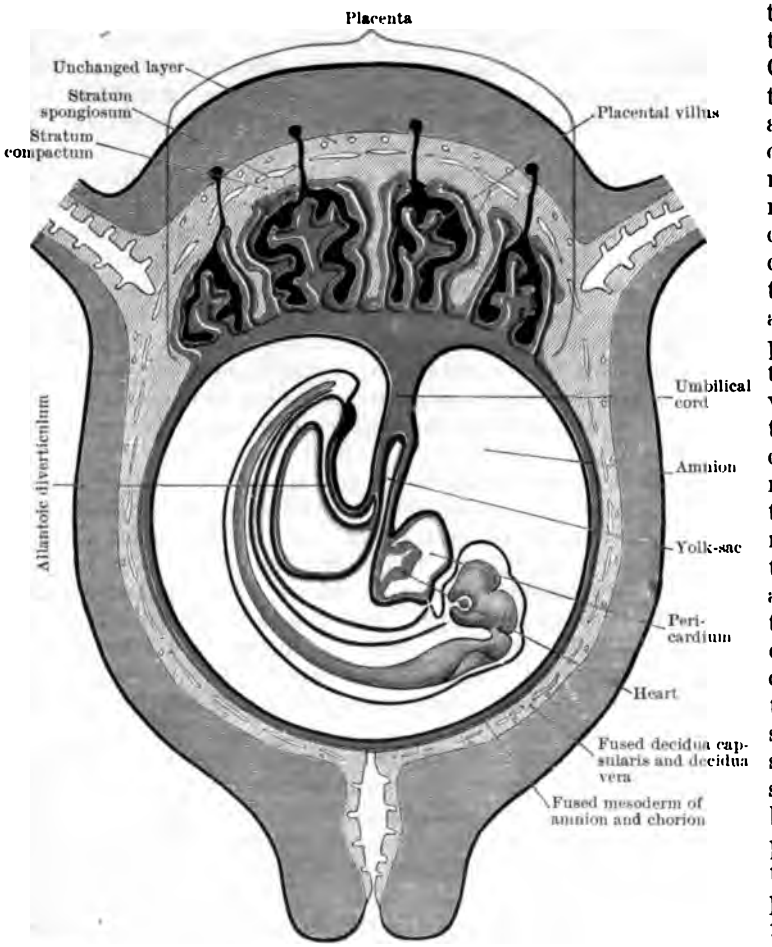


FIG. 46.—DIAGRAM. Later stage in the development of the placenta, showing the relations of the fœtal villi to the placental sinuses, the fusion of the amnion with the inner surface of the chorion, and the thinning of the fused decidua (capsularis and vera).

been removed and replaced by fœtal tissues, so that, although the matern blood continues to circulate in the same spaces which it has occupied from t first, viz. the blood sinuses in the more superficial part of the stratum compactum the maternal decidua, yet the walls of these spaces have been replaced more or l

mpletely by fœtal ectoderm, and, consequently, the spaces now lie in the midst of e fœtal tissues.

The invasion of the maternal by the fœtal part of the placenta proceeds as far the basal layer, and in this region the fœtal ectoderm is directly continuous with he walls of the maternal blood-vessels at the points where they enter the sinuses.

Although the invasion of the decidua basalis is so complete, some portions of he maternal tissues persist; thus the basal layer and many strands of the stratum ompactum escape destruction. The latter extend from the basal layer to the outer rface of the chorion, and they are eventually converted into fibrous strands, which ivide the superficial part of the completed placenta into lobular areas.

The **completed placenta** consists, therefore, of closely intermingled and fused tal and maternal tissues, through which both the fœtal and maternal blood reams circulate. It is well adapted, on account of its peculiarities of structure, to lfil the nutritive and respiratory requirements of the embryo. The fœtal blood tream which flows through the placental villi and the maternal blood stream in he placental sinuses are only separated from each other by two layers of fœtal ctodermal epithelium and a small amount of fœtal mesoderm, the latter being ractically reduced to the single layer of endothelial cells which form the walls of he fœtal vessels. Through these layers, by osmosis, and possibly by secretion, aterials are passed both from mother to embryo and from embryo to mother, the lacenta serving not only for purposes of nutrition and respiration, but also as an cretory organ.

Whilst the placenta is attaining its full development the amnion is expanding, nd finally its outer surface fuses with the inner surface of the chorion, consequently, he innermost portion of the placenta is provided with a covering of amnion.

The full-time placenta is a discoid mass about 20 or 25 inches (50 to 60 cm.) in circumference and 1¼ in thickness at its centre; it is much thinner, however, at its margins, where it is continuous with the membranes formed by the fused chorion, decidua vera, and decidua capsularis. Its weight is about one pound, and it consists from within outwards of the following layers:—

Fœtal	Amnion	Ectoderm. Mesoderm.
	Allantois with fœtal vessels	Mesoderm.
	Chorion	Mesoderm. Ectoderm.
Maternal	Layer of maternal blood sinuses and remains of the interglandular tissue of the stratum compactum.	
	Basal layer.	
	Modified spongy layer.	
	Unchanged layer.	

When the period of intrauterine life is completed the muscular walls of the uterus contract and the lower orifice of the uterine cavity is dilated, the fused chorion and amnion, which close the upper part of the orifice, rupture and the amniotic fluid escapes, the fœtus is then expelled, but it remains attached to the placenta by the umbilical cord. The cord is divided artificially, and after a short period the placenta and membranes are expelled. The membranes attached to the placenta consist of the fused amnion, chorion, decidua capsularis, and also the decidua vera internal to the altered spongy layer; therefore both the placenta and the membranes consist of maternal and fœtal tissues. Before the placenta and membranes are expelled the uterine decidua is separated into two parts by a cleavage which takes place in the modified stratum spongiosum. The inner portion which includes the placenta and membranes is cast off. The outer portion remains in the uterus; it consists almost entirely of the deep unchanged layer of the decidua, and from it the uterine mucous membrane is reconstructed.

THE PRIMITIVE VASCULAR SYSTEM AND THE FŒTAL CIRCULATION.

It has already been said that the ovum during its passage down the Fallopian tube lives either on its own yolk particles or upon substances absorbed from the fluids by which it is surrounded. For a time after it enters the uterus its nutrition must be provided for in a similar manner, but as soon as the chorionic villi are formed it is probable that the ectodermal cells, of which in the earliest stages the ovum entirely consist, and which cover their surfaces in the later stages, actually eat away the decidual tissues which they invade and use them for food. This source of nutrition, however, is only sufficient for the short period during which the ovum remains relatively small, and substances absorbed through the surface cells can be readily transmitted to all its parts.

In addition to the solid decidual tissues devoured by the ectodermal cells it is evident that fluids from the mother are also absorbed, for the yolk-sac and cœlom enlarge and are filled with fluid. The only sources from which this can have been derived are the uterine glands or the blood and lymph vessels of the decidua.

In all probability the fluids absorbed into the ovum contain nutritive material, and so long as the embryo is constituted by the thin layers of the early blastoderm sufficient food material can easily be absorbed. When, however, the various parts of the embryo increase in thickness and become moulded into the form of organs they are no longer in such intimate relation with the surrounding nutritive fluids whilst, further, as their development progresses they require a greater amount of food and oxygen than they can obtain from these fluids. There is, therefore, an imperative necessity for a further supply of nutritive material by which their requirements may be satisfied, failing which, development must cease and death ensue.

To meet this necessity the vascular system is formed. It is essentially an irrigation system consisting of a propulsive organ, the heart, and of tubular vessels, the blood-vessels, all of which contain blood. The heart propels the blood through the blood-vessels to all parts of the embryo, but the blood which is at first formed from the mesoderm of the ovum must, at least so far as its fluid part is concerned, be supplemented largely from maternal sources. It is necessary, therefore, that the fœtal blood-vessels be brought into close relation with the maternal blood-vessels at an early period. It is for this purpose, amongst others, that the large blood sinuses are formed in the maternal portion of the placenta, and that they are surrounded and invaded by the fœtal villi, carrying in their interior branches of the fœtal blood-vessels, and as previously shown, the fœtal blood vessels in the placenta are only separated from the maternal blood in the sinuses by their own thin mesodermal walls, and by one or two layers of ectodermal cells. When the placenta is fully formed fluids can readily pass from the maternal to the fœtal vessels, and there can be no doubt that both food and oxygen pass from the maternal blood to the fœtal blood through and by the agency of the intervening cells, whilst at the same time the waste products which are formed in the embryo pass outwards to the maternal blood.

Obviously, however, a system of vessels filled with fluid would be of little use in the general economy unless there were some means by which the fluid could be kept in constant movement. In the first instance this is accomplished by rhythmical contractions of the vessel walls, but in a short time portions of the two primitive stem-vessels which appear in the embryo are modified into a single propulsive organ, the heart, which forces the fluid, or blood, in a definite direction both through the body of the embryo, along the body-stalk or umbilical cord, according to the age of the embryo, and through the vessels in the placental villi.

We have now to consider how the blood-vessels and blood are formed.

Where, or how, the first blood-vessels appear in the human subject is not definitely known, but in other mammals they are first seen outside the body of the embryo in the wall of the yolk-sac. The outer layer of the wall of the yolk-sac consists of splanchnic mesoderm, and in that part of this layer which lies nearest the primitive alimentary canal a large number of the cells proliferate

rapidly and, fusing together, form multi-nucleated masses of protoplasm, the "**blood islands**" of Pander.

Soon after their appearance the blood islands anastomose together by means of nucleated processes which they throw out on all sides, and thus a nucleated protoplasmic reticulum is formed in the substance of the splanchnic mesoderm. The region in which this occurs is known as the **vascular area**. The solid nucleated reticulum is soon converted into a system of anastomosing canals, the primitive blood-vessels, by the appearance within it of numerous vacuoles which soon fuse together, whilst at the same time the nucleated protoplasm is transformed into cells. The cells which lie nearest the interior separate from each other and form the primitive blood-corpuscles, whilst those situated externally remain connected by their margins and form the endothelial walls of the embryonic vessels. The fluid which fills these first-formed vessels in the vascular area is probably derived either from the cœlom or from the yolk-sac.

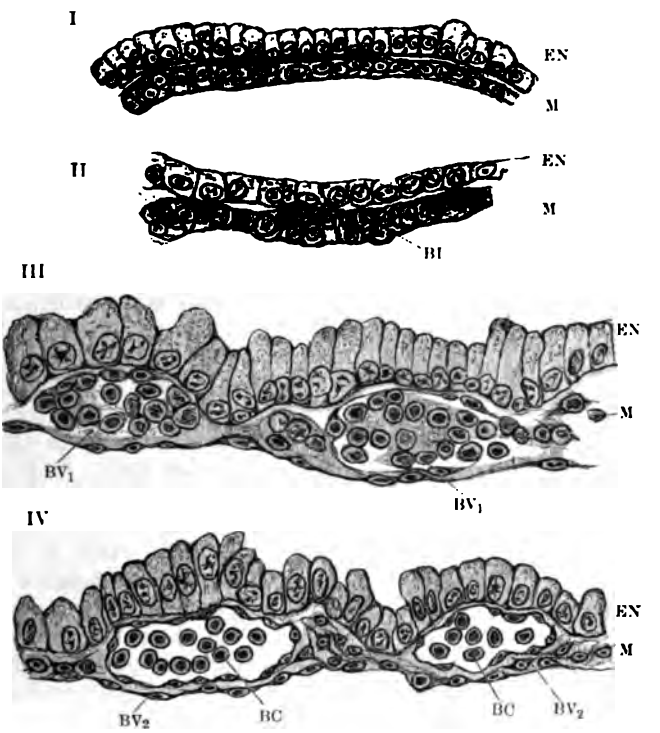


FIG. 47.—DEVELOPMENT OF BLOOD-VESSELS IN THE VASCULAR AREA OF THE RAT.

I. Entoderm and splanchnic mesoderm.
II. Proliferation of cells of mesoderm and formation of "blood islands."
III. Commencing differentiation of islands to form blood-vessels and blood-corpuscles.
IV. Completed vessels.

BC Blood-corpuscles.	BV_2 Blood-vessels.
BI Blood islands.	
BV_1 Blood islands being transformed into blood-vessels.	EN Entoderm. M Mesoderm.

The primitive blood-corpuscles are nucleated cells of a reddish colour; white or colourless blood-corpuscles appear later, and it is stated that those first formed are developed in the thymus gland.

Nucleated red corpuscles persist and increase in number till the end of the second month of intrauterine life; they are then gradually replaced by non-nucleated red corpuscles. The majority of the nucleated red corpuscles disappear long before birth, but a few can usually be found in the blood of the new-born child. There is some doubt about their ultimate fate, but it is generally believed that their nuclei disappear, and that they are converted into non-nucleated corpuscles.

Directly after the appearance of the blood islands in the vascular area of the yolk-sac, and just as the folding off of the embryo commences, two short tubular vessels appear in the splanchnic layer of the pericardial mesoderm. These vessels at once extend forwards and outwards into the extra-embryonic region where they become connected with the vessels of the vascular area; they also extend backwards in the body of the embryo beneath the protovertebral somites. In the majority of mammals they at first terminate behind, as in front, on the wall of the yolk-sac, but after a time the main stems appear to be continued along the allantoic stalk to the placenta, whilst they give off branches to the yolk-sac. It is probable that in the human embryo also, though this has not apparently been actually observed, these main stem vessels, the primitive aortæ, end at first on the wall of

the yolk-sac, but on the fourteenth day of intrauterine life, before the heart is formed, the two primitive stem vessels pass backwards along the body-stalk to the chorion, their terminal branches entering the chorionic villi. As they pass backwards the primitive aortæ give off branches to the wall of the yolk-sac. Thus, at this period the vascular system of the human embryo consists of two longitudinal vessels which run parallel with each other, one on each side of the middle line throughout the whole length of the embryo. They communicate anteriorly with the vessels on the yolk-sac, and terminate posteriorly in the chorion. When the circulation commences the blood flows from the anterior part of the vascular area into the anterior ends of the primitive aortæ, and passes backwards through the embryo. Some of it is returned to the vascular area by the branches which are given off to the walls of the yolk-sac; but the greater part is carried to the chorion, whence it returns by venous channels, the allantoic veins, which have been developed in the meantime, to the anterior ends of the primitive aortæ.

As the cephalic and caudal folds are developed the anterior and posterior parts of the primitive aortæ are carried into the ventral wall of the body of the embryo, and thus each primitive vessel is divisible into three parts: (1) a dorsal part, the primitive dorsal aorta, which extends from the dorsal end of the mandibular arch to the cloaca, and runs beneath the protovertebral somites; (2) an anterior ventral part, situated in the dorsal wall of the pericardium and extending from the umbilicus to the ventral end of the mandibular arch; and (3) a posterior ventral part, which at first runs in the ventral wall at the side of the cloaca, and then turns backwards in the body-stalk to the placenta, but afterwards, when the posterior part of the ventral wall of the body is completed, it extends forwards from the pelvic region to the umbilical orifice, through which it passes to the umbilical cord.

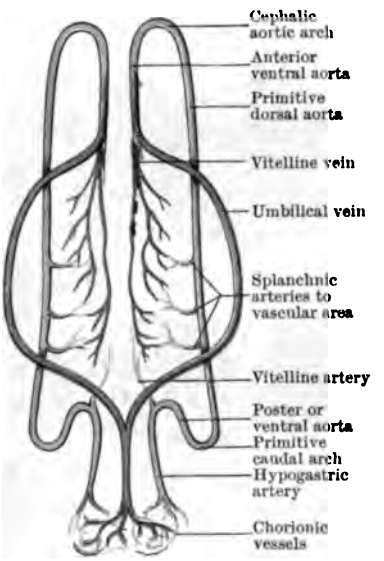


FIG. 48.—THE PRIMITIVE BLOOD-VESSELS OF THE EMBRYO.

The three sections are united together by two arches—an anterior arch, the first cephalic aortic arch, which passes through the mandibular arch and a posterior arch, the caudal arch, which lies at the side of the cloaca.

In a short time four additional communications are formed between the anterior ventral and the dorsal part of each primitive aorta; they are the second, third, fourth, and fifth cephalic aortic arches, each of which lies in the substance of the corresponding visceral arch.

As soon as the last cephalic aortic arch is developed the rudiments of the main vessels of the embryo are established; and by a series of transformations, for a full account of which the chapter which deals with the Vascular System must be consulted, there are formed from the vessels which have been mentioned the heart, the aorta, the main vessels of the head and neck, the pulmonary artery and its primary branches, the common and internal iliac arteries, and the hypogastric arteries.

The blood distributed by the various arteries is returned to the heart by vessels called veins, which are developed in the substance of the mesoderm in the same manner as the arteries. From the yolk-sac the blood returns by the vitelline veins; from the alimentary canal and its appendages, through the portal and hepatic veins; from the head and neck, by the jugular veins and the superior vena cava; and from the body and lower limbs, first by the cardinal veins, and afterwards by the inferior vena cava and the azygos veins.

The heart is formed by the fusion of portions of the anterior ventral sections of the primitive aortæ behind the origins of the cephalic aortic arches, and, therefore, it is primitively a bilateral organ. Subsequently it possesses for a time a single chamber, but this is afterwards divided. During the greater part of fœtal life the

heart, as in the adult, possesses four chambers—two auricles or upper chambers, and two ventricles or lower chambers, right and left. The two auricles communicate with the corresponding ventricles through auriculo-ventricular apertures, and with each other through a foramen, the foramen ovale, in the septum between them.

In the adult the blood enters the right auricle by the superior and inferior venæ cavæ and the coronary sinus; from the right auricle it passes into the right ventricle, by which it is propelled through the pulmonary arteries and lungs; returning to the heart by the pulmonary veins it passes into the left auricle, and then into the left ventricle, by the contraction of which it is forced into the systemic aorta. From the aorta, by various branches, it traverses the organs and tissues of the body, and is returned again to the right auricle.

The course of the fœtal circulation differs from that of the adult; the blood passes out of the body into the placenta, to be oxygenated and purified, the lungs of the fœtus remaining functionless until the time of birth. Very little of the blood which is ejected from the right ventricle at every contraction of that chamber reaches the lungs; the greater part is transferred from the pulmonary

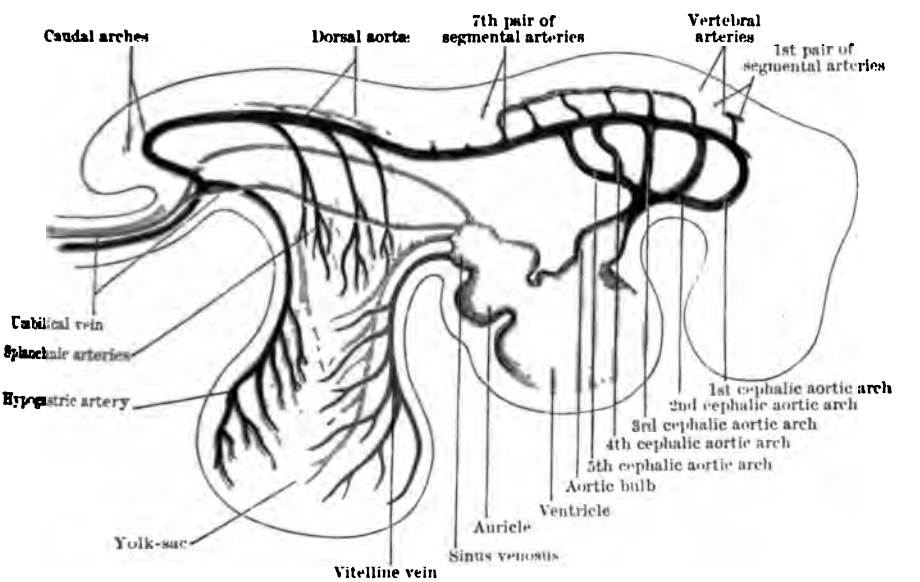


FIG. 42.—DIAGRAM OF THE BLOOD-VESSELS OF A MAMMALIAN EMBRYO AFTER THE FORMATION OF THE HEART.

artery to the aorta by an anastomosing channel, the ductus arteriosus, which disappears after the pulmonary circulation is established.

During the later months of fœtal life, blood enters the right auricle by the superior and inferior venæ cavæ and through the coronary sinus; only a small amount of blood, viz. that returning from the walls of the heart, enters the right auricle through the coronary sinus. The blood poured into the right auricle by the superior vena cava is returned from the head, neck, upper extremities, and the thoracic walls; passing from the auricle by the right auriculo-ventricular opening it enters the right ventricle; from the right ventricle it is forced into the pulmonary artery, and a small part of it traverses the lungs and returns to the left auricle by the pulmonary veins; the main part, however, is conducted by the ductus arteriosus into the aorta at a point beyond where the main vessel of supply to the left upper extremity, the left subclavian artery, rises.

The blood which enters the right auricle by the inferior vena cava is mixed; it consists partly of purified blood from the placenta, and partly of impure blood returning from the abdomen and lower extremities. The blood from the placenta is returned to the embryo by the umbilical vein. From the umbilical vein it passes along a channel called the ductus venosus, which terminates in the upper part of the inferior vena cava. The mixed blood from the inferior vena cava passes through the right auricle, traverses the foramen ovale in the interauricular septum, and

enters the left auricle; from the left auricle it is transferred to the left ve through the left auriculo-ventricular opening, and the left ventricle ejects the aorta. From the first part of the aorta some of the blood passes in vessels which supply the head and neck and upper extremities, the rem

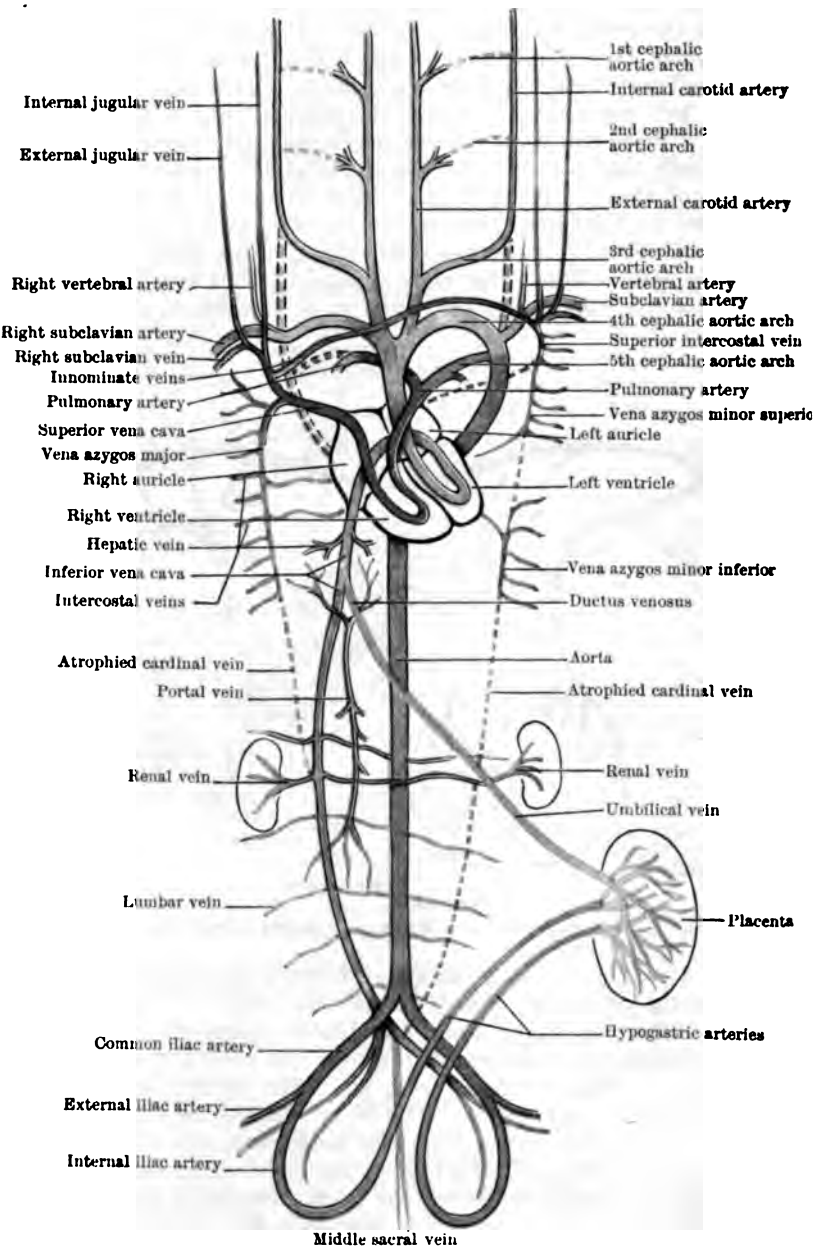


FIG. 50.—DIAGRAM OF THE FŒTAL CIRCULATION.

mixes with the blood conveyed to the aorta by the ductus arteriosus, a blood, thus further mixed, is in part distributed to the walls of the thora abdomen to the abdominal viscera and to the lower extremities, and in passes to the placenta.

Before birth, therefore, there is no pure arterial or fully oxygenated bl the arteries of the fœtus. The blood entering the heart by the superior ven is venous blood from the head, neck, upper extremities, and thorax; that en by the inferior vena cava is mixed blood, consisting of venous blood from the

part of the body and the lower extremities, and arterial blood from the placenta. The two streams do not mix in the right auricle, but the mixed or more arterial stream passes directly through the right into the left auricle, thence into the left ventricle, and from the left ventricle into the aorta or main systemic vessel, which conveys it to all parts of the body. The different parts of the body do not, however, receive equally oxygenated blood, for the venous stream which enters the right auricle by the superior vena cava, passes through that cavity into the right ventricle; by the right ventricle it is forced into the pulmonary artery, from which some small part passes into the lungs, and so back to the left auricle by the pulmonary veins, but by far the greater part is carried by the ductus arteriosus to the aorta, which it enters beyond the origins of the vessels which supply the head, neck, and upper extremities; therefore the blood in the lower part of the aorta, which is distributed to the abdomen, the abdominal viscera including the liver, the lower limbs, and the placenta, is much more mixed or impure (less oxygenated) than that which is distributed to the head, neck, and upper extremities from the upper part of the aorta.

SUMMARY OF THE EXTERNAL FEATURES OF THE HUMAN EMBRYO AT DIFFERENT PERIODS OF DEVELOPMENT.

First week.—The phenomena of fertilisation and segmentation have not been observed in the human ovum, but there is no reason to believe that they differ in any essential respect from those met with in the ova of other mammals. Fertilisation probably occurs in the upper part of the Fallopian tube, and segmentation is completed in the lower part of the same canal by the sixth or eighth day, when, presumably, the ovum becomes a morula, and passes, either as such or as a blastula, into the cavity of the uterus.

Second week.—At the **twelfth day** the ovum is embedded in the uterine wall; it is a lenticular vesicle, which measures 5·5 mm. ($\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch) in length and 3·3 mm. ($\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch) in breadth. Its upper and lower surfaces are smooth and convex, the latter being somewhat flatter than the former, and it is surrounded equatorially by a broad band of villi, some of which are slightly branched. The wall of the vesicle and the villous processes which project from it consist of ectodermal cells, and in the embryonic area, which is clearly marked on the upper surface, there is an inner layer of granular nucleated corpuscles.

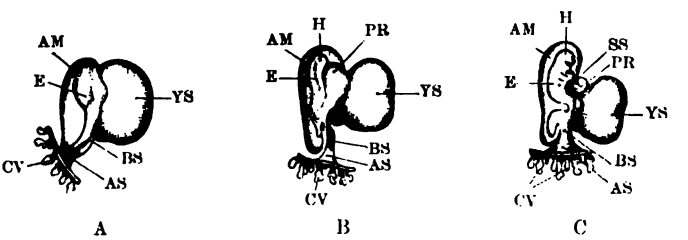


FIG. 51.

A. Human embryo at the end of the 12th day of development; B. At the end of the 13th day of development; C. At the end of the 14th day of development. (After His.)

AM. Amnion; AS. Allantoic stalk; BS. Body-stalk; CV. Chorionic villi on a segment of the chorion; E. Embryo; H. Head of embryo; PR. Pericardial region; SS. Stomatodæal depression; YS. Yolk-sac.

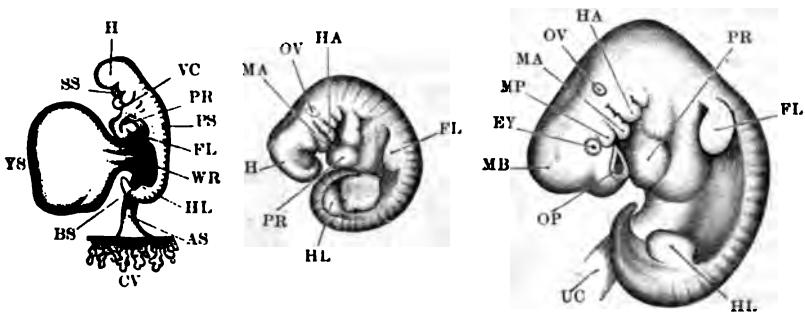
By the end of the twelfth or the beginning of the thirteenth day the length of the ovum has increased to 6 mm. ($\frac{1}{4}$ inch), and its breadth to 4·5 mm. ($\frac{1}{6}$ inch). The embryonic area is no longer on the surface of the ovum, for the amnion folds have closed. The yolk-sac is formed, and the rudiment of the allantoic duct projects backwards from the upper and posterior part of the embryonic area. Mesoderm has formed, and it has extended round the yolk-sac and over the inner surface of the chorion. The embryonic area, with the yolk-sac and the amnion, are enclosed within the blastoderm, but they remain attached to the inner surface of the chorion by a relatively thick stalk of ectodermal and mesodermal tissue, the body-stalk, which is subsequently replaced by the umbilical cord. The outer surface of the ovum, which now consists entirely of chorion, is covered with small villi into some of which mesodermal cores are projecting.

Obviously the ovum of the latter part of the twelfth day differs considerably from that of the earlier part of the same day, but the transitional stages which intervene between the two have not yet been observed. Probably, however, the inner granular layer of cells in the embryonic area, which represent the entoderm, increase and form a solid mass in which a cavity soon appears. Directly after the formation of the cavity in the entoderm the primitive streak appears, and the mesoderm, growing from it, rapidly

covers the entodermal sac and spreads over the inner surface of the chorionic area. At the same time the amniotic folds form and separate from the chorion, but this separation is not effected till the mesoderm, extending backwards from the posterior end of the embryonic area, has reached and becomes connected with the inner surface of the chorion. Consequently, when the amniotic folds fuse together and separate from the remainder of the blastoderm, the embryonic area with the yolk-sac and amnion still remain attached to the inner surface of the chorion.

During the **thirteenth day** the embryonic area is elevated, the cephalic and caudal folds are developed, and the pericardial region becomes prominent between the head extremity of the embryo and the upper and anterior part of the yolk-sac. The neural groove and the neural folds appear; the posterior ends of the folds embrace the anterior extremity of the primitive streak on which the primitive groove is formed. At the anterior end of the primitive groove a neurenteric canal appears, forming a communication between the neural groove and the posterior end of the primitive alimentary canal

On the **fourteenth day** the embryo is more distinctly separated from the yolk-sac; the head increases considerably in size, and its anterior part is bent downwards. The posterior part of the neural canal is completed, except at the extreme end, by the meeting and fusion of the neural folds, but it is still open anteriorly, where traces of the cerebral vesicles are present. The two halves of the heart fuse together; the single tube thus formed is slightly bent upon itself, and its outline is visible from the exterior. The pericardial region increases in size, and a distinct stomatodæal space appears between it and the anterior part of the head. The outlines of fourteen protovertebral somites are visible on the outer surface of the body.



D E F

FIG. 52.

D. Human embryo at the 21st day of development; E. At the 23rd day of development; F. At the 27th day of development. (After His.)

AS. Allantoic stalk; BS. Body-stalk; CV. Chorionic villi on a segment of the chorion; EY. Eye; FL. Fore-limb; H. Head; HA. Hyoid arch; HL. Hind-limb; MA. Mandibular arch; MB. Mid-brain; MP. Maxillary process; OP. Olfactory pit; OV. Otic vesicle; PR. Pericardial region; PS. Protovertebral somite; SS. Stomatodæal space; UC. Umbilical cord; VC. Visceral cleft; WR. Wolffian ridge; YS. Yolk-sac.

Third week.—On the **fifteenth day** the auditory pits and two visceral clefts appear. The head and pericardial region enlarge, and the stomatodæal space, which increases simultaneously, becomes more defined laterally by the forward growth of the maxillary processes.

By the end of the third week Wolffian ridges appear below the ventral ends of the protovertebral somites; they are most marked in the thoracic and pelvic regions, where bud-like projections form the rudiments of the limbs. Four visceral clefts are visible, and there is a distinct tail.

Fourth week.—The embryo is curved upon itself, and its outline is almost circular. The visceral arches begin to overlap each other. The rudiments of the external ear are just visible as small nodules. The limb rudiments are flat, oval buds.

Fifth week.—The curvature is diminished, and the head and neck form about half the embryo. The eye is recognisable externally. The nose begins to grow forwards, but it is still broad and flat, and the nostrils are widely apart. The nodular elements of the external ear fuse together. The segments of the limbs are defined, but the digits do not project beyond the ends of the limb-buds. The genital tubercle, the rudiment of the external generative organs, is formed.

Sixth week.—During the sixth week the increase in size is less rapid than in previous stages, but the embryo begins to assume a more distinctly human form. The

l remains relatively large and it is bent at right angles to the body. The neck is er defined and appears as a constricted region between the head and trunk. The

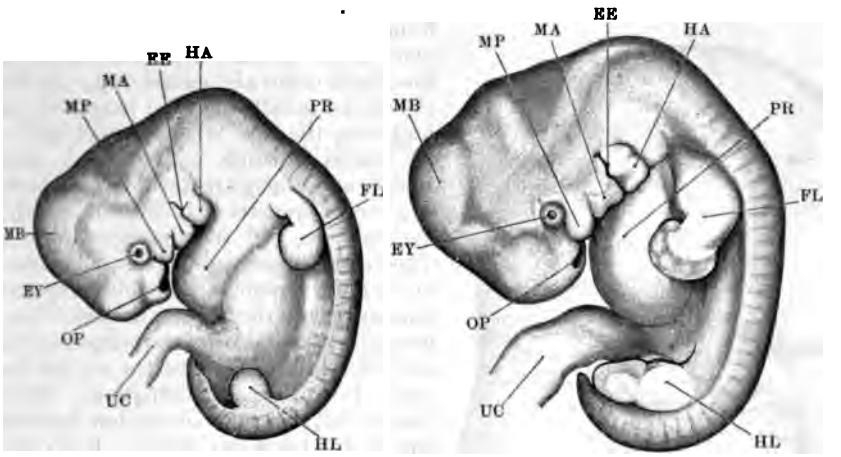


Fig. 53.

G. Human embryo at the 29th day of development; H. At the 32nd day of development. (After His.)
EE. Rudiment of ear; EY. Eye; FL. Fore-limb; HA. Hyoid arch; HL. Hind-limb; MA. Mandibular arch; MB. Mid-brain; MP. Maxillary process; OP. Olfactory pit; PR. Pericardial region; UC. Umbilical cord.

axillary processes fuse with the lateral nasal processes, and the lips and eyelids begin to assume their characteristic form. The outer parts of all the visceral clefts except the yo-mandibular disappear. The external ear acquires its adult form. The rotation of

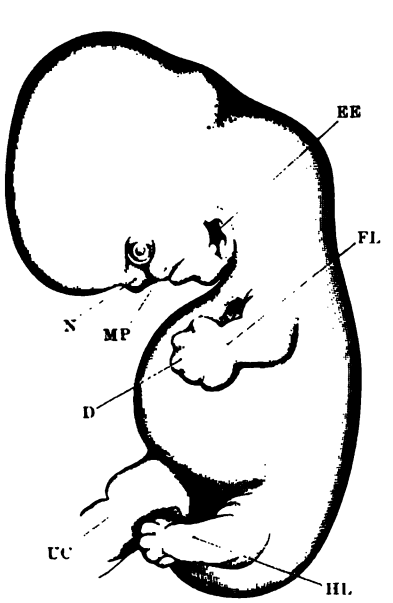


Fig. 54.—Human Fœtus at the sixth week of Development. (After His.)

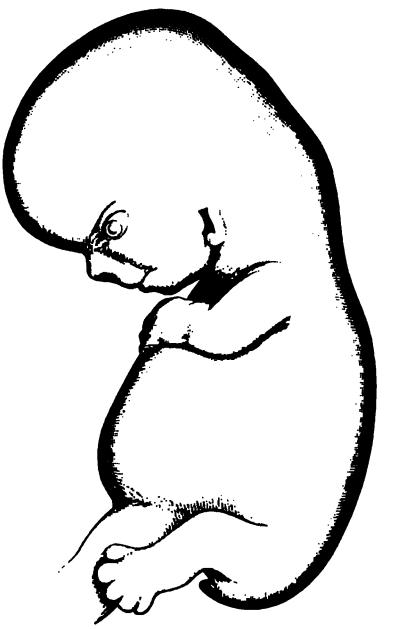


Fig. 55.—Human Fœtus six and a half weeks old. (After His.)

Digits; EE. Rudiment of ear; FL. Fore-limb; HL. Hind-limb; MP. Maxillary process; N. Nose; UC. Umbilical cord.

limbs commences, and the fingers reach the extremity of the hand: the tail is inning to disappear as an external projection.

Seventh week.—The flexure of the head upon the body is reduced. The nose jects more than in the preceding stage, and the chin appears. The toes reach the rgins of the feet, and the projecting portion of the tail is still further reduced in length.

Eighth week.—The flexure of the head disappears. The forehead projects.

The nose narrows and becomes more prominent, but the anterior nasal orifices s directed forwards. The upper lip is completed by the fusion of the globular pr The thumb is widely separated from the fingers, and the hand assumes a di human appearance. The tail is reduced tc nodule, and the umbilical cord is attache lower part of the abdominal wall. At th the second month the total length of th excluding the legs, is 28 mm. ($1\frac{1}{8}$ in.).

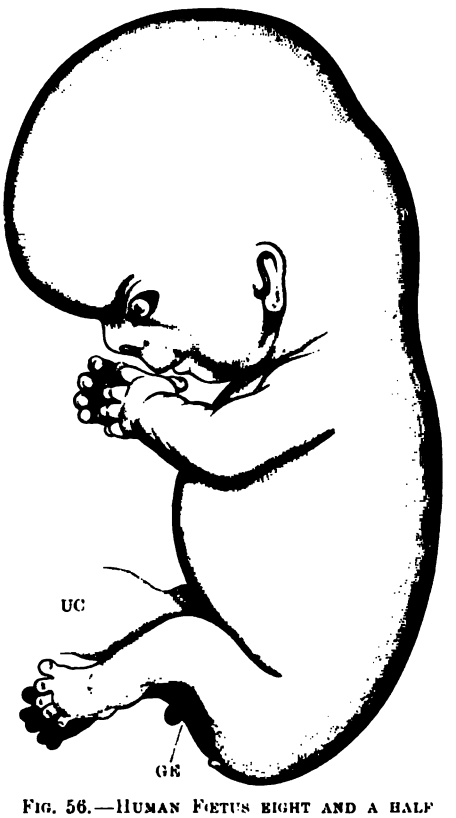


FIG. 56.—HUMAN FŒTUS EIGHT AND A HALF WEEKS OLD. (After His.)

GE. Genital eminence; UC. Umbilical cord.

Third month. — The head gro rapidly and, though it is still large, it is re smaller in proportion to the whole body eyelids close, and their margins fuse t The neck increases in length. The vario of the limbs assume their definite proporti nails appear on the fingers and toes. The dæum is formed and the external generativ are differentiated, so that the sex can b guished on external examination. The s rosy colour, thin and delicate, but more co than in the preceding stages. By the en third month the total length of the fœ cluding the legs, is 7 cm. ($2\frac{4}{5}$ in.), inclu legs, 9-10 cm. ($3\frac{3}{5}$-4 in.), and it weigh 100-125 grammes ($3\frac{1}{2}$-$4\frac{1}{2}$ oz.).

Fourth month. — In the fourth the skin becomes firmer, and fine hairs veloped. The disproportion between t and hind limbs disappears. If the fœtus at this period it may live for a few hou total length from vertex to heels is 16-20 c in.), from vertex to coccyx 12-13 cm. ($4\frac{4}{5}$ and it weighs from 230-260 grammes ($8\frac{1}{8}$

Fifth month.—The skin becomes the hairs are more developed, and se matter appears on the surface of the body legs are longer than the arms, and the ur is farther from the pubis. At the end month the total length of the fœtus, fron to heels, is 25-27 cm. (10-$10\frac{4}{5}$ in.), from vertex to coccyx 20 cm. (8 in.), and its weight is about half a kilogramme ($1\frac{1}{10}$ lbs.).

Sixth month.—The skin is wrinkled and of a dirty reddish colour. Th are stronger and darker. The deposit of sebaceous matter is greater, especially axillæ and groins. The eyelashes and eyebrows appear. At the end of the mo total length of the fœtus, from vertex to heels, is from 30-32 cm. (12-$12\frac{4}{5}$ in.), average weight is about one kilogramme ($2\frac{1}{5}$ lbs.).

Seventh month. — The skin is still a dirty red colour, but it is lighte in the previous month. The body is more plump on account of a greater deposit cutaneous fat. The eyelids reopen, and the fœtus is capable of living if born period. Its total length at the end of the month, measured from vertex to heels, i cm. (14-$14\frac{4}{5}$ in.), and its weight is about one and a half kilogrammes ($3\frac{1}{3}$ lbs.).

Eighth month.—The skin is completely covered with sebaceous deposit is thickest on the head and in the axillæ and groins, and its colour changes to a flesh tint. The umbilicus is farther from the pubis, but it is not yet at the centre body. The total length of the fœtus, from vertex to heels, is 40 cm. (16 in.), and its varies from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ kilogrammes ($4\frac{1}{2}$-$5\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.).

Ninth month. — The hair begins to disappear from the body, but it long and abundant on the head. The skin becomes paler, the plumpness increas the umbilicus reaches the centre of the body. At the end of the ninth month, w fœtus is born, it measures about 50 cm. from vertex to heels (20 in.), and it weig 3-$3\frac{1}{2}$ kilogrammes ($6\frac{6}{10}$-$7\frac{7}{10}$ lbs.).

The age of a fœtus may be estimated approximately by Hasse's rule, viz. Up to t month the length in centimeters, the lower limbs being included, equals the square of in months, and after the fifth month the length in centimeters equals the age multiplied

OSTEOLOGY.

THE SKELETON.

By ARTHUR THOMSON.

THE term **skeleton** (from the Greek, σκελετός, dried) is applied to the parts which remain after the softer tissues of the body have been disintegrated or removed, and includes not only the bones, but also the cartilages and ligaments which bind them together. In the restricted sense of the word the skeleton denotes the osseous framework of the body. It is in this sense that it is generally employed in human anatomy.

The skeleton serves to support the softer structures which are grouped around it, and also affords protection to many of the delicate organs which are lodged within its cavities. By the articulation of its several parts, its segments are converted into levers which constitute the passive portion of the locomotory system. Recent research has also proved that certain cells found in bone-marrow are intimately associated with the development and production of some of the corpuscles of the blood.

Bone may be regarded as white fibrous tissue which, having become calcified, has undergone subsequent changes, so as to be converted into true osseous tissue. Most probably all bone is of membranous origin, but it may pass through a stage in which cartilage plays an important part in its development. In many instances the cartilage persists, and is not converted into bone, as in the case of the articular cartilage which clothes the joint surfaces, the nasal septum, the cartilages of the nose, and the cartilages of the ribs. A persistence of the membranous condition is met with in man in the case of the tentorium cerebelli, which in some groups of animals (Carnivora) is converted into a bony partition.

Skeletal structures may be derived from each of the three layers of the trilaminar blastoderm. The **exo-skeleton** includes structures of ectodermal, and some of mesodermal origin in the shape of hair, nails, feathers, teeth, scales, armour-plates, etc., whilst the **endo-skeleton**, with which we are more particularly concerned, is largely derived from the mesoblastic tissue, but also includes the notochord, an entodermal structure which forms the primitive endo-skeleton, around which the axial skeleton is subsequently developed in the Vertebrata. The endo-skeleton is divisible into an axial portion, appertaining to the trunk and head, and an appendicular part associated with the limbs. It also includes the **splanchnic skeleton**, which comprises certain bones developed in the substance of some of the viscera, such as the os cordis and os penis of certain mammals. In man, perhaps, the cartilaginous framework of the trachea and bronchi may be referred to this system.

The number of the bones of the skeleton of man varies according to age. Owing to a process of fusion taking place during growth, the number in the adult is less than the number in the child. The following table does not include the sesamoid bones which are frequently developed in tendons, the most constant ossicles of this description being those in relation to the metacarpo-phalangeal joint of the thumb, and the metatarso-phalangeal joint of the great toe.

The table represents the number of bones distinct and separable during adul life:—

		Single Bones.	Pairs.	Total.
Axial skeleton	The vertebral column	26	...	26
	The skull	6	8	22
	The sternum	1	...	1
	The ribs	...	12	24
	The hyoid bone	1	...	1
Appendicular skeleton	The upper limbs	...	32	64
	The lower limbs	...	31	62
The ossicles of the ear		...	3	6
		34	86	206

Bones are often classified according to their shape. Thus **long bones**, th is to say, bones of elongated cylindrical form, are more or less characteristic the limbs. **Broad** or **flat bones** are plate-like, and serve as protective coverings the structures they overlie; the bones of the cranial vault display this particul form. Other bones, such as the carpus and tarsus, are termed **short bones**; whil the bones of the cranial base, the face, and the vertebræ, are frequently referred as **irregular bones.**

Various descriptive terms are applied to the prominences commonly met wit on a bone, such as *tuberosity, eminence, protuberance, process, tubercle, spin ridge, crest,* and *line.* These may be articular in their nature, or may serve points or lines of muscular and ligamentous attachment. The surface of the bo may be excavated into *pits, depressions, fossæ, cavities, furrows, grooves,* a *notches.* These may be articular or non-articular, the latter serving for the rece tion of organs, tendons, ligaments, vessels, and nerves. In some instances t substance of the bone is hollowed out to form an *air space, sinus,* or *antru* Bones are traversed by *foramina* and *canals*; these may be for the entrance and ex of nutrient vessels, or for the transmission of vessels and nerves from one region another. A *cleft, hiatus,* or *fissure* serves the same purpose. Channels of this kir are usually placed in the line of a suture, or correspond to the line of fusion of t primitive portions of the bone which they pierce.

Composition of Bone.—Bone is composed of a combination of organic a inorganic substances in about the proportion of one to two.

Organic matter (Fat Collagen)		31·04
Mineral matter—		
Calcic phosphate	58·23	
Calcic carbonate	7·32	
Calcic fluoride	1·41	68·97
Magnesic phosphate	1·32	
Sodic chloride	·69	
		100·00

The animal matter may be removed by boiling or charring. According to t completeness with which the fibrous elements have been withdrawn, so the britt ness of the bone increases. When subjected to high temperatures the earth matter alone remains. By soaking a bone in acid the salts may be dissolved o leaving only the organic part. The shape of the bone is still retained, though has now become soft, and can be bent about in any direction.

Bone may be examined either in the fresh or dry condition. In the form state it retains all its organic parts, which include the fibrous tissue in and arou it, the blood-vessels and their contents, together with the cellular elements fou within the substance of the bone itself, and the marrow which occupies the lacun spaces and marrow cavity. In the dried or macerated bone most of these ha disappeared, though a considerable portion of the organic matter still remai even in bones of great antiquity and in a more or less fossil condition. Co sidering its nature and the amount of material employed, bone possesses a remar

able strength, equal to nearly twice that of oak, whilst it is capable of resisting a greater crushing strain; it is stated that a cubic inch of bone will support a weight of over two tons. Its elasticity is remarkable, and is of the greatest service in enabling it to withstand the shocks to which it is so frequently subjected. In regions where wood is scarce the natives use the ribs of large mammals as a substitute in the construction of their bows. Its hardness and density vary in different parts of the skeleton, and its permanency and durability exceed that of any other tissue of the body, except the enamel and dentine of the teeth. The osseous remains of a race over eighty centuries old is now being excavated in Egypt.

Structure of Bone.—The structure of the bone varies with the form of the bone examined. If a long bone be studied in section, the **shaft** or **diaphysis** is seen to be hollow, displaying a cavity of elongated shape, which contains the soft cellular marrow. Around this, the bone is deposited in spicules so as to form a loose osseous meshwork, which becomes denser as it reaches the circumference, and gradually merges with the compact layer which forms the outer investing envelope. The extremities of the bone, usually developed from separate or secondary centres called **epiphyses**, are composed of cancellous tissue, usually finer in the grain and not, as a rule, displaying any medullary cavity. Here the confining shell of bone is thin, and displays none of the stoutness which is so characteristic of the outer layers in the shaft. In the recent condition, the extremities are cartilage-covered where they enter into the formation of joints. In flat bones the osseous tissue is disposed in two compact layers, with a layer of softer cancellous bone, here called the **diploe**, sandwiched in between. There is no medullary cavity, although in certain regions the substance of the diploe may be absorbed, thus forming **air-spaces** or **air-sinuses**.

True bone differs from calcified cartilage or membrane in that it not merely consists of the deposition of earthy salts within its matrix, but displays a definite arrangement of its organic and inorganic parts. Dense bone merely differs from loose or cancellous bone in the compactness of its tissue, the characteristic feature of which is the arrangement of the osseous lamellæ to form what are called **Haversian systems**. These consist of a central or **Haversian canal** which contains the vessels of the bone. Around this the **osseous lamellæ** are arranged concentrically, separated here and there by interspaces called **lacunæ**, in which the bone corpuscles are lodged. Passing from these lacunæ are many fine channels called **canaliculi**. These are disposed radially to the Haversian canal, and pass through the osseous lamellæ. They are occupied by the slender processes of the bone corpuscles. Each Haversian system consists of from three to ten concentric rings of osseous lamellæ.

In addition to the lamellæ of the Haversian systems there are others which are termed the **interstitial lamellæ**; these occupy the intervals between adjoining Haversian systems, and consist of Haversian systems which have undergone a process of partial absorption. Towards the surface of the bone, and subjacent to the periosteal membrane which surrounds the shaft, there are lamellæ arranged circumferentially; these are sometimes referred to as the outer **fundamental lamellæ**. The **periosteal membrane** which surrounds the bone, and which plays so important a part in its development, sends in processes through the various Haversian systems, which carry with them vessels and cells, thus forming an organic meshwork around which the earthy salts are deposited.

The interior of the bone, viz. the **marrow cavity**, and the interspaces within the cancellous tissue, as well as some of the larger Haversian canals, are occupied by the **marrow** or **medulla** of the bone. This varies considerably in its composition in different bones. In the medullary cavity of the shafts of the long bones it consists mainly of fat cells, together with a few marrow cells proper, supported by a kind of retiform tissue, and is known as the **yellow marrow**. In other situations, viz. in the diploe of the cranial bones, in the cancellated tissue of the epiphyses of the long bones, the vertebræ, the sternum, and the ribs, the marrow is more fluid in its consistence, contains less fat, but is characterised by the presence of marrow-cells proper, which resemble in some respects colourless blood corpuscles. In addition to these, however, there are smaller reddish coloured cells, akin to the nucleated red

corpuscles of the blood of the embryo. It is these cells (erythroblasts) which are concerned in the formation of the coloured corpuscles of the blood. Marrow which displays these characteristic appearances is distinguished from the yellow variety already described by being called the **red marrow**. In the diploe of the cranial bones of aged individuals the marrow, which has undergone degenerative changes, is sometimes referred to as the **gelatinous marrow**.

Apart from the adaptation of form rendered necessary by the use to which the bone is put, external influences are seen to react upon the intimate structure of the bone itself. Thus, if sections of different bones be made, the structural arrangement of their cancellous and dense tissue is seen to vary. In long bones the walls of the shaft are thick and strong, more particularly towards the concave side if the shaft happens to be bent. The marrow cavity—largest towards the centre—gradually tapers towards the extremities, being encroached upon by the surrounding cancellous tissue, which is disposed in lines converging towards the extremities like the sides of a vaulted arch, thereby forming platforms on which the epiphyses are supported. The surfaces of these platforms are not smooth, but so arranged as best to withstand the strain to which the epiphyses are habitually subjected. Such provision is necessary in order to obviate the tendency to separation, which might otherwise occur prior to the complete osseous union of the diaphysis with the epiphysis. In the epiphysis itself the arrangement of the fibres of the cancellous tissue is determined by the disposition of the articular surfaces. The osseous lamellæ, as a rule, are disposed at right angles to the planes of the articular facets, whilst they are bound together by other lamellæ arranged conformably with these articular planes. The former correspond to the direction of greatest pressure whilst the latter agree with the lines of greatest tension. In cases where there is an outstanding process projecting from the shaft, as, for example, the head and neck of the femur, a section of the bone displays a bracket-like arrangement of the osseous fibres of the cancellous tissue, which assists materially in strengthening the bone.

Ossification and Growth of Bones.—For an account of the earlier development of the skeleton the reader is referred to the section on Embryology. Concerning the subsequent changes which take place, these are dependent on the conversion of the sclerotogenous tissue into membrane and cartilage. A characteristic of this tissue is that it contains elements which become formed into bone-producing cells, called **osteoblasts**. These are met with in the connective tissue from which the membrane bones are formed, whilst they also appear in the deeper layers of the investing tissue of the cartilage (perichondrium), and so lead to its conversion into the bone-producing layer or periosteum. All true bone, therefore, may probably be regarded as of membranous origin, though its appearance is preceded in some instances by the deposition of cartilage; in this case calcification of the cartilage is an essential stage in the process of bone formation, but the ultimate conversion into true bone with characteristic Haversian systems, leads to the absorption and disappearance of this primitive calcified cartilage.

Membrane bones are such as have developed from fibrous tissue without having passed through a cartilaginous stage. Of this nature are the bones of the cranial vault and the majority of the bones of the face, viz. the superior maxillæ, malars, nasals, lachrymals, and palate bones, as well as the vomer. The internal pterygoid plate is also of membranous origin.

Cartilage bones are those which are preformed in cartilage, and include most of the bones of the skeleton. Their growth is often described as endochondral and ectochondral, the former term implying the deposition of membrane bone in the centre of the cartilage, while the latter signifies a deposit of membrane bone on the surface of the cartilage, the osteogenetic layer on the surface of the cartilage being called the perichondrium till once bone has been formed, when it is called the periosteum.

In the course of the development of a bone from membrane, as, for example the parietal bone, the fibrous tissue corresponding to the position of the primary centre becomes osteogenetic, because here appear the bone-forming cells (osteoblasts) which rapidly surround themselves with a bony deposit more or less spicular in

arrangement. As growth goes on these osteoblasts become embedded in the ossifying matrix, and remain as the corpuscles of the future bone, the spaces in which they are lodged corresponding to the lacunæ and canaliculi of the fully developed osseous tissue. From the primary centre ossification spreads eccentrically towards the margins of the bone, where ultimately the sutures are formed. Here the growth rendered necessary by the expansion of the cranium takes place through the agency of an intervening layer of vascular connective tissue rich in osteoblasts; but in course of time the activity of this is reduced until only a thin layer of intermediate tissue persists along the line of the suture; this may eventually become absorbed, leading to the obliteration of the suture by the osseous union of the contiguous bones. Whilst the expansion of the bone in all directions is thus provided for, its increase in thickness is determined by the activity of the underlying and overlying strata. These form the periosteum, and furnish the lamellæ which constitute the inner and outer compact osseous layers.

In a cartilage bone changes of a similar nature occur. The cartilage, which may be regarded histologically as white fibrous tissue + chondro-sulphuric acid and a certain amount of lime salts, undergoes the following changes:—**First**, the cartilage cells being arranged in rows, become enlarged; **secondly**, the matrix between the cartilage cells becomes calcified by the deposition of an additional amount of lime salts; **thirdly**, the rows of cells become confluent; and, **fourthly**, into the spaces so formed extend the blood-vessels derived from the vascular layer of the periosteum. Accompanying these vessels are osteoblasts and osteoclasts, the former building up true bone at the expense of the calcified cartilage, the latter causing an absorption of the newly-formed bone, and leading to its conversion into a marrow cavity, so that in due course all the cartilage or its products disappear. At the same time that this is taking place within the cartilage, the perichondrium is undergoing conversion into the periosteum, an investing membrane, the deeper stratum of which, highly vascular, furnishes a layer of osteoblast cells which serve to develop the circumferential lamellæ of the bone. It is by the accrescence of these layers externally, and their absorption internally through the action of the osteoclast cells, that growth takes place transversely. A transverse section of the shaft of a long bone shows this very clearly. Centrally there is the marrow cavity, formed primarily by the absorption of the calcified cartilage; around this the cancellous tissue produced by the partial erosion of the primary periosteal bone is disposed, whilst externally there is the dense envelope made up of the more recent periosteal growth.

Such a description, whilst explaining the growth of bone circumferentially, fails to account for its growth in length; hence the necessity in long bones for some arrangement whereby ossification may take place at one or both extremities of the shaft. This zone of growth is situated where the ossified shaft becomes continuous with the cartilaginous epiphysis. In addition, within these epiphysial cartilages calcification of the cartilage takes place centrally, just as in the diaphysis. The two parts of the bone, viz. the diaphysis and epiphysis, are thus separated by a layer of cartilage, as yet uncalcified, but extremely active in growth owing to the invasion of vessels and cells from a vascular zone which surrounds the epiphysis. The nucleus of the epiphysis becomes converted into true bone, which grows eccentrically. This arrangement provides for the growth of the shaft towards the epiphysis, and the growth of the epiphysis towards the shaft; so that as long as the active intervening layer of cartilage persists, extension of growth in a longitudinal direction is possible. Subsequently, however, at variable periods the intervening layer of cartilage becomes calcified, and true bony growth occurs within it, thus leading to complete osseous union between the shaft and epiphysis. When this has taken place all further growth in a longitudinal direction ceases. In cases where the epiphysis enters into the formation of a joint, the cartilage over the articular area persists and undergoes neither calcification nor ossification. In long bones the ossific nucleus for the shaft or diaphysis is the first to appear, and is hence often called the primary centre of ossification. The centres for the epiphyses appear subsequently at variable periods, and are referred to as the secondary centres of ossification.

From what has been said it will be gathered that the vascular supply of the bone is derived from the vessels of the periosteum. These consist of fine arteries

which enter the surface of the shaft and epiphysis; but in addition there larger trunk which enters the diaphysis and reaches the medullary cavity. Th called the **nutrient artery** of the bone. The direction taken by this vessel vari different bones. In the upper limb the artery runs downwards in the case of humerus and upwards in the radius and ulna; in the lower limb the nutr vessel of the femur is directed towards the upper extremity of the shaft, w in the tibia and fibula it follows a downward course. It is difficult to account this difference in the arrangement of the vessels; but it has been pointed out when all the joints are flexed, as in the position occupied by the fœtus in u the direction taken by the vessels is the same, and corresponds to a line pas from the head towards the tail-end of the embryo. Consequently, in the u limb the vessels flow towards the elbow, whilst in the lower limb they pass the knee.

The attention of anatomists has long been directed to the elucidation of the which regulate bone-growth. Our present knowledge of the subject may be br summarised in the following generalisations:—

1. In bones with a shaft and two epiphyses, the epiphysis towards which nutrient artery is directed is the first to unite with the shaft.

2. In bones with a shaft and two epiphyses, as a rule the epiphysis which mences to ossify latest unites soonest with the shaft. (The fibula is a not exception to this rule. See p. 239.)

3. In bones with a shaft and one epiphysis the nutrient artery is dire towards the end of the bone which has no epiphysis. (This arrangement l good in the case of the clavicle, the metacarpus, metatarsus, and phalanges.)

4. When an epiphysis is ossified from more than one centre, coalescence t place between the separate ossific nuclei before the epiphysis unites with the s

Highly suggestive, too, are the following propositions—That ossification commences in the epiphysis which ultimately acquires the largest relative pro tion to the rest of the bone, and that the ossification of the epiphysis is correlated with its functional importance. In cases of long bones with only epiphysis, the epiphysis is placed at the end of the bone where there is movement.

The **veins** which permeate the cancellous texture of the bone are large and t walled. They do not accompany the arteries, and, as a rule, in long bones escape through large openings near the articular surface. In flat bones they oc channels within the diploe, and drain into an adjacent sinus, or form commu tions with the superficial veins of the scalp.

The **lymphatics** are mainly periosteal, but enter the bone along with the ve and become perivascular.

The **nerves** which accompany the arteries are probably destined for the su of the coats of these vessels. Whether they end in the bony tissue or n unknown.

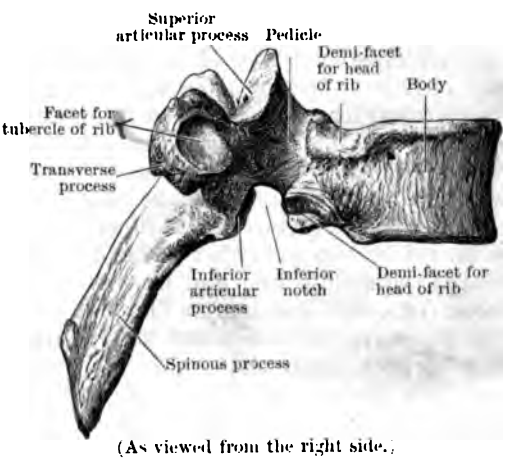
THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN.

The **vertebral column** (columna vertebralis) of man consists of thirty-segments or **vertebræ**, placed one on the top of the other. In the adult, certa these vertebræ have become fused together in the process of growth to form t the segmental arrangement of which is somewhat obscured, though even in fully-developed condition sufficient evidence remains to demonstrate their pound nature. The vertebræ so blended are termed the **fixed** or **false vert** whilst those between which osseous union has not taken place are described a **movable** or **true vertebræ**. This fusion of the vertebral segments is met wi either extremity of the vertebral column, more particularly below, where the co is modified to adapt it for union with the girdle of the lower limb, and al the region of man's degenerated caudal appendage. But a partial union o vertebral segments also takes place above, between the two highest vertebr association with the mechanism necessary to provide for the movements o head on the column.

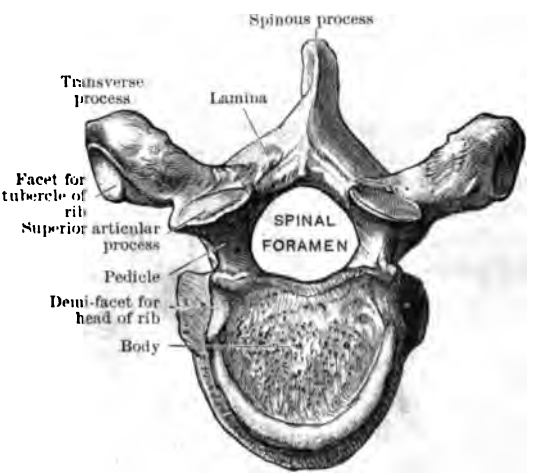
r descriptive purposes the vertebral column is subdivided according to the s through which it passes. Thus the vertebræ are described as **cervical** ræ cervicales), **dorsal** or **thoracic** (vertebræ thoracales), **lumbar** (vertebræ les), **sacral** (vertebræ sacrales), and **coccygeal** (vertebræ caudales), according · lie in the regions of the neck, back, loins, pelvis, and tail. The number of ·e met with in these regions is fairly constant, though, as will be hereafter l out, variations may occur in the number of the members of the different The vertebræ in man are thus apportioned—7 cervical, 12 dorsal, 5 lumbar, l, and 4 or 5 coccygeal; the three former groups comprise the **true** or **mov**rtebræ, the two latter the **false** or **fixed** vertebræ. The **vertebral formula** thus expressed:—

Movable or **True Vertebræ.**			**Fixed** or **False Vertebræ.**		
rvical.	Dorsal.	Lumbar.	Sacral.	Coccygeal.	
7	12	5	5	4	= 33.

tebræ of which the column is built up, though displaying great diversity of ers in the regions above enumerated, yet preserve certain features in ı. All possess a solid part, ı or **body** (corpus vertebræ): · **articular processes** by which ticulate with their fellows; ıave **muscular processes** de- ı in connexion with them; the majority display a **verte- spinal foramen** (foramen verte- ormed by the union of a bony rcus vertebræ) with the body. common characters may best lied by selecting for descrip- ı intermediate member of the For this purpose one of the · or lower thoracic vertebræ · chosen.



(As viewed from the right side.)



(As viewed from above.)

FIGS. 57, 58.—FIFTH THORACIC VERTEBRA.

typical vertebra may be de- ı as consisting of a **body** or ı (corpus vertebræ) composed ass of spongy bone, more or lindrical in form. The size ape of the body is liable to erable variation according to rtebra examined. The upper wer surfaces of the body are lightly concave from before ards and from side to side, · the thickening of the bone lits margins. In the recent con- these surfaces afford attach- for the intervertebral discs are placed like pads between dies of the movable members series. The circumference of dy, formed as it is of more ct bone than the interior, is · slightly concave from above ards, though it becomes flat l, where the body forms the anterior boundary of the spinal or vertebral n, at which point it is usually slightly concave from side to side. The l surfaces of the body are pierced here and there by foramina for the

passage of nutrient vessels, more particularly on the posterior surface, depression of considerable size receives the openings of the canals throu some of the veins which drain the body of the bone escape. Connected body posteriorly there is a bony **arch** (arcus vertebræ), which, by its u the body, encloses a foramen of variable size, the **spinal** or **vertebral** (foramen vertebrale). When the vertebræ are placed on the top of e these foramina form with the uniting ligaments a continuous canal— **neural canal**—in which the spinal cord with its coverings is lodged. which is formed by the union of the **pedicles** and **laminæ**, besides encl spinal foramen, also supports a certain number of processes; of these, outstanding, and may be regarded as a series of levers to which mu attached, whilst others are **articular** and assist in uniting the different together by means of a series of movable joints. The **pedicles** are th bone which pass from the back of the body of the vertebræ on eithe the points where the articular processes are united to the arch. The are compressed laterally, and have rounded superior and inferior border the vertical breadth of the pedicles is not as great as the thickness of th which they are attached, it follows that when the vertebræ are placed the other a series of intervals is left between the pedicles of the different These spaces, enclosed in front by the bodies of the vertebræ and th vertebral discs, and behind by the coaptation of the articular processes series of holes communicating with the neural or spinal canal; these are **intervertebral foramina** (foramina intervertebralia), and allow of the transm spinal nerves and vessels. As each intervertebral foramen is bounded a below by a pedicle, the grooved surfaces in correspondence with the u lower borders of the pedicles are called the **upper** and **lower intervertebra** or **notches** (incisura vertebralis superior et inferior). Posteriorly, the two are united by two somewhat flattened plates of bone—the **laminæ**, which towards the middle line, and become fused with the root of the projectin **process** (processus spinosus). The breadth of the laminæ and their sloping ment are such, that when the vertebræ are articulated together they le space between them, thus enclosing fairly completely the neural canal, they form the posterior wall. The edges and inner surfaces of the la rough for the attachment of the ligaments which bind them together.

The **muscular processes** are three in number, viz. two **transverse proce** on either side—and one central or median, the **spinous process.** Th (processus transversus) project outwards on either side from the arch at t where the pedicle joins the lamina. The latter (processus spinosus) exte wards in the middle line from the point of fusion of the laminæ. Th processes display much variety of length and form.

The **articular processes** (zygapophyses), four in number, are arranged i one superior, the other inferior; the former are placed on the upper surfa arch where the pedicles and laminæ join, the latter below the arch in corres with the superior. Whilst differing much in the direction of their surfaces, the upper have generally a backward tendency, whilst the low forwards.

THE TRUE OR MOVABLE VERTEBRÆ.

The Cervical Vertebræ.

The **cervical vertebræ** (vertebræ cervicales), seven in number, can b distinguished from all the other vertebræ by the fact that their transv cesses are pierced by a foramen. The two highest, and the lowest, requi description; the remaining four conform to a common type.

Their **bodies**, the smallest of all the true vertebræ, are oblong in s transverse diameter being much longer than the antero-posterior width. T surface, which slopes from behind forwards and downwards, is concave fro side, owing to the marked projection of its lateral margins. Its anter rounded off, whilst its posterior edge is sharply defined.

ferior surface, which is more or less saddle-shaped, is directed downwards ·ards. It is convex from side to side, and concave from before backwards, ght rounding off of the projecting anterior lip. The vertical diameter of is small in proportion to its width. The anterior surface is flat in the ıe, but furrowed laterally. The posterior surface, which is rough and r many small foramina, is flat from side to side and above downwards; it its entire extent the anterior wall of the spinal foramen. The lateral the body, particularly in their upper parts, are fused with the costal he transverse processes, and form the inner wall of the vertebrarterial foramen transversarium).

edicles which spring from the posterior half of the lateral aspects of the ut equidistant from their upper and lower margins, are directed hori- ackwards and outwards. The **superior** and **inferior notches** are nearly lepth.

uminæ are long, and about as wide as the body of the bone is thick.

pinal foramen is larger than in the thoracic and lumbar regions; its shape ılar, or more nearly semilunar.

ransverse processes, so called, are pierced by the vertebrarterial foramen

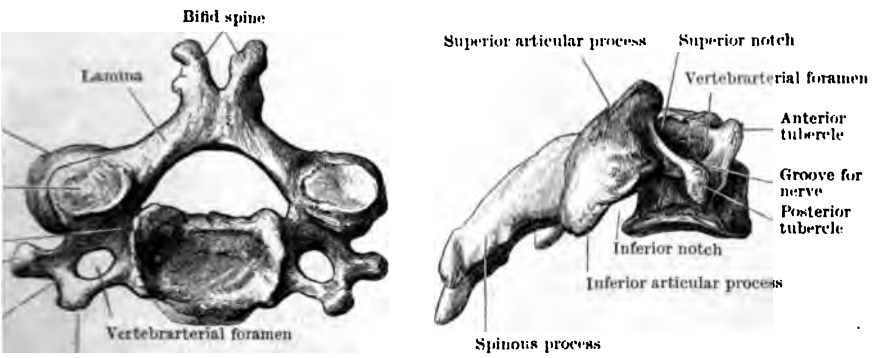


FIG. 59.—FOURTH CERVICAL VERTEBRA FROM ABOVE AND FROM THE RIGHT SIDE.

transversarium). They consist of two parts—the part behind the foramen, rings from the neural arch and is the true transverse process, and the ront, which is homologous with the ribs in the thoracic portion of the These two processes, united externally by a bridge of bone, which thus the interval between them into a foramen, terminate in two tubercles, spectively as the **anterior** and **posterior tubercles**. The general direction rocesses is outwards, slightly forwards, and a little downwards, the anterior lying internal to the posterior. The two tubercles are separated above by directed outwards, downwards, and forwards; along this the spinal nerve sses. The **vertebrarterial foramen** (foramen transversarium), often sub- by a spicule of bone, is traversed by the vertebral artery and vein in the r vertebræ. The **spinous processes**, which are directed downwards, are short, ed vertically, and bifid. The **articular processes** are supported on cylindrical of bone fused with the arch where the pedicles and laminæ join. These s are sliced away obliquely above and below, so that the superior articular ore or less circular in form, are directed upwards and backwards, whilst sponding inferior surfaces are turned downwards and forwards.

tions.—Szawlowski records the presence of an independent rib element in the trans- ss of the fourth cervical vertebra. (*Anat. Anz. Jena*, vol. xx. p. 306.)

t Cervical Vertebra or **Atlas.**—This bone may be readily recognised by ence of the body and spinous process. It consists of two **lateral masses**, support the articular and transverse processes. The lateral masses are ves united by two curved bars of bone, the **anterior** and **posterior arches**, of he former is the stouter and shorter. Each **lateral mass** is irregularly six- nd so placed that it lies closer to its fellow of the opposite side in front than

behind. Its upper surface is excavated to form an elongated **oval facet**, cc from before backwards, and inclined obliquely inwards; not infrequently articular surface displays indications of division into two parts. These face for the reception of the condyles of the occipital bone.

The **inferior articular facets** are placed on the under surfaces of the l masses. Of circular they display a slight to-side concavity, tl flat in the antero-pos direction. Their dispo is such that their su incline downwards slightly inwards. The on the superior art processes of the secon vical vertebra. Spri from the anterior and aspects of the lateral m and uniting them in is a curved bar of the **anterior arch** (anterior); compresse either side, this is t ened centrally so as to on its anterior aspec rounded **anterior tu**

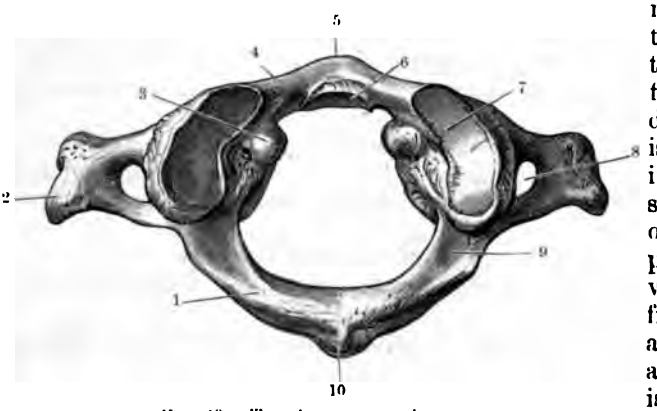


FIG. 60.—THE ATLAS FROM ABOVE.

1. Posterior arch.
2. Transverse process.
3. Tubercle for transverse ligament.
4. Anterior arch.
5. Anterior tubercle.
6. Surface for articulation with odontoid process.
7. Superior articular process.
8. Foramen for vertebral artery.
9. Groove for vertebral artery.
10. Posterior tubercle.

(tuberculum anterius). In correspondence with this on the posterior surfa this arch is a **circular facet** (fovea dentis) for articulation with the odontoid pr of the second cervical vertebra (axis).

The inner surface of the lateral mass is rough and irregular, displaying a **tubercle** for the attachment of the tranverse ligament which passes across the included between the two lateral masses and the anterior arch, thus holdin odontoid process of the axis in position. Behind each tubercle there is usu deep pit, opening into the bottom of which are the canals for the nutrient ves

External to the lateral mass, and principally from its upper half, the trans process arises by two roots which include between them the vertebrarterial for The **transverse process** is long, obliquely compressed, and down-turned; the an and posterior tubercles are no longer distinguishable, as they have fused to one mass.

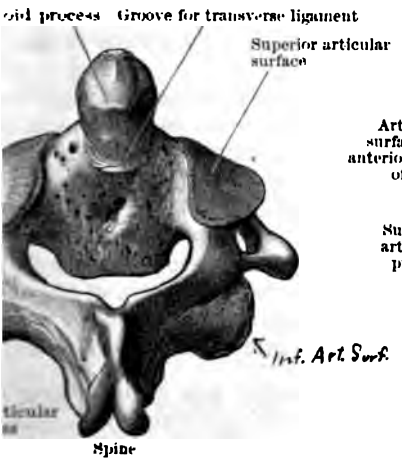
The **posterior arch** arises in part from the posterior surface of the lateral and in part from the posterior root of the transverse process. Compressed above downwards anteriorly, where it bounds a groove which curves aroun posterior aspect of the superior articular process, which groove is also conti externally with the vertebrarterial foramen, the posterior arch becomes th mesially, at which point it displays posteriorly a rough irregular **projection-posterior tubercle** (tuberculum posterius), the feeble representative of the sp process. A prominent little tubercle, arising from the posterior extremity o superior articular process, overhangs the groove above mentioned, and no frequently becomes developed so as to form a bridge of bone across it, conve the groove into a canal through which the vertebral artery and the first cervi suboccipital nerve pass—a condition normally met with in many animals. noteworthy that the grooves traversed by the two highest spinal nerves lie b the articular processes, in place of in front, as in other parts of the column.

The **ring** formed by the lateral masses and the anterior and posterior arc of irregular outline. The anterior part, cut off from the rest by the trans ligament, serves for the lodgment of the odontoid process of the axis; the l part behind corresponds to the upper part of the neural or spinal canal.

Variations.—The vertebrarterial foramen is often deficient in front. Imperfect ossifi occasionally leads to the anterior and posterior arches being incomplete. The superior art

casionally partially or completely divided into anterior and posterior portions.
ces the extremity of the transverse process has two tubercles. The transverse
n rare cases, articulate with a projecting process (paroccipital) from the under
jugular process of the occipital bone (see p. 113). An upward extension from the
the anterior arch, due probably to an ossification of the anterior occipito-atlantal
articulate with the anterior surface of the summit of the odontoid process of
n has noticed the articulation of the superior border of the posterior arch with
order of the foramen magnum. Cases of partial or complete fusion of the atlas
ital bone are not uncommon (see p. 113).

Cervical Vertebra, Axis, or **Epistropheus.**—This is characterised by
of the tooth-like **odontoid process** (dens) which projects upwards from
surface of the body. Slightly constricted where it joins the body, the
ocess tapers to a blunt point superiorly, on the sides of which there are
the attachment of the odontoid or check ligaments. When the atlas
articulated together this process lies behind the anterior arch of the
isplays on its anterior surface an oval or circular facet which articu-
hat on the posterior surface of the anterior arch of the atlas. On the



AXIS FROM BEHIND AND ABOVE.

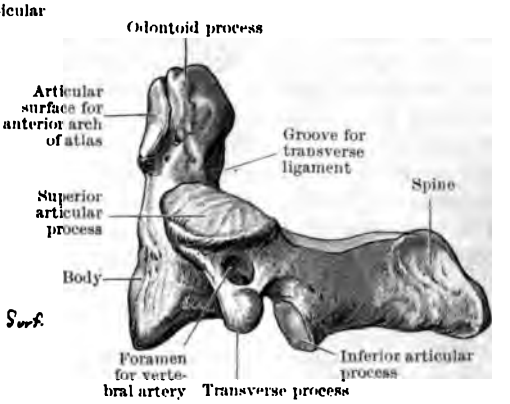


FIG. 62. - AXIS FROM THE LEFT SIDE.

pect of the neck of the odontoid process there is a shallow groove which
transverse ligament which holds it in position.
erior surface of the **body** has a raised triangular surface, which ends
n a ridge passing upwards to the neck of the odontoid process. The
concealed above by the superior articular processes; inferiorly, they are
ved. The **laminæ**—prismatic on section—are thick and strong, ending
broad and **bifid spinous process**, the under surface of which is deeply
nilst its sides meet superiorly in a ridge. Placed over the pedicles
erior root of the transverse processes are the **superior articular surfaces.**
nore or less circular in shape, slightly convex from before backwards,
le to side, and have a direction upwards and a little outwards. They
led inferiorly by the vertebrarterial foramina which turn outwards
m. The grooves by which the second cervical nerves leave the neural
the laminæ immediately behind the superior articular processes. The
icular processes agree in form and position with those of the
nembers of the series, and are placed behind the inferior intervertebral

ansverse process is markedly down-turned, with a single pointed

s. - In some instances the summit of the odontoid process articulates with a promi-
on the anterior border of the foramen magnum (third occipital condyle, see p. 113.
a. *Path. Soc. Dublin*, vol. vii.) records a case in which the odontoid process was
o the persistence of the primitive condition in which it is developed from two
sionally the odontoid process fails to be united with the body of the axis, forming
ideum comparable to that met with in the crocodilia (Giacomini, Romiti, and

Turner). The vertebrarterial foramen is not infrequently incomplete, owing to the imper ossification of the posterior root of the transverse process.

The **seventh cervical vertebra**, or **vertebra prominens**, receives the latter na from the outstanding nature of its **spinous process**, which ends in a single broad tube This forms a well-marked surface projection at the back of the root of the n The **transverse processes** are broad, being flattened from above downwards; t project considerably beyond those of the sixth. The maximum width betw their extremities agrees with that between the transverse processes of the a these two constituting the widest members of the cervical series. The v **brarterial foramen** is small. Not infrequently the costal element is separate f the true transverse process, thus constituting a **cervical rib.**

Variations.—The vertebrarterial foramen may be absent on one or other side.

Thoracic Vertebræ.

The **thoracic** or **dorsal vertebræ** (vertebræ thoracales), twelve in num are distinguished by having facets on the sides of their bodies for the heads o ribs, and in most instances also articular surfaces on their transverse process the tubercles of the ribs (Figs. 57 and 58, p. 75).

The **body** is described as characteristically heart-shaped, though in the u and lower members of the series it undergoes transition to the typical forms o cervical and lumbar vertebræ respectively. Its antero-posterior and trans widths are nearly equal; the latter is greatest in line with the facets for the h of the rib. The bodies are slightly thicker behind than in front, thus adap themselves to the anterior concavity which the column displays in this re The bodies of the second to the ninth thoracic vertebræ inclusive, each possess **costal demi-facets**—a superior pair placed on the upper margin of the body, clo the junction of the pedicle with the centrum, and an inferior pair situated o lower edge, close to and in front of the inferior intervertebral grooves.

When contiguous vertebræ are articulated, the upper pair of demi-facets of the l vertebra coincide with the lower demi-facets of the higher vertebra, and, together wit intervening intervertebral disc, form an articular cup for the reception of the he a rib. Of these facets on the body the upper pair are the primary articular su for the head of the rib; the lower are only acquired secondarily. Moreover, these though apparently placed on the body, are in reality developed on the sides of the p behind the line of union of the pedicles with the centrum (neuro-central synchondro will be explained hereafter.

The **pedicles** are short and thick, and directed backwards and slightly up The superior notch is faintly marked; the inferior notch is deep. The lamin broad, flat, and sloping, having sharp upper and lower margins. When vertebræ are superposed the latter overlap the former so as to form imbricated arrangement. The **spinal foramen** is smaller than in the cervic lumbar regions, and nearly circular in shape.

The **spinous processes** vary in length and direction, being shorter and horizontal in the upper and lower members of the series, longest and most ob in direction towards the middle of this part of the column. Nearly all have a d ward inclination, and are so arranged that they overlap one another. Triangul section where they spring from the neural arch, they become laterally compr towards their extremities, which are capped by more or less distinct tubercles. **transverse processes** are directed backwards and outwards, and a little upw They gradually decrease in size and length from above downwards. Each h somewhat expanded extremity, the anterior surface of which, in the case of the u ten vertebræ, is hollowed out in the form of a circular facet for articulation w the tubercle of the rib which rests in the upper demi-facet of the vertebra to wh the transverse process belongs. The **superior articular processes** are vertical; have their surfaces directed backwards, slightly upwards, and a little outwa the **inferior**, correspondingly forwards, downwards, and inwards.

Certain of the thoracic vertebræ display characters by which they can rea

ıised. These are the first, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, and sometimes the

irst thoracic verte- embles the seventh in the shape of its ıd the length and ı of its spine. There tire facet on either he body for the head st rib, and one demi- ı each side at the rder of its body, to e the socket for the the second rib. Its **se processes** are long, ıe superior inter- ıl notch is better than in other mem- the thoracic series. perior articular sur- e directed backwards wards, not outwards ıe lower members of es.

ninth thoracic ra occasionally has e upper pair of demi- ın its body; at other conforms to the usual

tenth thoracic ra may have only one te costal facet on each r the X. rib, though nes the articular ıay be completed by nth dorsal vertebra. cet on the transverse is generally small, metimes absent.

eleventh thoracic ra has a complete r facet on the outer of each pedicle for ation with the XI. rib. ansverse processes are ınd stunted, and have ets.

twelfth thoracic bra has a single facet e pedicle on each side e XII. rib. Its trans- processes, which have ocets, are broken up maller tubercles, called tively the external, ior, and inferior tubercles. These are homologous with the transverse mam- ry and accessory processes of the lumbar vertebræ. Indications of these ses may also be met with in the tenth and eleventh thoracic vertebræ. The

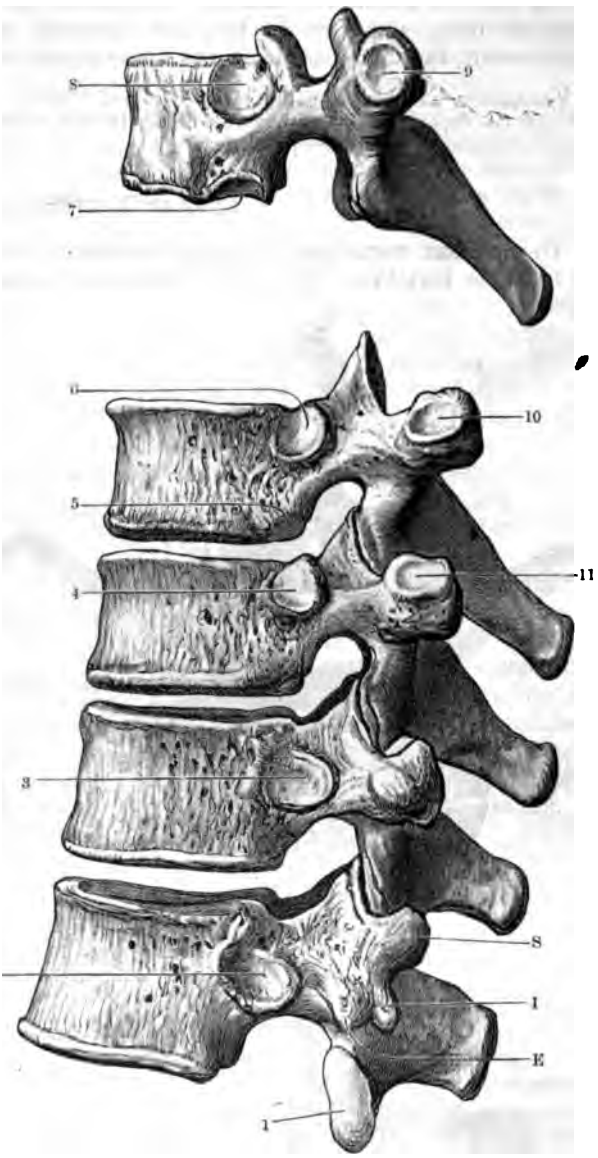


FIG. 63.—FIRST, NINTH, TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH THORACIC VERTEBRÆ FROM THE LEFT SIDE.

1. Inferior articular process with out-turned facet.
2. Single facet for head of XII. rib; no facet on transverse process.
3. Single facet for head of XI. rib; no facet on transverse process.
4. Single or demi-facet for head of X. rib.
5. Occasional demi-facet for head of X. rib.
6. Demi-facet for head of IX. rib.
7. Demi-facet for head of II. rib.
S. Single facet for head of I. rib.
9. Facet on transverse process for tuberosity of I. rib.
10. Facet on transverse process for tuberosity of IX. rib.
11. Facet on transverse process for tuberosity of X. rib, in this particular instance well marked.

S. Superior } Tubercles corresponding to { Mammillary. Accessory.
I. Inferior }
E. External } { Transverse of lumbar.

twelfth thoracic vertebra may usually be distinguished from the eleventh by arrangement of its inferior articular processes, which resemble those of the lum series in being out-turned; but the eleventh occasionally displays the s arrangement, in which case it is not always easy to distinguish between them.

Variations.—Barclay Smith (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.* Lond. 1902, p. 372) records five c in which the superior articular processes of the twelfth thoracic vertebra displayed thoracic lumbar characteristics on the opposite sides.

Lumbar Vertebræ.

The **lumbar vertebræ** (vertebræ lumbales), five in number, are the largest the movable vertebræ. They have no costal articular facets, nor are their tra verse processes pierced a foramen. In this v they can be readily d tinguished from the me bers of the cervical a thoracic series.

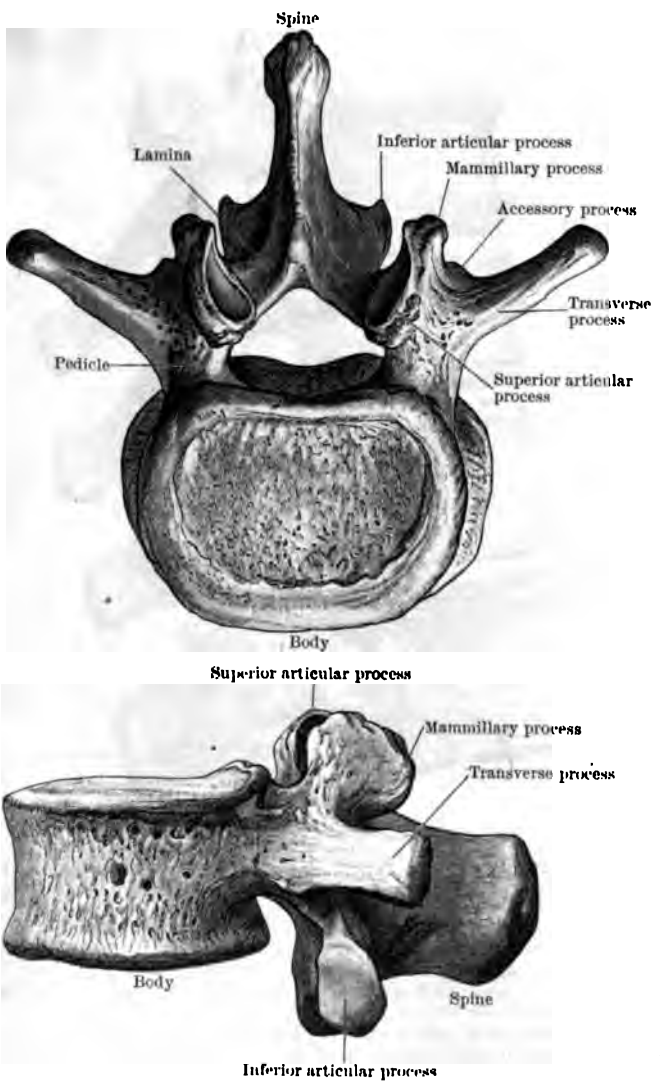


Fig. 64.—Third Lumbar Vertebra from Above, and from the Left Side.

The **body** is kidn shaped in outline, and large size. The transve diameter is usually ab a half greater than t antero-posterior wid The anterior thickness slightly greater than t posterior, being th adapted to the anter convex curve of t column in this regi The **pedicles**, direct horizontally backwar are short and stout; t superior notches a shallow, but deeper th in the thoracic region; t inferior grooves are de The **laminæ** are broad a nearly vertical, slopi but little. They suppo on their lower margi the inferior articular p cesses. The **spinal foram** is large and triangular.

The **spinous process** spatula shaped, with thickened posteri margin, project backwa and slightly downwar The **transverse process** more slender than in t dorsal region, pass ho zontally outwards, with slight backward inclin tion. Arising from the junction of the pedicles with the laminæ in the high members of the series, they tend to advance so as to become fused with the ou side of the pedicle and back of the body in the two lower lumbar vertebræ. these latter vertebræ the superior intervertebral grooves are carried obliquely acr the upper surfaces of the bases of the transverse processes. The transverse proces

line with the external tubercles of the lower thoracic vertebræ, with which re serially homologous, and are to be regarded as representing the costal it. Placed on their base posteriorly, and just external to and below the or articular processes, are the small **accessory tubercles** (processus accessorii) are in series with the inferior tubercles of the lower thoracic vertebræ. The r **articular processes** are stout, oval, curved plates of bone, fused in front with dicles and laminæ, and having their concave articular surfaces vertical and ned. Externally, and on their posterior edge, the bone rises in the form of an ted oval tubercle, the **mammillary process** (processus mammillaris); these are respondence with the superior tubercles of the lower thoracic transverse pro-

e **inferior articular processes** lie on either side of the root of the spinous s, supported on the inferior margin of the laminæ. Their articular surfaces, n outline, convex from side to side, and plane from above downwards, are rned. The inferior articular processes are much closer together than the or; so that when the vertebræ are articulated the superior articular processes e lower vertebra embrace the inferior articular processes of the higher ra.

e **fifth lumbar vertebra** is characterised by the size of its body, which is rgest of all the vertebræ. Further, the under surface of the body is cut at the expense of its posterior part: hence the thickness of the centrum in much exceeds that of the vertical diameter behind. The **transverse process** ramidal in form, and stouter than those of the other lumbar vertebræ. It by a broad base from the side of the back of the body, as well as from the le, and is directed outwards and a little backwards and upwards. Its upper e is slightly grooved by the superior intervertebral notch. A deep notch ates it posteriorly from the superior articular processes, which are less rned than in the other members of the series, their articular surfaces being ed more backwards than inwards, and displaying less concavity. The inferior lar processes are further apart than is the case with the other members of eries, they lie in line with the superior. The spinous process is shorter and wer than the other lumbar spines, particularly so in the female.

riations.—The mammillary and accessory processes are sometimes unduly developed. The l arch of the fifth lumbar vertebra is occasionally interrupted on either side by a synchon- which runs between the upper and lower articular processes. In macerated specimens the rts of the bone are thus separate and independent. The anterior includes the centrum, to- with the pedicles, transverse and superior articular processes; the posterior comprises the r articular processes, the laminæ, and the spine. (Turner, *Challenger Reports*, vol. xvi.) owski and Dwight record instances of the occurrence of a foramen in the transverse of the V. lumbar vertebra (*Anat. Anz. Jena*, vol. xx.), and Ramsay Smith describes a case in the right transverse process of the IV. lumbar vertebra of an Australian sprang from the f the body in front of the pedicle, being unconnected either with the pedicle or articular a.

THE FALSE OR FIXED VERTEBRÆ.

The Sacrum.

he **sacrum** (os sacrum), of roughly triangular shape, is formed by the fusion ally, of five vertebræ. The **anterior surface** of the bone is slightly hollow from to side and concave from above downwards, the curve being usually most unced opposite the third sacral segment. The central part corresponds to odies of the sacral vertebræ, the lines of fusion of which are indicated by a s of four parallel ridges which cross the central part of the bone at gradually nishing intervals from above downwards; externally, these ridges disappear ither side on the inner walls of the four **anterior sacral foramina** (foramina lia anteriora). The size of these holes decreases from above downwards. The r and under border of each foramen is formed by a stout bar of bone, of which are five on each side, corresponding in number with the vertebræ present. e unite externally so as to form the **lateral mass** (pars lateralis), and thus se the foramina to the outer side, though here the edge is not abrupt, but

sloped so as to pass gradually into the canal. The large anterior divisions o sacral nerves pass through these foramina and occupy the shallow grooves. bone is broadest across the first sacral vertebra, tends to narrow opposit second, and again usually increases in width opposite the third. When condition is well marked, the edge has a notched appearance (sacral notch) v assists in the interlocking of the sacro-iliac joint; this feature is common i Simiidæ and some of the lower races of mankind (Paterson). The surface of between and external to the first, second, third, and fourth foramina a attachment to the fibres of origin of the pyriformis which may in some inst extend on to the bodies of the II. and III. segments (Adolphi), whilst on the external to and below the fourth foramen the coccygeus is inserted.

The **posterior surface** is rough and irregular. Convex from above downwa displays mesially a **crest** (crista sacralis media) whereon are seen four elon

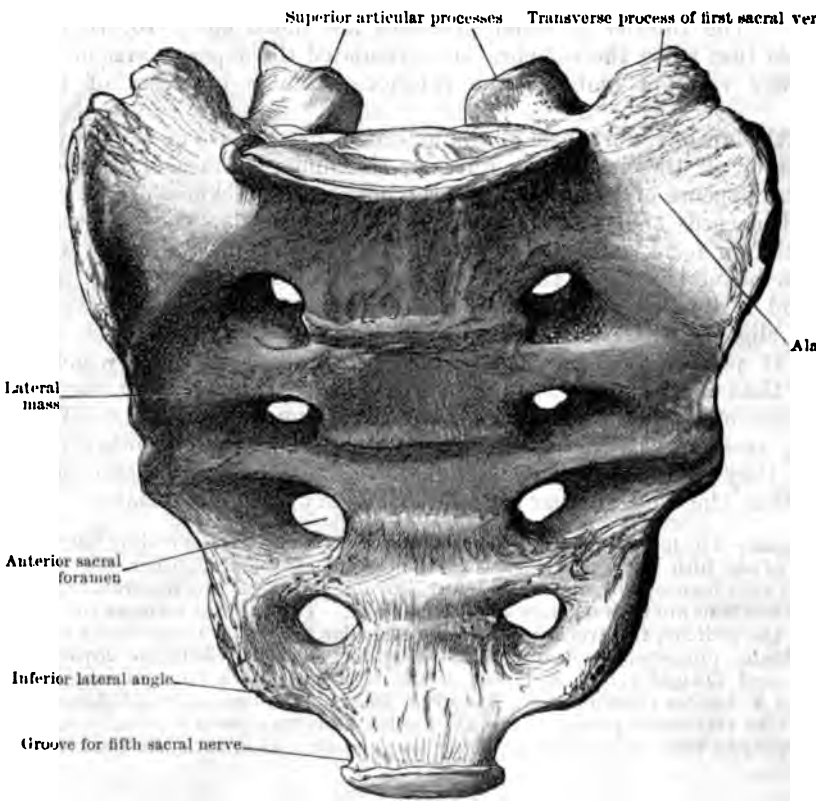


FIG. 65.—THE SACRUM (anterior view).

tubercles—the spines of the upper four sacral vertebræ. External to thes bone forms a groove—the **sacral groove**—the floor of which is made up of the fluent laminæ of the corresponding vertebræ. In line with the intervals bet the spines, and wider apart above than below, another series of tubercles is seen. These are due to the fusion of the **articular processes** of the sacral vert and together they form faint irregular ridges on the bone (cristæ sacrales articul Normally, the spine of the lowest sacral segment is absent, and the laminæ d coalesce mesially, thus leaving a gap in which the spinal canal is exposed (h sacralis); whilst inferiorly the tubercles corresponding to the inferior arti processes of the last sacral vertebra form little down-projecting processes **sacral cornua** (cornua sacralia)—by means of which the sacrum is in part unit the coccyx. Just wide of the articular tubercles are the **posterior sacral for** (foramina sacralia posteriora), for the transmission of the posterior divisions o sacral nerves. These are in correspondence with the anterior foramina, so t

e can be passed directly through both openings; but it is to be noted that the rior are much smaller, and their margins much sharper, than is the case with anterior. The surface of the lateral mass external to the posterior sacral nina is rough and irregular, owing to the presence of four more or less elevated rcles, which constitute the lateral ridges on either side of the bone (cristæ les laterales), and which are serially homologous with the true transverse sses of the lumbar vertebræ.

he posterior surface of the bone furnishes an extensive surface for the origin e erector spinæ muscles, whilst the edge of the bone external to the third and h foramen gives attachment to the gluteus maximus.

he **base** of the bone displays features more in accordance with a typical

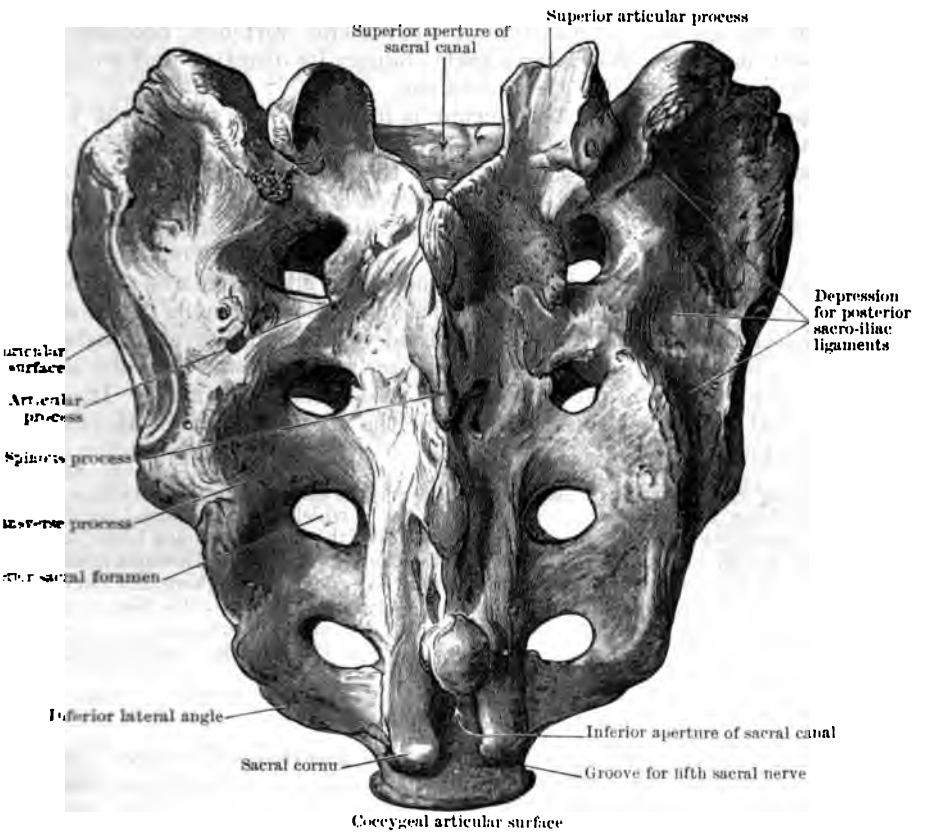


FIG. 66.—THE SACRUM (posterior view).

bra. Centrally, and in front, is placed the **body**, the upper surface of which ulates with the last lumbar vertebra through the medium of an intervertebral

The anterior margin is thin and projecting, overhanging the general con- y of the front of the bone, and forming what is called the **promontory** (promon- m). Behind the body, the spinal canal, of triangular form with slightly ssed sides, is seen, whilst posteriorly is the short spinous process forming the est tubercle of the median crest. Spreading out from the sides, and partly from back of the body on either side, is a fan-shaped mass of bone, the upper surface hich is slightly concave from side to side, and convex from above and behind nwards and forwards. This, the **ala** (ala sacralis), corresponds to the thick upper ler of the **lateral mass**, and is formed, as will be explained hereafter, by elements ch correspond to the pedicles and transverse processes of the sacral vertebræ, ther with superadded structures—the sacral ribs. The external margin of the ral mass, as seen from above, is sharp and outwardly convex, terminating behind a prominent tubercle—the highest of the series of elevations seen on the posterior face of the bone, which have been already described as serially homologous with

the true transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ. Fused with the back of t lateral mass, and separated from it externally by a narrow but deep **notch**, is **superior articular process**. This supports a vertical articular surface, which i circular or oval form, and concave from side to side, having a general direc backwards and a little inwards.

The borders of the bone are thick above, where they articulate with the thin and tapering below, where they furnish attachments for the powerful sa sciatic ligaments. The **iliac articular surfaces** are described as auricular in sh (facies auriculares), and overlie the lateral masses formed by the first three sa vertebræ, though this arrangement is liable to considerable variation. **Behind** auricular surface the bone is rough and pitted by three distinct depressions for attachment of the strong sacro-iliac ligaments. Inferiorly, the edge formed the lateral masses of the fourth and fifth sacral vertebræ becomes gradu thinner, and at the **inferior lateral angle** changes its direction and sweeps inw towards the body of the fifth sacral segment.

The **apex**, or lower end of the sacrum, is formed by the small oval body of fifth sacral vertebra, which articulates with the coccyx.

The **sacral canal** follows the curve of the bone; more or less triangular shape above, it becomes appressed and flattened below. Inferiorly, its poster wall is deficient owing to the imperfect ossification of the laminæ of the fifth, a it may be, of the fourth sacral segments. Passing obliquely outwards and do wards from this canal into the lateral masses on either side are the four pair intervertebral foramina, each of which is connected externally with a V-sha canal which terminates in front and behind in the anterior and posterior sa foramina. The hinder limb of the V is shorter and narrower than the anterior.

The female sacrum is proportionately broader than the male. Its curves liable to great individual variation, though the absolute depth of the curve is than in the male.

Variations.—The number of sacral segments may be increased to six or reduced to four p. 90). Transition forms are occasionally met with in which the first sacral segment dis on one side purely sacral characters, *i.e.* it articulates with the innominate bone, whilst on opposite side it may present all the features of a lumbar vertebra. Through deficiency in development of the laminæ, the neural canal may be exposed throughout its entire leng to a greater extent than is normally the case. (Paterson, *Roy. Dublin Soc. Scientific T* vol. v. Series II.) Szawlowski and Barclay Smith record the occurrence of a foramen in lateral mass of the I. sacral vertebra (*Journ. of Anat. and Physiol.* Lond. vol. xxxvi. p. 372).

Coccyx.

The **coccyx** consists of four—sometimes five, less frequently three—rudimen vertebræ, which ten become fused. The piece is larger than others; it has an hollow facet on its u surface, which articul with the body of the sacral segment. I teriorly, two proce **cornua coccygea**, wh lie in series with articular processes the sacrum, extend wards and unite w the sacral cornua, t bridging over the no for the exit of the fi sacral nerve, and c verting it into a foramen, the last of the intervertebral series. From outer sides of the body project rudimentary **transverse processes** which m

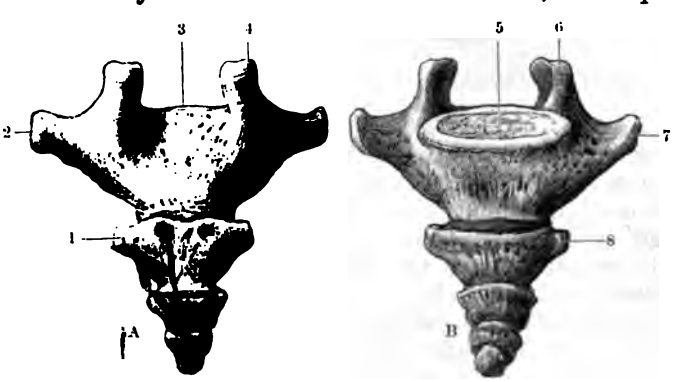


Fig. 67.— The Coccyx.

A. Posterior Surface. B. Anterior Surface.

1. Transverse process. 3. Sacrum. 5. Sacrum. 7. Transverse process.
2. Transverse process. 4. Cornu. 6. Cornu. 8. Transverse process.

r not, unite with the sacrum close to the lower lateral angles; in the ase the fifth anterior sacral foramina are enclosed. Inferiorly, the body of ne articulates with the succeeding vertebra. The second coccygeal vertebra s slight traces of a transverse process and the rudiments of pedicles. The ng segments are mere rounded or oval-shaped nodules of bone.

ion between the lower elements occurs normally in middle life, whilst union between : and second segments occurs somewhat later. It is not unusual, however, to find : first coccygeal vertebra remains separate from the others. Though very variable, e, fusion occurs more commonly in the male, and at an earlier age, than in the Szawlowski has recorded a case in which a curved process arose from the ventral of the first coccygeal segment. He regards this as possibly the homologue of a arch (*Anat. Anz. Jena*, vol. xx. p. 320).

m the posterior surface of the coccyx the gluteus maximus arises. To its l borders are attached the coccygei and levatores ani muscles, and from its ng the fibres of the sphincter ani.

VERTEBRAL COLUMN AS A WHOLE.

ien all the vertebræ are articulated together, the resulting column displays characteristic features. The division of the column into a true or movable mprising the members of the cervical, thoracic, and lumbar series, and a r fixed portion, including the sacrum and coccyx, can now be readily ised. The vertebræ are so disposed that the centra or bodies form an pted column of solid parts in front, which constitutes the axis of support head and trunk; whilst the neural arches behind constitute a canal for the nt and protection of the spinal cord and its membranes. In the movable f the column both the anterior supporting axis and the neural canal are to changes in their disposition owing to the movements of the head and

Like the bodies and neural arches, the spinous and transverse processes o superposed, and fall in line, forming three series of interrupted ridges— ne spinous) placed centrally and behind, the others (the transverse) placed ly. In this way two vertebral grooves are formed which lie between the l and lateral ridges. The floor of each groove is formed by the laminæ and lar processes, and in these grooves are lodged the muscles which serve to rt and control the movements of the column.

rther, the column so constituted is seen to display certain curves in an)-posterior direction. These curves are, of course, subject to very great ion according to the position of the trunk and head, and can only be satis- ily studied in a fresh specimen; but if care be exercised in the articulation vertebræ, the following characteristic features may be observed, assuming, of ; that the column is erect and the head so placed that the axis of vision is ed towards the horizon. There is a forward curve in the cervical region, gradually merges with the backward thoracic curve; this becomes con- ss below with an anterior convexity in the lumbar region, which ends more s abruptly at the union of the fifth lumbar with the first sacral vertebra, the sacrum slopes suddenly backwards, causing the column to form a d projection—the sacro-vertebral angle. Below this, the anterior concavity of vat of the sacrum is directed downwards as well as forwards. Of these four s, two—the thoracic and sacral—are primary, they alone exist during fœtal whilst the cervical and lumbar forward curves only make their appearance birth—the former being associated with the extension and elevation of the whilst the latter is developed in connexion with the use of the hind limb in yper-extended position, which in man is correlated with the assumption of rect posture; this curve, therefore, only appears after the child has begun to

For these reasons the cervical and lumbar curves are described as secondary mpensatory.

ot infrequently there is a slight lateral curvature in the thoracic region, the exity of the curve being usually directed towards the right side. This may

be associated with a greater use of the muscles of the right upper limb depend on the pressure exercised by the upper part of the thoracic aort

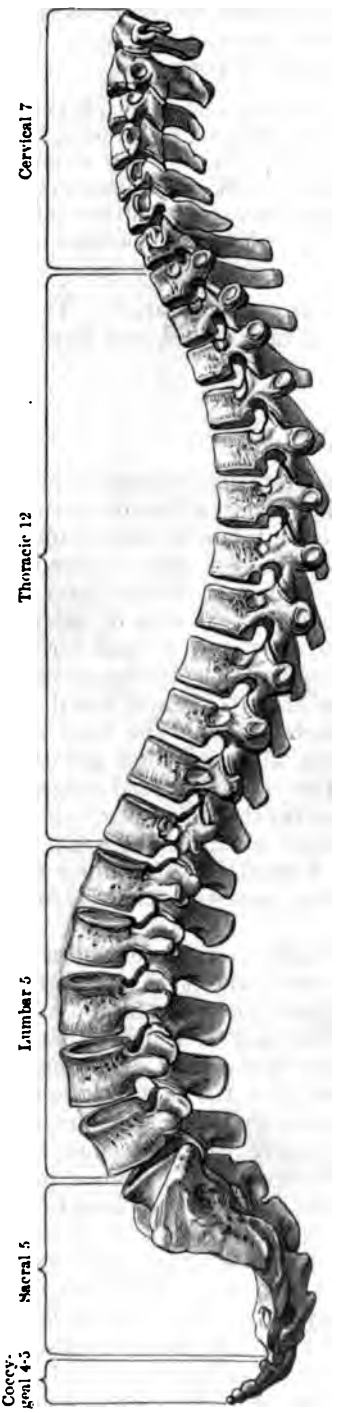


FIG. 68.—VERTEBRAL COLUMN FROM THE LEFT SIDE.

vertebræ of the thoracic region, thus causing lateral displacement, together with a flatteni side of the five thoracic vertebræ (impressio a was first pointed out by Wood (*Journ. Anat. & siol.* vol. iii.) Above and below this curve slight compensatory curves in the opposite d

The line which unites the tips of the not a repetition of the curves formed by th This is due to the fact that the length and of the spines vary much in different regions; the neck, with the exception of the second, si seventh, the spines are all short (absent in of the atlas). In the thoracic region th though long, are obliquely placed—a circu which much reduces their prominence; tha seventh thoracic vertebra is usually the lon most slanting. Below this point the lengt spines gradually decreases, and their positi nearly approaches the horizontal. In the l spines have all a slight downward direction.

Taken as a whole, the spines of the movable v man have a downward inclination—a character whicl with the anthropoid apes and a few other anim character serves to distinguish his column from thos mammals in which the spines of the lumbar ver directed headwards towards the "centre of motio is usually situated near the hinder extremity of t where a vertebra is placed the direction of whos vertical to the horizontally disposed column; thi is often referred to as the **anticlinal vertebra.**

The spines of the upper three or four sacr bræ form an osseous ridge with interrupted t The ridge formed by the vertebral spin important determinant of the surface form, responds to the median furrow of the back, the individual spines may be felt and coun the seventh cervical down to the sacral regio is best done when the back is well bent forw

As viewed from the front, the vertebr increase in width from the second cervica first thoracic; thence a reduction in bread place to the level of the fourth thoracic, belo there is a gradual increase in their transverse d until the sacrum is reached. Here a rapid r in width takes place, terminating inferiorly nodules of the coccyx.

The transverse processes of the atlas and outstanding. The succeeding four cervic bræ have transverse processes of nearly equa the seventh, however, displays a marked in its transverse diameter, and is about equal to the first thoracic vertebra. Below this a and regular diminution in width characte transverse processes of the thoracic vertebr in the case of the eleventh and twelfth they are merely represented by t external tubercles. In the lumbar region the transverse processes agai outstanding, and of nearly equal length.

The transverse diameter of the lateral mass of the first sacral vertebr

lest part of the column. Below this a decrease in width occurs until the f the third sacral segment is reached, at which point the transverse diameter ewhat abruptly diminished, a reduction in width is further suddenly accentuated opposite the fifth segment.

viewed from the side, the bodies display a gradual se in their antero-posterior width until the second r vertebra is reached, below which this diameter is y reduced. In the sacral region the reduction in liameter is great in the first and second sacral nts, more gradual and less marked in the last three nts.

e facets for the heads of the ribs in the upper thoracic lie on the sides of the bodies; those for the tenth, th, and twelfth are placed farther back on the es.

ie **intervertebral foramina** increase in size from above ards in the movable part of the column, being largest e lumbar region. In the sacral region they decrease e from above downwards. In the cervical region the ighest cervical nerves pass out behind the articular ses of the atlas and axis, and lie, therefore, behind orresponding transverse processes of these vertebræ. ucceeding cervical nerves pass out through the inter- ral foramina which are placed between the transverse ses and in front of the articular processes. In the ic and lumbar vertebræ the intervertebral foramina front of both the articular and transverse processes. rrangement of these foramina in the sacrum has been ly sufficiently explained.

he **neural canal** for the lodgment of the spinal cord and eninges is largest in the cervical and lumbar regions, th of which it assumes a triangular form; whilst it is w and circular in the thoracic region. These facts are ated with the movements of the column which are free in those regions where the canal is largest, *i.e.* the and loins.

he **average length** of the vertebral column is from 70 to ntimetres, or from $27\frac{1}{2}$ to $28\frac{3}{4}$ inches. Of this the cervical measures from 13 to 14 cm.; the thoracic, 27 to 29 cm.; ar, 17 to 18 cm.; and the sacro-coccygeal, 12 to 15 cm. ndividual differences in the length of the column are less one might expect, the variation in height of different iduals being often largely dependent on the length of the limbs. In the female the average length of the column out 60 centimetres, or $23\frac{3}{4}$ inches, and the curve in the ar region is usually more pronounced.

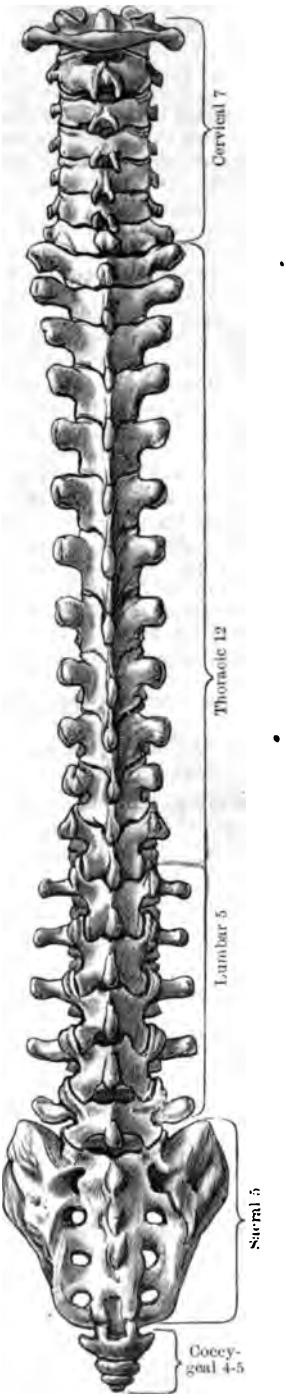


FIG. 69. VERTEBRAL COLUMN AS SEEN FROM BEHIND.

rchitecture.—The vertebræ are formed of spongy bone confined n a thin and dense envelope. In the bodies the arrangement of ancellous tissue, which is traversed by venous channels, is such display a vertical striation with lamellæ arranged horizontally. external, superior, and inferior walls are very thin that directed e neural canal being usually thicker and denser than the others. he pedicles and roots of the transverse processes the cancellous is much more open. The outer envelope is much thicker where unds the neural ring, and where it forms the bottom of the ior and inferior intervertebral notches. In the laminæ the gy tissue is confined between two compact layers, of which that directed to the spinal canal is hicker. In the spinous processes the upper edge is always the more compact.

Variations.—Numerical Variations of the Column as a Whole.- Increase in the number of ebral segments is usually due to differences in the number of the coccygeal vertebræ; these

may vary from four– which may be regarded as the normal number –to six. The numb presacral or movable vertebræ is normally 24 (7 C, 12 D, and 5 L). In which case the vertebra forms the first sacral segment (vertebra fulcralis of Welcker). The number of pres vertebræ may be increased by the intercalation of a segment either in the thoracic or lumbar re without any alteration in the number of the sacral or coccygeal elements: thus we may have 13 D, and 5 L, or 7 C, 12 D, and 6 L, or may be reduced by the disappearance of a vertebral ment –thus, 7 C, 12 D, and 4 L. Such an arrangement presupposes developmental errors ei of excess or default in the segmentation of the column. On the other hand, the total numb vertebral segments remaining the same (24 or 25), we may have variations in the number of t assigned to different regions due to the addition of a vertebral segment to one, and its conseq subtraction from another region. Thus, in the 24 presacral vertebræ, in cases of the occurren cervical ribs the formula is rearranged thus 6 C, 13 D, and 5 L, or, in the case of a thirte rib being present, the formula would be 7 C, 13 D, 4 L, as happens normally in the gorilla chimpanzee. Similarly, the number of the presacral vertebræ (24) may be increased by withdrawal of a segment from the sacral region – 7 C, 12 D, 6 L, and 4 S- or diminished b increase in the number of the sacral vertebræ, as in the formula 7 C, 12 D, 4 L, and 6 S. crease in the number of sacral segments may be due to fusion with a lumbar vertebræ, or by addition of a coccygeal element: the latter is more frequently the case. This variability in constitution of the sacrum is necessarily correlated with a shifting backwards and forward the pelvic girdle along the vertebral column. Rosenburg considers that the 26th, 27th, and vertebræ are the primitive sacral segments, and that the sacral characters of the 25th vert (the first sacral segment in the normal adult column) are only secondarily acquired. He supposes that during development there is a forward shifting of the sacrum and pelvic gi with a consequent reduction in the length of the presacral portion of the column. This vie opposed by Paterson (*Roy. Dublin Soc. Scientific Trans.* vol. v. Ser. II.), who found that ossifica took place in the alæ of the 25th vertebra (first adult sacral segment) before it made its app ance in the alæ of the 26th vertebra. He thus assumes that the alæ of the 25th vertebra be regarded as the main and primary attachment with the ilium. His conclusions, based large number of observations, are at variance with Rosenburg's views, for, according to his opi liberation of the first sacral segment is more common than assimilation with the fifth lu vertebra, and assimilation of the first coccygeal vertebra with the sacrum is more common liberation of the fifth sacral, thus leading to the inference that the sacrum tends to shift b wards more often than forwards. (See also T. Dwight, *Anat. Anz. Jena*, vol. xix. pp. 321, 3

THE CARTILAGINOUS VERTEBRAL COLUMN.

As has been already stated (p. 30), the neural tube and the notochord enveloped by a continuous sheath of mesodermal tissue which forms the **membra vertebral column**. It is by the chondrification of this that the cartilaginous col is developed. This process commences about the end of the first or the begin of the second month of fœtal life. In correspondence with each vertebral segm two symmetrical nodules of cartilage appear on either side of the notochord; t rapidly surround and constrict it. By their fusion they constitute the body cartilaginous vertebra, and are so disposed that they alternate in position with muscle plates which are lying on either side. In this way a vertebral body c sponds in position to the posterior half of the anterior myotome, and the ant half of the posterior myotome, the intermyotomic intervals, which contain connective tissue plates separating the muscle segments, lie in line late with the mid-points of the sides of the cartilaginous vertebræ. It is by chon fication of these intersegmental layers that in certain regions the ribs ultimately developed. Meanwhile, the scleratogenous tissue between the chon fying vertebral bodies undergoes little change and persists as the interverte disc. Here the embedded chorda undergoes but slight compression and enla so that if a length of the column be examined in longitudinal section the n chord displays a moniliform appearance, the constricted parts of the ch corresponding to the bodies, the enlarged portions to the discs. The fo disappear at a later stage when ossification begins, but the latter persist in adult as the pulpy core in the centre of the intervertebral disc.

The portions of the scleratogenous tissue which lie lateral to the ch have next to be considered; these extend dorsalwards around the neural c and ventralwards beneath the chorda. The former is sometimes called vertebral bow, the latter the hypochordal bow. The vertebral bow begin chondrify on either side, and forms the lateral portions of the cartilaginous ne arch, the extremities of which usually unite dorsally about the fourth mont fœtal life; if from defective development this union should fail to occ deformity known as spina bifida is the result.

From the cartilaginous neural arch so formed arise the chondrified rudiments the spinous, transverse, and articular processes.

The chondrification of the neural arch is variously described as being independent of the body or an extension from it; in any case, union between it and the body is rapidly effected.

The scleratogenous tissue between the cartilaginous neural arches which does not undergo chondrification persists as the ligaments uniting the neural laminæ.

As regards the so-called hypochordal bow, for the most part it disappears. By some it is regarded as being represented by a fibrous strand in the intervertebral disc in front of the vertebra to which it belongs. It is, however, noteworthy that in the case of the atlas vertebra there is an exception to this arrangement; for here the hypochordal bow chrondrifies and subsequently by ossification forms the anterior arch of that bone—an arch which lies ventral to, and embraces the odontoid process of the axis (*q.v.* p. 92).

It is only in the thoracic region that the ribs, developed as stated above by the chondrification of the intersegmental septa, attain their full dimensions. In the cervical, lumbar, and sacral regions they exist only in a rudimentary or modified form, as has been described elsewhere. In the construction of the chest wall the ribs are supported ventrally by the sternum, as to the development of which there is some difference of opinion. Ruge has described this bone as formed by the fusion of two cartilaginous bands produced by the coalescence of the expanded ends of the first five or seven cartilaginous ribs. Paterson, on the other hand, regards the sternum as arising independently of the ribs by the union of a right and left sternal bar in the median ventral line. There are also reasons for supposing that the presternum is intimately associated with the development of the ventral part of the shoulder girdle.

Ossification of the Vertebræ.—The vertebræ are developed by ossification of the cartilage which surrounds the notochord and which passes backwards over the sides of the neural canal. The centres for the bodies first appear in the lower thoracic vertebræ about the tenth week. An oval nucleus develops in each body. At first it is placed dorsal to the notochord, but subsequently surrounds and causes the disappearance of that structure. Occasionally, however, the primitive centre appears to be formed by the coalescence of two primary nuclei. Support is given to this view by the occasional occurrence of vertebræ in which the body is developed in two lateral halves, or in cases where only one-half of the body persists (Turner); normally, however, it is impossible to make out this division. From these single nuclei the bodies are developed, the process extending up and down the column until, by the fifth month, all the centra possess ossific deposits, except the coccygeal segments. About the seventh week a single centre appears in the neural arch on either side. These commence first to ossify in the upper cervical region and extend rapidly downwards throughout the column. They first appear near the bases of the superior articular processes, and extend backwards into the laminæ, outwards into the transverse processes, and forwards into the pedicles. These latter project anteriorly, and form a considerable portion of the postero-lateral aspects of the body, from which, however, they are separated by a cartilaginous strip—the neuro-central synchondrosis—which does not entirely disappear until about the fifth or sixth year. It is important to note that in the thoracic region the costal facets lie behind the neuro-central synchondrosis, and are therefore borne on the lateral aspects of the pedicles. Fusion of the laminæ in the dorsal plane behind begins, after birth, in the lumbar region and extends upwards, so that by the fifteenth month or thereabouts the arches in the cervical region are completed behind. In the sacral region ossification is slower, the spinal canal not being enclosed till the seventh to the tenth year. The spinous processes are cartilaginous at birth, but these become ossified by the extension into them of the bony laminæ.

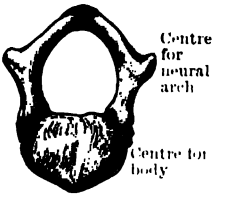


FIG 70. OSSIFICATION OF VERTEBRÆ.

At puberty certain **secondary centres** or **epiphyses** make their appearance; these are five in number. One caps the summit of the spinous process, except in the cervical region. A single epiphysis on either side appears at the extremity of the transverse process, and in the thoracic region assists in forming the articular surface for the tubercle of the rib. Two epiphysial plates are formed—one for the upper, and the second for the

lower surface of the body, including also that part which lies behind the neuro-c synchondrosis and formed by the pedicle ; from these the thickened circumference of upper and lower aspects of the body are derived. Fusion of these centres with th of the bone is not complete till the twenty-fifth year.

In the cervical region independent centres are described as occurring in the an roots of the transverse processes of the sixth and seventh vertebræ. These correspo the costal element, and may occasionally persist in the form of cervical ribs. Else they are formed by lateral extensions from the pedicle.

In the lumbar region the transverse process of the first lumbar vertebra is occasio associated with an independent costal centre, which may blend with it, or persist

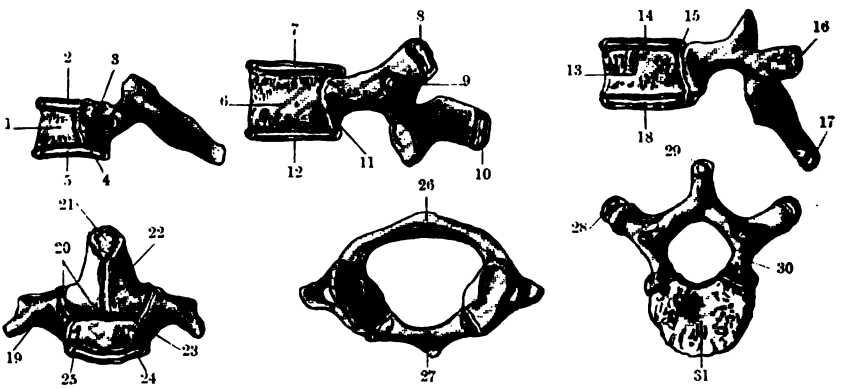


FIG. 71.—OSSIFICATION OF VERTEBRÆ.

Cervical vertebra.

1. Centre for body.
2. Superior epiphysial plate.
3. Anterior bar of transverse process developed by lateral extension from pedicle.
4. Neuro-central synchondrosis.
5. Inferior epiphysial plate.

Lumbar vertebra.

6. Body.
7. Superior epiphysial plate.
8. Epiphysis for mammillary process.
9. Epiphysis for transverse process.
10. Epiphysis for spine.
11. Neuro-central synchondrosis.
12. Inferior epiphysial plate.

Dorsal vertebra.

13. Centre for body.
14. Superior epiphysial plate, appears about puberty ; unites at 25th year.
15. Neuro-central synchondrosis does not ossify till 5th or 6th year.
16. Appears at puberty ; unites at 25th year.
17. Appears at puberty ; unites at 25th year.
18. Appears about 6th week.

Axis.

19. Centre for transverse process and neural arch ; appears about 8th week.
20. Synchondroses close about 3rd year.
21. Centre for summit of odontoid process ; a 3rd to 5th year, fuses 8th to 12th year.
22. Appears about 5th or 6th month ; unite opposite side 7th to 8th month.
23. Synchondrosis closes from 4th to 6th year.
24. Inferior epiphysial plate ; appears about pu unites about 25th year.
25. Single or double centre for body ; appears 5th month.

Atlas.

26. Posterior arch and lateral masses developed a single centre on either side, which a about 7th week.
27. Anterior arch and portion of superior art surface developed from single or double c appearing during 1st year.

Dorsal vertebra.

28. Epiphysis for transverse process ; appears puberty, unites about 25th year.
29. Epiphysis appears about puberty ; unites 25th or 27th year.
30. Centre for neural arch on either side ; a about 6th or 7th week, the laminæ unite birth to 15th month.
31. Centre for body ; appears about 6th week, with neural arch from 5th to 6th year.

lumbar rib. The mammillary processes are derived from separate epiphyses. The n arch of the fifth lumbar vertebra is occasionally developed from two centres on either as is demonstrated by the fact that the arch is sometimes divided by a synchondr joint running obliquely across between the superior and inferior articular processe either side. (See *ante*, p. 83 ; also *Fortschritte auf dem Gebiete der Röntgenstra* Ergänzungsheft i. ; "die Entwickelung des menschlichen Knochengerüstes während fötalen Lebens," von Lambertz.)

Atlas. —The lateral masses and posterior arch are developed from two centres—o either side —which correspond with the centres from which the neural arches of the members of the series are developed. These make their appearance about the sev week, and do not unite posteriorly till after the third year. Their point of unio sometimes preceded by the formation of a distinct spinal nucleus (Quain). The ant

eveloped from centres variously described as single or double, which appear in ne hypochordal arches of cartilage described by Froriep (*Arch. f. Anat. u. Anat. Abth.* 1886) which here persists. In this cartilage ossification commences ie first year of life. Union with the lateral masses is delayed till six or eight er birth. The external extremities of the anterior arch assist in forming the of the superior articular processes.

.—The axis ossifies from five primitive centres. Of these, two—one on either side about the seventh week, and form the articular and transverse processes, together laminæ and spine. One, or it may be two, nuclei appear in the lower part of the at the fifth month. The upper part of the body, including a small part of the rticular process, and the base of the odontoid process, are developed from two placed nuclei which appear shortly after, and fuse together at the seventh or onth, so that at birth the bone consists of four pieces. Fusion between these es place in the following order:—The odontoid unites with the body and lateral at the third or fourth year; union between the two lateral portions posteriorly ody and lateral parts in front, is complete at from four to six years.

summit of the odontoid process is developed from a separate centre, occasionally hich appears from the third to the fifth year, and fuses with the rest of the bone eighth to the twelfth year. About puberty an annular epiphysis is developed on r surface of the body, with which it is completely united during the twentieth to ty-fifth year. Some authorities state that a few granules between the base of the and the upper surface of the body represent the superior epiphysial plate; but between the odontoid and the body occurs before the time for the appearance of condary epiphysial plates, this can hardly be regarded as correct. The line of the odontoid with the body is defined by a small disc of cartilage which persists ie substance of the bone till an advanced period of life.

ir of epiphyses placed over the tubercles of the spine, if not always present, are frequent.

rum.—Each of the sacral segments is ossified from three centres: one for the d two for the neural arch—that for the body, which makes its appearance in the ee sacral vertebræ ie end of the third bout the fifth to the nonth for the last ients. From the two or the neural arches, ake their appearance e fifth or sixth month igher segments, the articular processes, posterior half of on either side are d. The spinal canal is not enclosed till the seventh to the tenth year, the usually failing to meet in the lowest segment, and occasionally, to a greater or nt, in some of the higher segments. The anterior part of the lateral masses is d from separate centres which represent the costal elements (Gegenbauer). These bout the sixth to the eighth month, and may develop in relation to the upper ral segments; more usually they are met with in connexion with the first three, ptionally they may be found only in the upper two. It is by fusion of these posterior arches that the lateral masses which support the innominate bones ed. The costal elements fuse about the second to the fifth year with the neural rior to their union with the centra; and the segments of the lateral masses unite h other sooner than the union of the bodies is effected. The latter only takes ter puberty by the fusion of the epiphysial plates, a pair of which make their ice between the centra of each segment. The lower segments begin to unite about the eighteenth year, but fusion between the first and second sacral verte- t completed till the twenty-fifth year or after. In addition to the foregoing, two ous laminæ are developed in the cartilage covering the outer surface of the alar The upper of these overspreads the auricular surface, whilst the lower forms the ge below. The extremities of the upper spinous processes are occasionally d from independent epiphyses. On making a mesial section of an adult bone stence of the intervertebral discs between the centra is indicated by a series of ties.

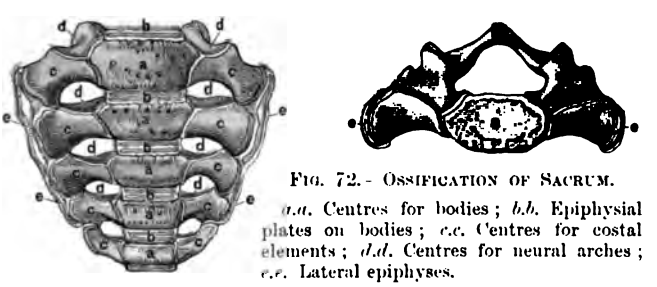


FIG. 72.—OSSIFICATION OF SACRUM.

a.a. Centres for bodies; *b.b.* Epiphysial plates on bodies; *c.c.* Centres for costal elements; *d.d.* Centres for neural arches; *e.e.* Lateral epiphyses.

Coccygeal Vertebræ.—These are cartilaginous at birth. Each has a s centre: the first appears from the first to the fourth year, the second from the s the tenth year, the third and fourth segments at or about puberty. Secondary for the coccygeal cornua and epiphysial plates for the bodies are also described. of the various segments begins below and proceeds upwards, but is liable to gre vidual variation. In advanced life the coccyx is often ossified to the sacrum.

SERIAL HOMOLOGIES OF THE VERTEBRÆ.

It is a self-evident fact that the vertebral column consists of a number of segments brae all possessing some characters in common. These vertebræ or segments undergo modi according to the region they occupy and the functions they are called upon to serve, their correspondence and identity is thereby obscured. There is no difficulty in recogni homology of the bodies and neural arches throughout the column. According anatomists the neural arch is the more primitive element in the formation of a vertebra others hold that the centra are the foundation of the column. Be that as it may, we find the higher vertebrates, at least, the bodies are the parts which most persist. They are, l subject to modifications dependent on their fusion with one another. This occurs in the part of the column where the centrum of the first cervical or atlas vertebra has for fu reasons become fused with the body of the second or axis vertebra to form the odontoid of that segment. For similar reasons, and in association with the union of the girdl hind-limb with the column, the bodies of the vertebræ which correspond to the sacral become fused together to form a solid mass. In the terminal portion of the cauda the centra alone represent the vertebral segments.

As regards the neural arch, this in man becomes deficient in the lower sacral region, an altogether in the lower coccygeal segments. The spinous processes are absent in the ca first cervical, lower sacral, and all the coccygeal vertebræ, and display characteristic di in the cervical, thoracic, and lumbar regions, which have been already described. The processes zygapophyses are secondary developments, and display great diversity of for mined by their functional requirements. It is noteworthy that, in the case of the u cervical vertebræ, they are so disposed as to lie in front of the foramina of exit of th two spinal nerves, and by this arrangement the weight of the head is transmitted to t column formed by the vertebral bodies, and not on to the series of neural arches. regard to the homology of the transverse processes, so called, that most difficulty arises. thoracic region they can best be studied in their simplest form; here the ribs—which Ow regards as a differentiation from the inferior or hæmal arches, in opposition to the view a by others that they are a secondary development from the fibrous intermuscular septa—a with the transverse processes and bodies of the thoracic vertebræ through the agene tubercular diapophysis, and capitular parapophysis processes respectively, the latte placed, strictly speaking, on the neural arch behind the line of the neuro-central synchon

An interval is thus left between the neck of the rib and the front of the transverse this forms an arterial passage which corresponds to the vertebrarterial canal in the tr processes of the cervical vertebræ, the anterior bar of which is homologous with the h tubercle of the thoracic rib, whilst the posterior part lies in series with the thoracic tr process. These homologies are further emphasised by the fact that in the case of the cervical vertebra the anterior limb of the so-called transverse process is developed independent ossific centre, which occasionally persists in an independent form as a cervic

In the lumbar region the external or transverse process is serially homologous w thoracic ribs, though here, owing to the coalescence of the contiguous parts, there is no channel between the rib element and the true transverse process, which is represented accessory processes anapophysis,, placed posteriorly at the root of the so-called tr process of human anatomy. Support is given to this view by the presence of a distin element in connexion with the transverse process of the first lumbar vertebra, which for the occasional formation of a supernumerary rib in this region. The cases of foramin transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ (see p. 83) are also noteworthy as supporting t

In the sacrum the lateral mass of the bone is made up of combined transverse an elements, with only very exceptionally an intervening arterial channel (see p. 86). case of the upper three sacral segments the costal elements are largely developed, supporting the ilia, and are called the true sacral vertebræ; whilst the lower sacral s which are not in contact with the ilia, are referred to as the pseudo-sacral vertebræ.

The anterior arch of the atlas vertebra is, according to Froriep, developed from a hyp strip of cartilage (hypochordal spange).

THE STERNUM.

The **sternum** or **breast bone** occupies the middle of the upper part thoracic wall anteriorly. It is connected laterally with the cartilages of t seven ribs, and supports, superiorly, the clavicles. It consists of three parts, respectively the **manubrium** or **presternum**; the **body** (corpus sterni), **gladi mesosternum**; and the **ensiform** or **xiphoid cartilage** (processus xiphoideus)

rnum. Of these the body is formed by the fusion in early life of four
ts or sternebræ.

manubrium, usually separate throughout life from the rest of the bone, occasionally fused with it, is of a flattened triangular form. The anterior slightly saddle-shaped, affords attachment to the fibres of the pectoralis nd sterno-mastoid muscles. It is bounded above by a thick border, the lateral which are hollowed out obliquely the facets (incisuræ claviculares) sternal ends of the clavicles; the facets, which have an upward, l, and slightly backward direction, ie is faintly lipped. In the in- etween these two facets there is notch (incisura jugularis) which ne floor of the characteristic hollow the root of the neck anteriorly— rasternal notch, or pit of the neck. teral borders are excavated im- ely below the clavicular facets for ception of the cartilages of the s. Below this, the margin of the opes inwards, and is sharp, except ly, where it presents a facet which ts a part of the second costal ge. Around this the bone is usually anteriorly. The upper angles ond to the ridge separating the lar facets from the first costal whilst the lower angle, which e regarded as cut across trans- , forms the surface which is united ilage to the body of the sternum. terior edge of this surface is usually ient. The posterior aspect of the rium is smoother than the anterior, ved by numerous foramina, and htly concave from side to side and downwards. Here are attached of the fibres of the sterno-hyoid erno-thyroid muscles.

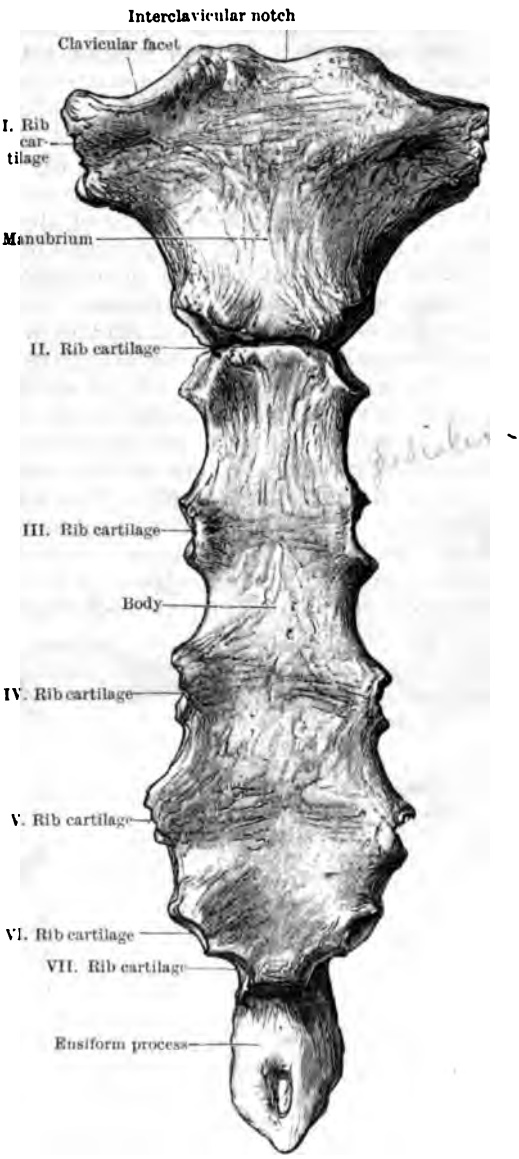


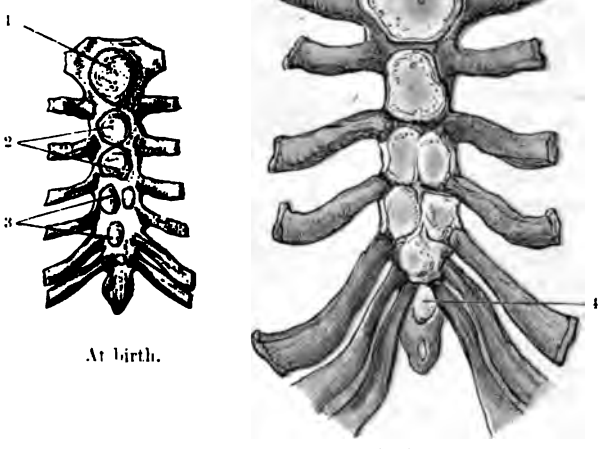
FIG. 73. -THE STERNUM (anterior view).

e **body** (corpus sterni), usually the length and from half to two- the width of the manubrium, dis- evidence of its composite nature. *anterior surface*, which is slightly from above downwards, and faintly e from side to side, be carefully ned, three ill-marked ridges may be rossing it transversely: these cor- d to the lines of fusion between the rimitive segments. To this surface of the bone the great pectoral muscles tensively attached on either side of the middle line. The *lateral borders* are and interrupted at points corresponding to the transverse lines already oned by U-shaped hollows, the edges of which are more or less projecting. are for the reception of the cartilages of the third, fourth, and fifth ribs. *pper border* is united to the manubrium above, and forms with it an angle iable degree—the **sternal angle** (angulus sterni). A small facet is formed at xpense of the outer extremity of this border, and in conjunction with the on the lower edge of the manubrium forms a recess on either side, in line with

the angle, into which the cartilage of the second rib fits. The *lower border* of body is curved, and is united in the middle line with the xiphoid cartilage, whilst either side it is pitted to receive the cartilages of the sixth and seventh ribs, latter being in part supported by the xiphoid cartilage. The middle line of the b of the sternum anteriorly corresponds to the floor of the median surface furrow, wh runs down the front of the chest in the interval between the two great pect muscles. The *posterior surface* is slightly concave from above downwards, a displays faint indications of three transverse lines in correspondence with th placed anteriorly. It is in relation with the pleura and pericardium, and affo attachment at its lower extremity to the triangularis sterni muscle.

The **xiphi-sternum** (processus xiphoideus) displays many varieties of form a structure. It is a pointed process of cartilage, supported by a core of bone c nected above with the lower end of the body of the sternum, and having its lo extremity, to which the linea alba is attached, free. It lies somewhat posterior t the plane of the anterior surface of the manubrium, and forms a floor to the V shaped interval between the cartilages of the seventh ribs. In this way a depressi is formed, the surface hollow in correspondence with which is called the pit of t stomach or **infrasternal depression**. To the sides of this process are attached t aponeuroses of the abdominal muscles, whilst posteriorly the fibres of the diaphrag and triangularis sterni muscles derive attachment from it. It remains part cartilaginous until middle life, at which time it generally undergoes ossificatio particularly at its upper part, which becomes fused with the body. Of vari form, it may be met with of spatula-shape, bifid, circular, pierced in the centre, twisted and deflected to one or other side, or turned forward.

The **sternum as a whole** is broadest above where the first rib cartilages a attached. It becomes narrow opposite the second rib cartilages, but again expand until the level of the fifth rib cartilage is reached, below which it is rapidly reduced in width and ends below in the pointed xiphoid cartilage. Its position in the body is oblique from above downwards and forwards; its axis, if prolonge upwards, would touch the column opposite the third or fourth cervical vertebra. Though liable to changes in position by the rising and falling of the chest wall, its upper extremity corresponds to the level of the lower border of the second dorsal vertebra, whilst the lower end of the xiphoid cartilage usually falls in line with the disc between the tenth and eleventh dorsal vertebræ.



At birth. At 3 years.

FIG. 74. OSSIFICATION OF THE STERNUM.

In this figure the second as well as the third segment of the body possesses two centres.

1. Appears about 5th or sixth month. 2. Appear about 7th month; unite from 20 to 25. 3. Appear about 8th or ninth month; III. segment unites with II. about puberty; IV. segment unites with III. in early childhood. 4. Appears about 3rd year or later.

In women the sternum is usually narrower and shorter than in men, and its position less oblique.

Architecture.—It consists of large-celled spongy bone, which is highly vascular, and is contained between two layers of thin compact tissue.

Ossification.—The cartilaginous sternum, developed from the fusion mesially of two cartilaginous bands uniting the anterior extremities of the cartilages of the first eight ribs, according to the researches of Ruge and more recently of Eggeling, begins to ossify about the sixth month of fœtal life. About this time a single centre appears in the manubrium; at birth this is well developed. Secondary epiphyses have been described in connexion with the clavicular facets; these do not unite with the rest of

rium till adult life is reached. The body formed by the fusion of four segments from independent centres, either single or double, for each segment. These he highest as early as the sixth month of intrauterine life—in some cases even manubrium has begun to ossify (Lambertz), the lowest towards the end of The common arrangement met with at birth is a single centre for the first, centres for each of the succeeding segments. Union between these segments ier irregularly, and is liable to much variation. The fourth unites with the ent in early childhood, the third with the second about puberty, whilst the he second with the first segment may not be complete till the twentieth or 1 year.

phi-sternum usually ossifies from a single centre, which may appear as early as ear, though often very much later. The xiphi-sternum usually unites with the forty or fifty, and in exceptional cases osseous union between the body and 1 may occur in advanced life.

ng to Paterson the presternum is developed in association with the shoulder becomes only secondarily associated with the ventrally growing ribs.

ons.—The sternum is liable to considerable individual variations affecting its length n. The majority of bones are asymmetrical, displaying irregularities in the levels of ar facets. The higher costal facets may be closer together on one, usually the right he other, whilst the pre-mesosternal joint is often oblique, sloping somewhat to the rding to Birmingham, these are the result of the strain thrown on the shoulder by her directly applied or through the pull of a weight carried in the hand.

es the sternum articulates with eight rib cartilages. This may happen on one or but when unilateral, much more frequently on the right side—a condition by some ith right-handedness. It is, however, more probably a persistence of the primitive f the cartilaginous sternum, in which each half is connected with the anterior of the first eight costal arches. In some rare cases only six pairs of ribs articulate f their costal cartilages with the sternum. Recently Lickley has brought forward show that the seventh rib is undergoing regressive changes. (*Anat. Anz.* vol. xxiv.

ally the presternum supports the first three ribs; in other words, the manubrium l the highest segment of the body. Keith has pointed out that this is the condition nly met with in the gibbon, and regards its occurrence in man as a reversion to the . As far as is at present known, its occurrence seems more common in the lower ugh errors of development the sternum may be fissured throughout, due to failure the cartilaginous hemisterna. The two ossified halves are usually widely separated nited together below by an arthrodial joint. The heart and pericardium are thus y the bone. Occasionally this condition is associated with ectopia cordis, under nstances life is rendered impossible. Through defects in ossification the mesosternum rced by a hole, usually in its lower part, or through failure of fusion of the lateral or more of the segments of the body may be divided longitudinally.

ally small ossicles are found in the ligaments of the sterno-clavicular articulation. ie so-called episternal bones, the morphological significance of which, however, has n satisfactorily determined. They are by some regarded as the homologues of the or episternal bone of monotremes.

THE RIBS.

bs (costæ) of which there are twelve pairs, form a series of curved osseous ich support the thoracic wall; posteriorly they articulate with the r dorsal vertebræ, anteriorly each rib is provided with a costal cartilage. seven ribs articulate with the sternum by means of their cartilages, and l the **true** (costæ veræ) or **vertebro-sternal ribs**. The lower five ribs are pported, and are described as the **false ribs** (costæ spuriæ). Of these the inth, and tenth are united by their cartilages to the cartilage of the ib, and are called the **vertebro-chondral ribs**, whilst the last two ribs are eir anterior extremities, and are named the **floating** or **vertebral ribs**.

ical rib consists of a **head** (capitulum costæ), a **neck** (collum costæ), a uberculum costæ), and a **shaft** (corpus costæ), on which, near its posterior **angle** (angulus costæ).

ead, placed on the posterior or vertebral end of the bone, is somewhat Internally its articular surface is wedge-shaped and divided into two upper and lower, by a ridge or crest (crista capituli), to which the inter- ligament is attached. Of these two facets the lower is usually the larger, ulates with the upper facet on the body of the vertebra in numerical lence with it, whilst the upper facet is for the corresponding area on the

lower part of the body of the vertebra above. The head is supported by a or less constricted bar of bone, the **neck**. This becomes continuous with the externally, at which point there is a well-marked tubercle on its posterior su The anterior surface of the neck is smooth; its posterior aspect is rough pierced by numerous small holes for vessels. Here is attached the middle costo-transverse ligament. Not uncommonly the upper border of the neck is lipped and ridged (crista colli costæ), and affords attachment to the anterior costo-transverse ligament.

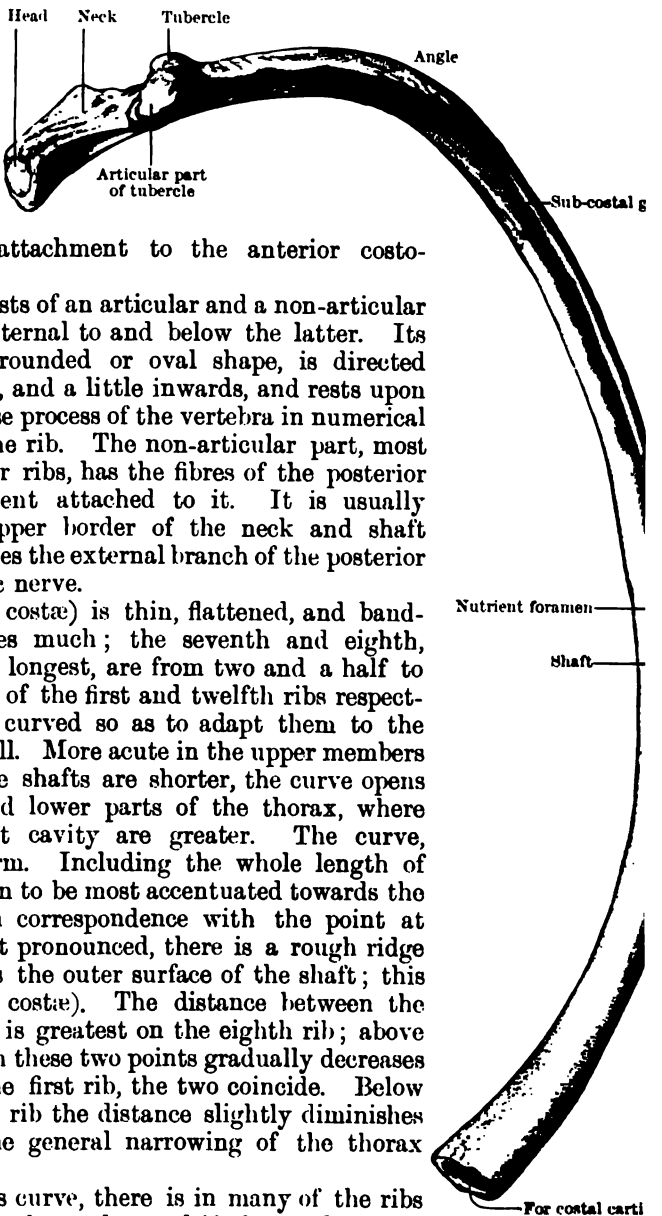


FIG. 75.—FIFTH RIGHT AS SEEN FROM BEL

The **tubercle** consists of an articular and a non-articular part; the former is internal to and below the latter. Its articular surface, of rounded or oval shape, is directed downwards, backwards, and a little inwards, and rests upon a facet on the transverse process of the vertebra in numerical correspondence with the rib. The non-articular part, most prominent in the upper ribs, has the fibres of the posterior costo-transverse ligament attached to it. It is usually separated from the upper border of the neck and shaft by a groove, in which lies the external branch of the posterior division of the thoracic nerve.

The **shaft** (corpus costæ) is thin, flattened, and band-like. Its length varies much; the seventh and eighth, which are usually the longest, are from two and a half to three times the length of the first and twelfth ribs respectively. The shafts are curved so as to adapt them to the form of the thoracic wall. More acute in the upper members of the series, where the shafts are shorter, the curve opens out in the middle and lower parts of the thorax, where the diameters of that cavity are greater. The curve, however, is not uniform. Including the whole length of the bone, it will be seen to be most accentuated towards the hinder part, where, in correspondence with the point at which the bend is most pronounced, there is a rough ridge placed obliquely across the outer surface of the shaft; this is the **angle** (angulus costæ). The distance between the angle and the tubercle is greatest on the eighth rib; above that, the width between these two points gradually decreases until, in the case of the first rib, the two coincide. Below the level of the eighth rib the distance slightly diminishes in conformity with the general narrowing of the thorax below that level.

Combined with this curve, there is in many of the ribs a twist. This may best be understood if the student will take a strip of stiff paper and bend it in the form of the curve of the rib. If, after he has done this, he pulls down the fore end and turns up the hind end of the strip, he will have imparted t strip of paper a twist similar to that met with in the rib. This appearan best seen in the middle members of the series, notably in the seventh and e ribs, above and below which it gradually becomes less marked. It is the occur of this twist which prevents the extremities of the ribs, together with the from resting on the same plane surface. To this rule there are certain no exceptions, viz. the first and second, the twelfth, and not infrequently the elev

The shaft has two surfaces, an internal and an external, and two bord

r and an inferior. The external surface, which is smooth, conforms to the vertical convexity of the thorax, being directed upwards in the first rib, s and outwards in her ribs, outwards in ddle series, and out- and slightly down- in the tenth, eleventh, elfth. The internal s are arranged con- and are covered by ietal pleura. Towards rnal end of the middle here the downward s most marked, there n an oblique line across ter surface. This is mes referred to as the anterior angle. The upper border of the shaft is thick unded behind, thinner and sharper in front; to it are attached the fibres of ternal and external intercostal muscles. The lower border is grooved behind expense of the inner surface, and is overhung externally by a sharp margin. iorly this **subcostal groove** (sulcus costalis) fades away, and its lips coalesce to form a rounded edge. The intercostal vessels and nerve are lodged in this groove, whilst its lips afford attachment to the external and internal intercostal muscles respectively. On the floor of the groove may also be seen the openings of the canals for the transmission of the nutrient vessels, which are directed towards the vertebral end of the rib.

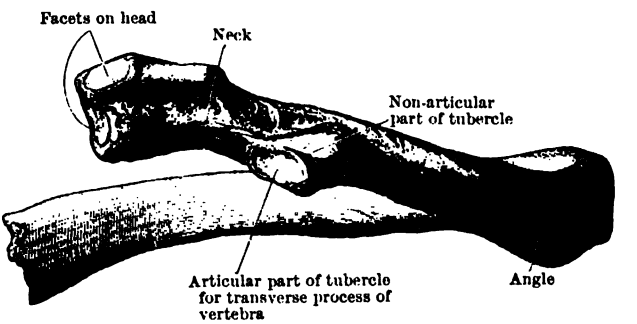


FIG. 76.—FIFTH RIGHT RIB AS SEEN FROM BEHIND.

The anterior or sternal extremity of the shaft, often slightly enlarged, displays an elongated oval pit into which the costal cartilage is sunk.

Peculiar Ribs.—The first, second, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth ribs all display characters by which they can be readily recognised.

. 77.—FIRST AND SECOND RIGHT RIBS AS SEEN FROM ABOVE.

The **first rib** can be easily distinguished from the others by its size, curvature, and flattened form. The **head**, which is of small size, has a single oval or circular facet, which is directed inwards and slightly backwards for articulation with the side of the body of the first thoracic vertebra. The **neck** is flattened from above downwards, and is slightly down-turned towards the end which supports the head. Its anterior border is rounded mooth; its posterior edge rough for the attachment of ligaments. At the where the neck joins the shaft posteriorly, a prominent **tubercle** curves rds and backwards. The inner and under surface of this process has a small ar facet which rests on a corresponding articular surface on the transverse s of the first thoracic vertebra. The **angle** coincides with the tubercle, and assists in emphasising its prominence. The surfaces of the body of the rib irected upwards and downwards, its borders inwards and outwards. If the be run along the thin inner border, a distinct spine or tubercle can be readily

felt about an inch or an inch and a quarter from its anterior extremity. Th is the **scalene tubercle** (tuberculum scaleni) for the attachment of the scalen anticus muscle. There is a shallow, oblique groove crossing the upper surfa of the shaft in front of this for the lodgment of the subclavian vein; whilst behi the tubercle there is another groove, usually better marked, and passing obliqu forwards for the subclavian artery (sulcus subclaviæ). The space on the upp surface of the rib between this latter groove and the tubercle posteriorly is som what rough, and affords attachment to the fibres of the scalenus medius musc The anterior extremity of the rib is thickened and often expanded for the receptio of its costal cartilage, which is not infrequently ossified. The under surface of th rib is smooth and is covered by pleura. The outer convex border, thin in fron is usually thick and rough behind the subclavian groove, where it has attached t it the fibres of the first digitation of the serratus magnus. Along this edge, al are attached the external and internal intercostal muscles of the first intercost space. The inner concave border is thin, and has connected with it the aponeuroti expansion known as Sibson's fascia.

The **second rib** may be distinguished by the size of its curve; the absence any twist on its shaft, so that it can be laid flat on the table; the oblique directio of the surfaces of its shaft, the outer being directed upwards and outwards, whil the inner is turned downwards and inwards; and the presence of a well-marke rough, oval area about the middle of its outer surface and lower border for pa of the first, and the whole of the second digitation of the serratus magnus musc The head has two facets, and the angle is close to the tubercle posteriorly.

The **tenth rib** has usually only a single articular facet on the head, and may may not have a facet on the tubercle.

The **eleventh** and **twelfth ribs** are recognised by their length. Their head usually large in proportion to their shafts, support a single facet for articulatio with the eleventh and twelfth dorsal vertebræ respectively. The tubercles are ill developed and have no articular facets. The angle is faintly marked on th eleventh, scarcely perceptible on the twelfth. Their anterior extremities are narro and pointed and tipped with cartilage. The subcostal groove is absent in th twelfth, and but slightly seen in the eleventh. The twelfth is considerably short than the eleventh rib.

Architecture.—Each rib consists of a curved and flattened bar of bone, the interior of whic is loose and cancellous, whilst the investing envelope is compact. The inner table is much th stronger, attaining its maximum thickness opposite the angle—in front and behind which becomes gradually reduced. The outer table, much thinner, is stoutest opposite the angle; o the posterior surface of the tubercle and neck it forms but a thin layer. The compact laye forming the upper and lower borders are not so thick as those forming the inner and out surfaces. The cancellous tissue, loose and open in the shaft, is most compact in the region of th head and towards the anterior extremity.

Variations.—The **number of ribs** may be increased or diminished. Increase may occur b the addition of a cervical rib due to the independent development of the costal element in th transverse process of the seventh cervical vertebra. This may happen on one or both sides. Th range of development of these cervical ribs varies; they may unite in front with the sternu or they may be fused anteriorly with the cartilage of the first rib, or the cervical rib may l free. It may in some instances be represented mainly by a ligamentous band, or its vertebr and sternal ends may be alone developed, the intermediate part being fibrous. At times th vertebral end only may be formed and may be fused with the first rib, thus leading to th formation of a bicipital rib such as occurs in many cetaceans. Increase in the number of rib may also be due to the ossification of the costal element which is normally present in the embry in connexion with the first lumbar vertebra. (Rosenberg, *Morph. Jahrb.* i.) Reduction in th number of ribs is less common. The twelfth rib rarely aborts; in some cases the first rib rudimentary. Cases of congenital absence of some of the ribs have been recorded by Hutchinso Murray, and Ludeke.

Fusion of adjacent ribs may occur. (Lane, *Guy's Hosp. Reports*, 1883.)

Variations in form may be in great part due to the occupation of the individual and the co stricting influence of corsets. Independently of these influences, the fore part of the shaft sometimes cleft so as to appear double; at other times the cleft may be incomplete so as to for a perforation. Occasionally adjacent ribs are united towards their posterior part by process having an intermediate ossicle between (Meckel), thus recalling the condition normally met wit in birds; more usually, however, the bony projections are not in contact.

The number of true or vertebro-sternal ribs may be reduced to six, or increased to eight (s *ante*, p. 97).

Ossification.—Ossification begins in the cartilaginous ribs about the sixth week, and rapidly extends along the shaft, so that by the end of the third month it has reached the permanent costal cartilage. The sixth and seventh ribs are the earliest to ossify; the first rib being the last (Lambertz). At puberty, or before, secondary centres appear. Of these there are three—an epiphysis for the articular surface of the tubercle, one for the non-articular part of the same process, and one for the head. By the twenty-fifth year fusion between these and the shaft is complete.

THE COSTAL CARTILAGES.

The **costal cartilages**, of which there are twelve pairs, are bars of hyaline cartilage united to the anterior extremities of the ribs, into which they are recessed and held in position by the periosteum. Through these cartilages the first seven ribs are connected directly with the sternum by means of synovial joints corresponding to the notches along the margins of the breast bone. To this there is an exception in the case of the first rib, the cartilage of which is directly blended with the manubrium sterni. The eighth, ninth, and tenth are connected indirectly with the sternum by their union with each other, and their articulation, through the medium of the eighth, with the seventh rib cartilage, whilst the eleventh and twelfth cartilages tip the ribs to which they belong, and lie free in the muscles of the flank. The costal cartilages increase in length from the first to the seventh, below which they become shorter. The first inclines obliquely downwards and inwards to unite with the upper angles of the manubrium. The second lies more or less horizontally. The third to the seventh gradually become more and more curved, inclining downward from the extremities of their respective ribs, and then turning upwards to reach the sternum. The tenth cartilage articulates by means of a synovial joint with the ninth, the ninth with the eighth, and the eighth with the seventh. There are also surfaces for the articulation of the seventh with the sixth, and sometimes for the sixth with the fifth.

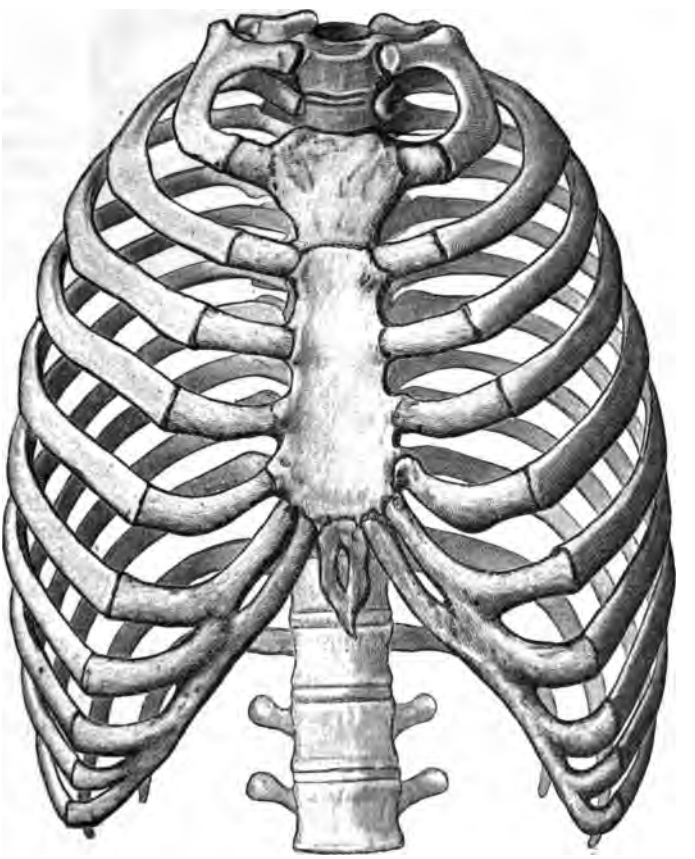


Fig. 78.—The Thorax as seen from the Front.

Variations. — Occasionally a costal cartilage is unduly broad, and may be pierced by a foramen. The number of costal cartilages connected with the sternum may be reduced to six or increased to eight (see p. 97). In advanced life there is a tendency towards ossification in the layers underlying the perichondrium, more particularly in the case of the first rib cartilage, in which it may be regarded as a more or less normal occurrence.

THE THORAX AS A WHOLE.

The bony and cartilaginous thorax is barrel-shaped, being narrower above than below, and compressed from before backwards. Its posterior wall is longer than its

anterior, and its transverse width, which reaches its maximum opposite the
or ninth rib, is much in excess of its sagittal diameter. This is largely
to the forward projection of the thoracic part of the vertebral column in
thoracic cavity.

The **anterior wall** is formed by the ribs and rib cartilages, togethe
the sternum. The **posterior wall** comprises the thoracic part of the vertebral c
and the ribs as far as
angles. Owing to the
ward curve of the rib
the projection forwards
vertebral bodies, the a
posterior diameter o
thoracic cavity is consid
greater on either side
middle line than in the
plane, thus allowing f
lodgment of the rounde
terior borders of the
For the same reason the
on either side of the s
processes of the thoracic
bræ is converted into a
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floor of which is in part
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are each occupied by the
mass of the erector
muscle.

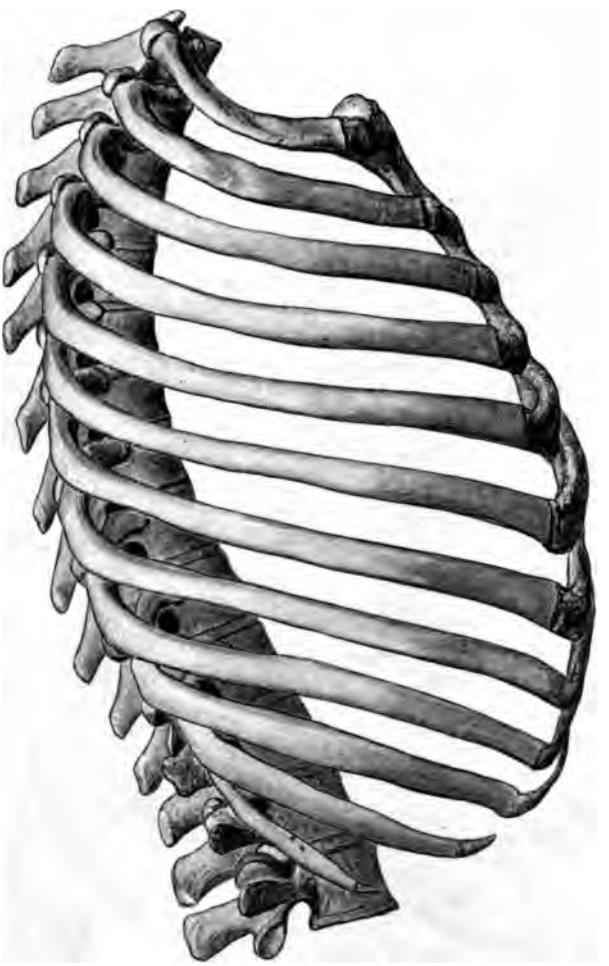


Fig. 79.—The Thorax as seen from the Right Side.

The **lateral walls** are
by the costal arches. Th
which run obliquely
above downwards and fo
do not lie parallel to
other, but spread somew
that the intervals be
them (intercostal space
wider in front than behi

The **superior apert**
inlet formed by the b
the first thoracic vertel
hind, the arches of th
rib on either side, an
upper border of the manubrium sterni in front, is contracted and of reniform
The plane of the inlet is oblique from behind downwards and forwards, so t
expiration the upper border of the sternum lies on a level with the disc be
the second and third thoracic vertebræ.

The **lower aperture**, of large size, is bounded in the middle line behind
twelfth thoracic vertebra; passing thence the twelfth ribs slope outwards,
wards, and forwards. From these a line carried horizontally forwards from
tips touches the end of the eleventh rib, and then curving slightly upward
the cartilage of the tenth rib. Here it follows the confluent margins of th
tilages of the tenth, ninth, eighth, and seventh ribs, finally reaching the x
cartilage, where it forms with the costal margin of the opposite side the sub
angle, the summit of which coincides with the xiphi-sternal articulatio
expiration this joint usually lies on a level with the intervertebral disc be
the ninth and tenth thoracic vertebræ, and corresponds with the surface depr
familiarly known as the pit of the stomach. The inferior aperture of the tho
occupied by the vault of the diaphragm.

In the fœtal condition the form of the thorax differs from that of the adult. It is laterally compressed—in this respect resembling the simian type. Its antero-posterior diameter is relatively greater than in the adult. At birth changes in form take place dependent on the expansion of the lungs; during subsequent growth, the further expansion of the thoracic cavity in a transverse direction is correlated with the assumption of the erect posture, and the use of the fore-limbs as prehensile organs.

Sexual Differences.—The thorax of the female is usually described as being proportionately shorter and rounder than the male. It also tends to narrowness in the lower segment. It is hardly necessary to point out that the natural form is often modified by the use of tight or ill-fitting corsets.

THE BONES OF THE SKULL (Ossa Cranii).

The term skull (cranium) is commonly employed to signify the entire skeleton of the head. This comprises the bony envelope which surrounds the brain (cranium cerebrale), and the osseous structures which support the face (cranium viscerale, ossa faciei).

In catalogues of craniological collections the terms used are as follows:—
Skull = entire skeleton of head, including the mandible.
Cranium = the skull, minus the mandible.
Calvaria = that part of the skull which remains after the bones of the face have been removed or destroyed.

The cranium cerebrale is composed of the **occipital** (os occipitale), the **sphenoid** (os sphenoidale), the **ethmoid** (os ethmoidale), and the **frontal** (os frontale), the two **parietals** (ossa parietalia), and the two **temporals** (ossa temporalia)—eight bones in all.

The bones of the face (cranium viscerale, ossa faciei) include the following:—Two single, viz. the **vomer** (vomer), and the **inferior maxilla** or **mandible** (mandibula), and twelve bones, arranged in pairs, viz. the **superior maxillary** (maxillæ), **malar** (ossa zygomatica), **palate** (ossa palatina), together with the **lachrymal** (ossa lacrymalia), **nasal** (ossa nasalia), and **inferior turbinated** (conchæ inferiores)—fourteen bones in all.

According to the scheme of international nomenclature, the inferior turbinals, the lachrymals, the nasals, and the vomer are included under the cranium cerebrale, and not with the cranium viscerale.

The hyoid bone is usually described along with the skull. If, in addition, the bones of the middle ear, three on each side (malleus, incus, and stapes), be included, the skeleton of the head consists of twenty-nine bones.

The separate bones will first be described, and then the skull will be considered as a whole and in section.

THE SEPARATE BONES OF THE SKULL.

The Frontal Bone.

The **frontal bone** (os frontale), situated in the fore part of the cranium, is a single bone formed by the fusion in early life of two symmetrical halves. It consists of a **frontal part**, which corresponds to the region of the forehead; an **orbital part**, which enters in the structure of the roof of the orbits; and a **nasal part**, which assists in forming the roof of the nasal fossæ.

The **frontal part** (pars frontalis) is the shell-like portion of the bone which rises upwards above the orbital arches. Its external surface is rounded from side to side and from above downwards. This convexity is most pronounced about 1¼ inches above the orbital margins on either side of the middle line, constituting what are known as the **frontal eminences** (tubera frontalia). These mark the original sites of the centres from which the bone ossifies. The lower margin of this part is formed on either side of the middle line by the curved **orbital margins** (margines supraorbitales), the outer and inner extremities of which constitute the **external and internal angular processes** respectively. The latter descend to a lower level than the former, and articulate with the lachrymal

bones, being separated from each other by a rough articulate surface—the **notch** for the nasal and superior maxillary bones. The curve of the c margin varies in different individuals and races; towards its inner third crossed by a groove, not unfrequently converted into a foramen—the **supra notch** or **foramen** (incisura sive foramen supraorbitalis). Through this ther the supraorbital nerve and artery. Above the supraorbital margin the cha of the bone displays marked differences in the two sexes: in the male, abo interval between the two internal angular processes, there is usually a well-m prominence, called the **glabella**, from this the fulness extends outwards abo orbital margin, varying in degree and extent, and forming the elevations kno the **supraorbital** or **superciliary ridges** (arcus superciliares). The prominer these naturally reacts on the character of the supraorbital margins, which are t and more rounded in the male than in the female. Passing upwards over the gl the remains of the suture which originally separated the two halves of the fronta can usually be seen; above this point all trace of the suture is generally oblite

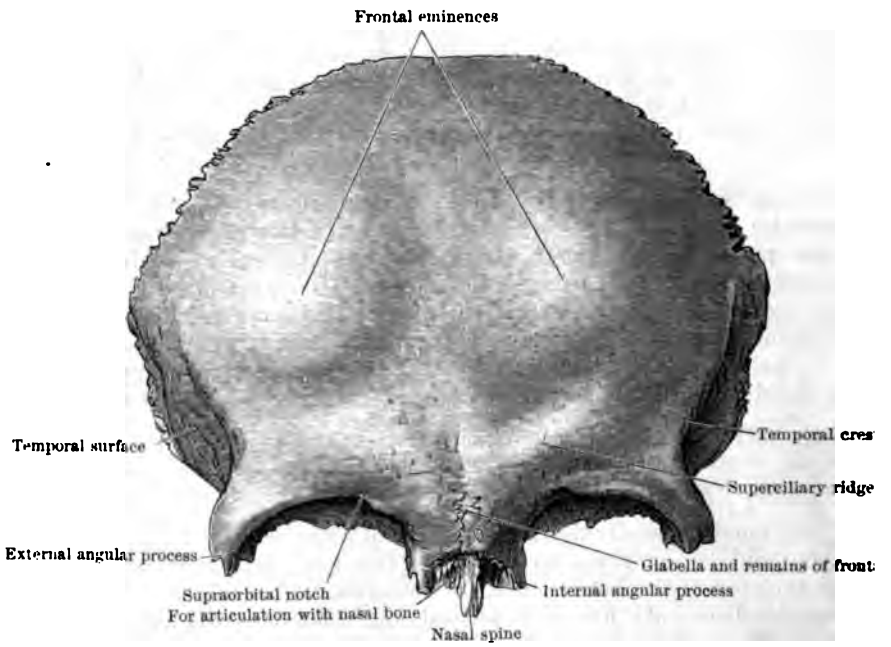


FIG. 80.—FRONTAL BONE (Anterior View).

Extending upwards from the external angular process is a well-marked which curves upwards and slightly inwards, then turning backwards it a across the lateral aspect of the bone. This is the **temporal ridge** or **crest** (lines poralis), which serves to separate the anterior surface of the **frontal portion** bone from its temporal aspect. The latter (facies temporalis) forms the **floor** upper and anterior part of the temporal fossa, and serves for the **attachment** temporal muscle.

The **orbital part** of the bone (pars orbitalis) consists of two **transversely-c** plates, each having the form of a sextant; their inner edges, which are **cellul** parallel to each other, and are separated in their posterior half by the **eth notch** (incisura ethmoidalis), in which the ethmoid bone is lodged. The ed the notch on either side are grooved in front and behind by the **anterior and po ethmoidal foramina**, which are completed when the ethmoid is *in situ*. The an transmits the internal branch of the nasal nerve and the anterior ethmoidal v the posterior, the posterior ethmoidal vessels. In front of the **ethmoidal notch** nasal notch, from the centre of which the **nasal process** projects downwards an wards to terminate in the **nasal spine** (spina nasalis), which lies between, and a lates with the nasal bones and perpendicular plate of the **ethmoid**. On eithe

the root of this process the bone is grooved obliquely from above downwards and rwards, and enters into the formation of the narrow roof (pars nasalis) of the al fossæ. Anteriorly the nasal notch is limited by a rough U-shaped articular face, the median part of which articulates with the nasal bones, whilst on either e the nasal processes of the superior maxillæ are united with it. Behind this, id the broken cells, the passages leading into the frontal sinuses are readily inguished, and here the inner edges of the orbital plates articulate with the rymal bones.

The orbital plate is thin and brittle. In front it is bounded by the superior tal margin, just within which, midway between the internal angular process the supraorbital notch there is a small shallow depression (fovea trochlearis), n displaying a spicule of bone arising from its edge (spina trochlearis), which rds attachment to the pulley of the superior oblique muscle of the eyeball. ernally the orbital plate is overhung by the orbital margin and the external ular process, and in the hollow so produced (fossa glandulæ lachrymalis) the rymal gland is lodged. The extremity of the **external angular process** (pro- is zygomaticus) articulates with the frontal process of the malar bone. Behind

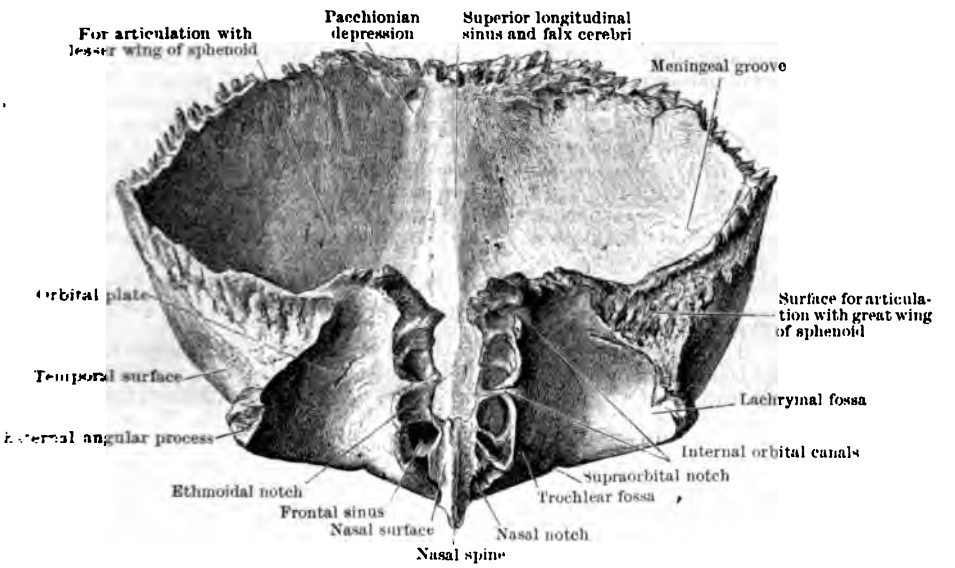


Fig. 81. -Frontal Bone as seen from Below.

the irregular edge of the orbital plate is united with the great wing of the noid by a triangular area, which also extends on to the inferior aspect of temporal surface of the frontal bone. The apex of the orbital plate, for the e of about half an inch, articulates with the lesser wing of the sphenoid.

The *cerebral surface* of the bone forms a fossa in which lie the fore and under s of the frontal lobes of the cerebrum, the convolutions of which impress their n on the inner aspect of the bone. Here, too, on either side of the middle line, be seen depressions for the lodgment of Pacchionian bodies. Descending from centre of the upper margin of the bone is a vertical groove, the **frontal sulcus**; rowing below, this ends in a ridge—the **frontal crest**—which nearly reached fore part of the ethmoidal notch, where it terminates in a small orifice, the men cæcum, placed usually in the suture between the fore part of the ethmois the frontal. This foramen may, or may not, transmit a small vein from the to the commencement of the superior longitudinal sinus. This sinus, which nterposed between the layers of the falx cerebri, is at first attached to the ital crest, but subsequently occupies the frontal sulcus. Deeply concave from to side and from above downwards, the lateral aspects of the fossa are seen to traversed by small grooves for the anterior branches of the middle meningeal ries. Below, the orbital plates bulge into the floor of the fossa, so that the

ethmoidal notch appears recessed between them. On either side of the notcl grooves for the meningeal branches of the ethmoidal vessels may be seen. circumference of the fossa is formed by the serrated edges of the bone articulate with the parietals above, and on either side below with the grea lesser wings of the sphenoid.

Connexions.—The frontal articulates with twelve bones, viz. posteriorly with the p and sphenoid; externally with the malars; inferiorly and internally with the nasals, s maxillæ, lachrymals, and ethmoid.

Architecture.—The frontal bone is composed, like the other bones of the cranial v two layers of compact tissue, enclosing between them a layer of spongy cancellous textu diploe. In certain definite situations, owing to the absorption of this intermediate la bone is hollow, forming the **frontal air sinuses**. The position and extent of these is t extent indicated by the degree of projection of the superciliary ridges, though this must taken as an absolutely reliable guide, for cases are recorded where the ridges were low a sinuses large, and *vice versa*. Of much surgical importance, these air-spaces only attain th development after the age of puberty, being of larger size in the male than in the fe circumstance which accounts for the more vertical appearance of the forehead in woman trasted with man. Usually two in number, they are placed one on either side of the line, and communicate by means of the infundibulum with the nasal fossa of the san It is exceptional to find the sinuses of opposite sides in communication with each other, are generally separated by a complete partition which, however, is occasionally much d to one or other side. Logan Turner ("On the Illumination of the Air Sinuses of the Skul some Observations upon the Surgical Anatomy of the Frontal Sinus," *Edin. Med. Jour.*, Ma gives the average dimensions of these sinuses as follows:—Height, 31 mm., *i.e.* from the nasal aperture upwards; breadth, 30 mm., *i.e.* from the septum horizontally outwards; de mm., from the anterior wall at the level of fronto-nasal suture backwards along the orbit Exceptionally large sinuses are sometimes met with extending backwards over the orbit form a double roof to that space. There is a specimen in the Oxford collection in wh sinus is so large, and extends so far back, that the optic nerve is carried through it in tube. Another point of some practical importance is that the sinuses are hardly eve metrical. It is rare to meet with cases of their complete absence, although sometimes th on one or other side may be wanting.

The external angular process, from the arrangement of its surfaces and the density structure, is particularly well adapted to resist the pressure to which it is subjected wh jaws are firmly closed.

Variations.—That most frequently met with is a persistence of the suture which uni two halves of the bone in the infantile condition: skulls displaying this peculiarity are **metopic**. The researches of various observers—Broca, Ranke, Gruber, Manouvrier, Anou and Papillault (*Rev. mens. de l'école d'Anthropol. de Paris*, année 6, n. 3)—point to th frequent occurrence of this metopic suture in the higher than in the lower races of ma Calmette asserts its greater frequence in the brachycephalic than the dolichocephalic Separate ossicles (Wormian bones) may occur in the region of the anterior fontanelle. The of these with one or other half of the frontal explains how the metopic suture is not alw line with the sagittal suture (Stieda, *Anat. Anz.* 1 227); they occasionally persist, however, and f their coalescence a bregmatic bone (G. Zoja, *Scientifico*, xvii. p. 76, Pavia). Turner (*Challenger* part xxix.) records an instance of direct articula the frontal with the orbital plate of the superior r in a Bush skull, and other examples of the same an which obtains normally in the skulls of the chim and gorilla, have been observed (*Jour. Anat. and* vol. xxiv. p. 349).

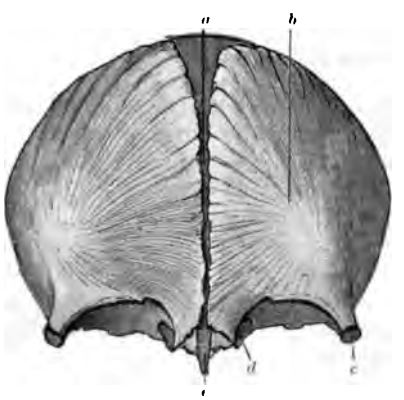


FIG. 82.—OSSIFICATION OF FRONTAL BONE.

a, Metopic suture still open. *b*, Position of primary centre. *c*, Centre for external angular process. *d*, Centre for region of trochlea. *e*, Centres for nasal spine.

Schwalbe (1901) records the presence of smal pendent ossicles (supranasal bones) in the anteri of the metopic suture. The same anatomist h recently directed attention (*Zeit. f. Morph. und* vol. iii. p. 93) to the existence of the metopic fon first described by Gerdy, and the occurrence of r ossicles (ossa interfrontalia) and canals.

Ossification.—Ossification begins in men from two centres, which appear about the si seventh week, one on either side immediately the orbital margin. From these the two ha the frontal part of the bone are developed, a extension inwards and backwards from their part the orbital plates are also formed. Serres, Rambaud, and Renault and v. I describe the occurrence of three pairs of secondary centres somewhat later: on for the nasal spine on either side of the foramen cæcum; a centre on either s

correspondence with the position of each trochlear fossa; and a centre for each external angular process. Fusion between these secondary and the primary centres is usually complete about the sixth or seventh month of fœtal life. At birth the two symmetrical halves of the bone are separated by the metopic suture, obliteration of which gradually takes place, so that about the fifth or sixth year it is more or less completely closed, traces only of the suture being left above and below. In about eight per cent of Europeans, however, the suture persists in the adult (see *ante*). At birth the supraorbital notches lie near the middle of the supraorbital arches.

Traces of the frontal sinuses may be met with about the second year, but it is only about the age of seven that they can be definitely recognised. From that time they increase in size till the age of puberty, subsequent to which time they attain their maximum development.

The Parietal Bones.

The **parietal bones** (ossa parietalia), two in number, are placed on either side of the vault of the cranium, articulating with the frontal anteriorly, the occipital

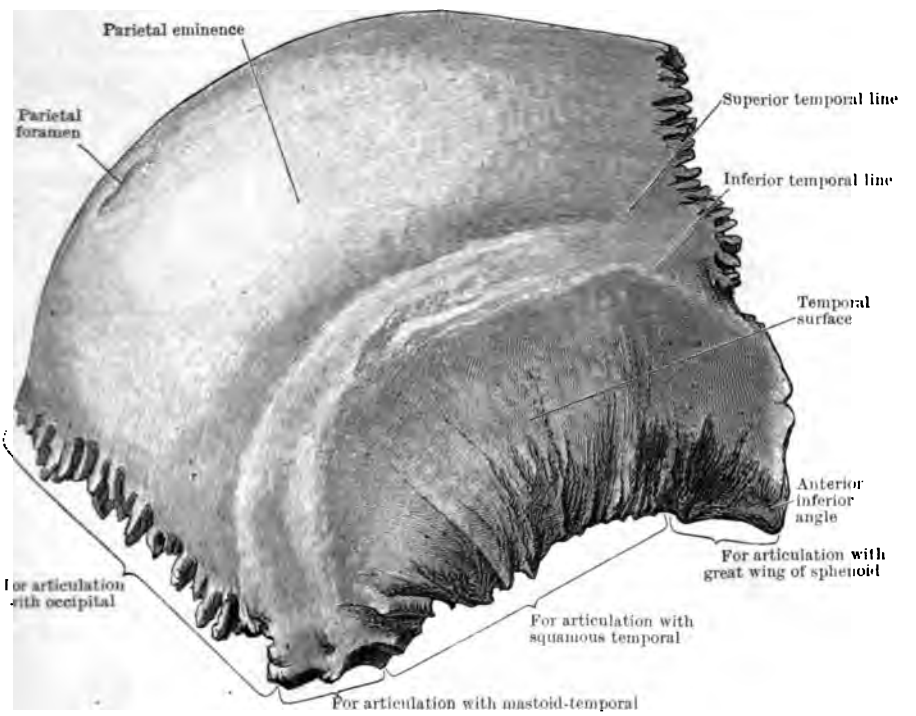


Fig. 83.—Right Parietal Bone (Outer Side).

posteriorly, and the temporals and sphenoid inferiorly. Each bone possesses an external and internal surface, four borders, and four angles.

The *external surface*, convex from above downwards and from before backwards, displays towards its centre a more or less pronounced elevation, the **parietal eminence** (tuber parietale). This marks the position of the primitive ossific centre, and not unfrequently corresponds to the point of maximum width of the head. At a variable distance from the lower border of the bone, and more or less parallel to it, two curved lines can usually be distinguished; these together constitute the **temporal crest**. The **superior temporal line** (linea temporalis superior) serves for the attachment of the temporal fascia; the **inferior temporal line** (linea temporalis inferior) defines the attachment of the temporal muscle, the extent and development of which necessarily determines the position of the crest. The surface below the crest enters into the formation of the floor of the **temporal fossa**, and is called the **planum temporale**; it also affords origin to the temporal muscle, and is often faintly marked by grooves which indicate the course of the middle temporal artery.

Above the superior temporal line the bone is covered only by the tissues of the scalp. Near its upper border, and about an inch from its posterior superior angle, is the small **parietal foramen** (foramen parietale), through which pass a small arteriole and an emissary vein.

The *inner* or *cerebral aspect* is concave from side to side and from above downwards, moulded over the surface of portions of the frontal, parietal, occipital, and temporal lobes of the cerebrum, it displays impressions corresponding to the arrangement of the convolutions of these portions of the brain. It also presents a series of well-marked grooves for the lodgment of the branches of the middle meningeal artery; these radiate from the anterior inferior angle of the bone, the best marked running upwards at some little distance behind and parallel to its anterior border. Within the upper margin are a series of depressions for Pacchionian bodies, and here also the bone is channelled so as to form a groove (sulcus sagittalis), which is completed by articulation with its fellow of the opposite side. Within

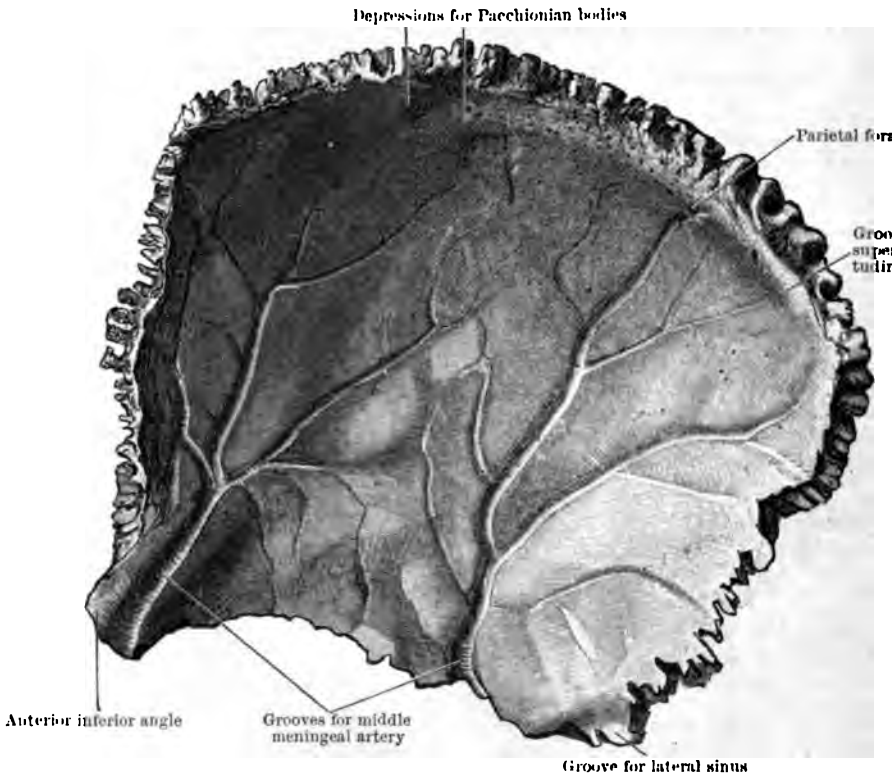


FIG. 84.—RIGHT PARIETAL BONE (Inner Surface).

this groove lies the superior longitudinal venous sinus, and to its edges the falx cerebri is attached. Close to the inferior posterior angle there is also a curved groove, the lateral sulcus, in which the lateral venous sinus is lodged.

The *anterior*, *superior*, and *posterior borders* are deeply serrated. The anterior articulates with the frontal bone, and constitutes the coronal suture; the posterior is united with the occipital bone, and forms the lambdoid suture. The superior border articulates with its fellow of the opposite side by means of the sagittal suture; in the interval between the two parietal foramina this suture is usually simple in its outline. The *anterior superior angle* (angulus frontalis) is almost rectangular, and corresponds to the site of the anterior fontanelle. The *posterior superior angle* (angulus occipitalis), usually more or less rounded, corresponds in position to the posterior fontanelle. The *inferior border* is curved, and shorter than the others; it lies between the anterior and posterior inferior angles. Sharp and bevelled at the expense of its outer table, it displays a fluted arrangement, and articulates with the squamous part of the temporal bone. The *anterior inferior angle* (angulus

oidalis), pointed and prominent, articulates with the great wing of the oid. It is wedged into the angle formed by the union of that bone with the d, and is bevelled at the expense of its inner table anteriorly, whilst inferiorly hinned at the expense of its outer table. The *posterior inferior angle* (angulus ideus) is a truncated angle lying between the inferior and posterior borders. deeply serrated, and articulates with the mastoid process of the temporal bone. nfrequently there is a channel in this suture which transmits an emissary vein.

nnexions.—The parietal bone articulates with its fellow, with the frontal, occipital, id and squamous temporal, and with the sphenoid. Occasionally the inferior angle may ach the great wing of the sphenoid, being separated from it by the articulation of the ous temporal with the frontal (see also p. 119).

chitecture.—Thin towards its lower part, where it enters into the formation of the al fossa, it is thickest along the superior border and in the neighbourhood of the posterior or angle.

riations.—A number of cases have been recorded in which the parietal is divided into an and lower part by an antero-posterior suture parallel to the sagittal suture. Coraini . *XI. Congr. Med. Internaz. Roma*, 1894, vol. v.) records a case in which the parietal was intely divided into an anterior and posterior part by a vertical suture. The parietal ia vary greatly in size, and to some extent in position. They are sometimes absent on one r side, or both. They correspond in position to the sagittal fontanelle. Sometimes the ion of this fontanelle is incomplete and a small transverse fissure remains. The parietal i represents the patent external extremity of this fissure after its edges have coalesced. nally in the region of the anterior fontanelle an ossicle of variable size may be met with. the so-called prae-interparietal bone. According to its fusion with adjacent bones it turb the direction of the sagittal suture.

sification.—Ossification takes place in membrane by the deposition of earthy the centre for which, most probably formed by the coalescence of two nuclei, over the parietal eminence about the sixth or seventh week of fœtal life; from this ds in a radial manner towards the edges of the bone, where, however, the mem- condition still for some time persists constituting the fontanelles. These corren position to the angles of the bone. Ossification is also somewhat delayed in ion of the parietal foramina, constituting what is known as the sagittal fontanelle, ranous interval which is not unfrequently apparent even at birth.

The Occipital Bone.

e **occipital bone** (os occipitale), placed at the back and lower part of the m, consists of three parts, arranged around a large oval hole, called the al foramen or foramen magnum. The expanded curved plate behind the n is the **tabular** or **squamous part**. The thick rod-like portion in front of the n is the **basilar process**. On either side the foramen is bounded by the . or **condylic portions**.

e **tabular** or **squamous part** (squama occipitalis) in shape somewhat resembles hic arch, and is curved from side to side and from above downwards. It forms rly a small portion of the middle of the posterior boundary of the foramen um, and unites on either side of that with the lateral parts of the bone. About ntre of the *external surface* of the squama there is a prominence—the **external al protuberance** (protuberantia occipitalis externa), which varies considerably distinctness and projection, and serves for the attachment of the ligamentum e. From the protuberance on either side two lines curve out towards ternal angles of the bone. These are known respectively as the **highest** and **or curved lines** (linea nuchæ suprema and linea nuchæ superior). To the of these the epicranial aponeurosis is attached, whilst the lower serves for rigin of the trapezius and occipitalis muscles and the insertion of the sterno- id and splenius capitis muscles. The two lines together serve to divide the nal surface of the tabular part into an upper or **occipital portion** (planum itale), covered by the hairy scalp and a lower or **nuchal part** (planum nuchale) ng for the attachment of the fleshy muscles of the back of the neck. As a rule cipital part bulges backwards beyond the external occipital protuberance; tionally, however, the latter process is the most outstanding part of the bone. he **nuchal plane**, irregular and rough, is divided into two lateral halves by a n ridge—the **external occipital crest** (linea nuchæ mediana), which stretches

from the external occipital protuberance above to the posterior border of the foram magnum below. Crossing the nuchal plane transversely, about its middle, is t **inferior curved line** (linea nuchæ inferior), which passes outwards and forwards either side towards the lateral margins of the bone. The areas thus marked o serve for the attachment of the complexus, obliquus superior, and rectus capi posticus major and minor muscles.

The *internal surface* of the squama, concave from side to side and from abo downwards, is subdivided into four fossæ by a crucial arrangement of ridges a grooves. The upper pair of fossæ lodges the occipital lobes of the cerebrum, t lower pair the lobes of the cerebellum. Near the centre of this aspect of the bo is the **internal occipital protuberance** (protuberantia occipitalis interna), an irregul elevation, the sides of which are variously channelled according to the disposition of the grooves. Leading from this to the hinder margin of the foramen magnum

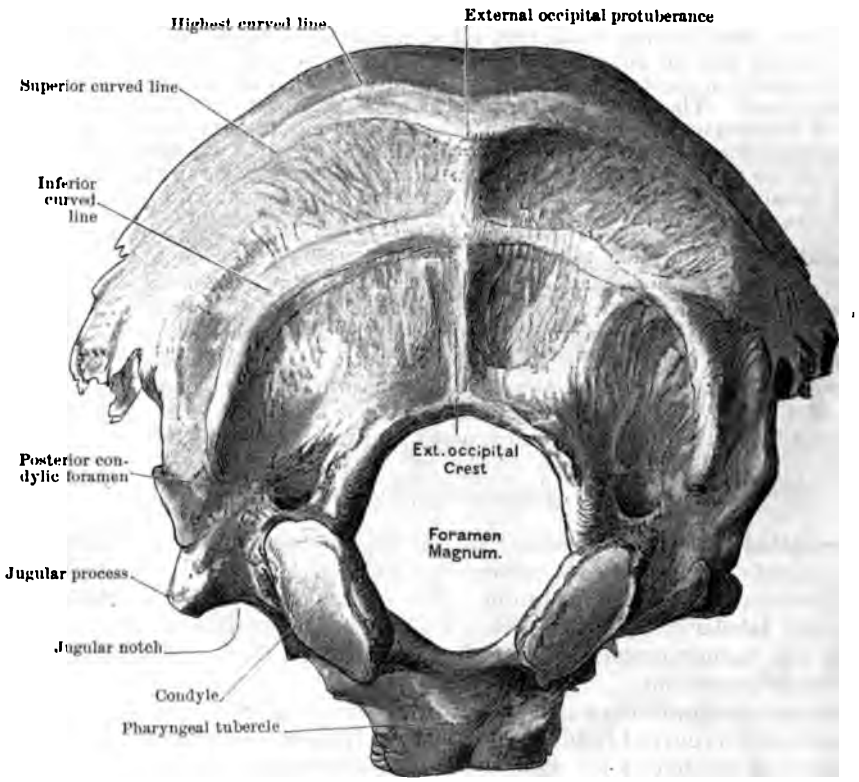


Fig. 85.—Occipital Bone as seen from Below.

is a sharp and well-defined ridge, the **internal occipital crest** (crista occipitalis interna), which serves for the attachment of the falx cerebelli, a process of dura mater which separates the two cerebellar hemispheres. Passing upwards from the internal occipital protuberance there is usually a well-marked ridge, to one or other side of which, more frequently the right (with the bone in the normal position and viewed from behind), there is a well-defined groove, the **sulcus sagittalis**, the outer lip of which is generally less prominent. Placed in this groove is the superior longitudinal venous sinus, and attached to the lips is the falx cerebri. At right angles to the foregoing, and at the level of the internal occipital protuberance, with which they become confluent, are two transverse grooves, the sulci transversi. These grooves, which have more or less prominent edges, lie between the upper and lower pairs of fossæ, and serve for the attachment of the tentorium cerebelli as well as the lodgment of the lateral blood-sinuses. Commonly the right lateral groove is confluent with the groove to the right side of the median ridge, but exceptions to this rule are not infrequent. The angle formed by the union of the venous sinuses

dged in these grooves constitutes the torcular Herophili, which may accordingly e placed to one or other side of the internal occipital protuberance, more frequently he right; in some cases, however, it may occupy a central position.

The *superior angle*, more or less sharp and pointed, is wedged in between the wo parietal bones, its position corresponding to the site of the posterior fontanelle. he *lateral angle* articulates on either side with the posterior extremity of the astoid portion of the temporal bone. The *superior borders*, much serrated, articuate with the parietal bones forming the **lambdoid suture**; and the *lateral edges*, xtending from the external angles to the jugular process inferiorly, are connected ith the inner sides of the mastoid portions of the temporals.

The **lateral or condylic parts** of the occipital bone (partes laterales) are placed

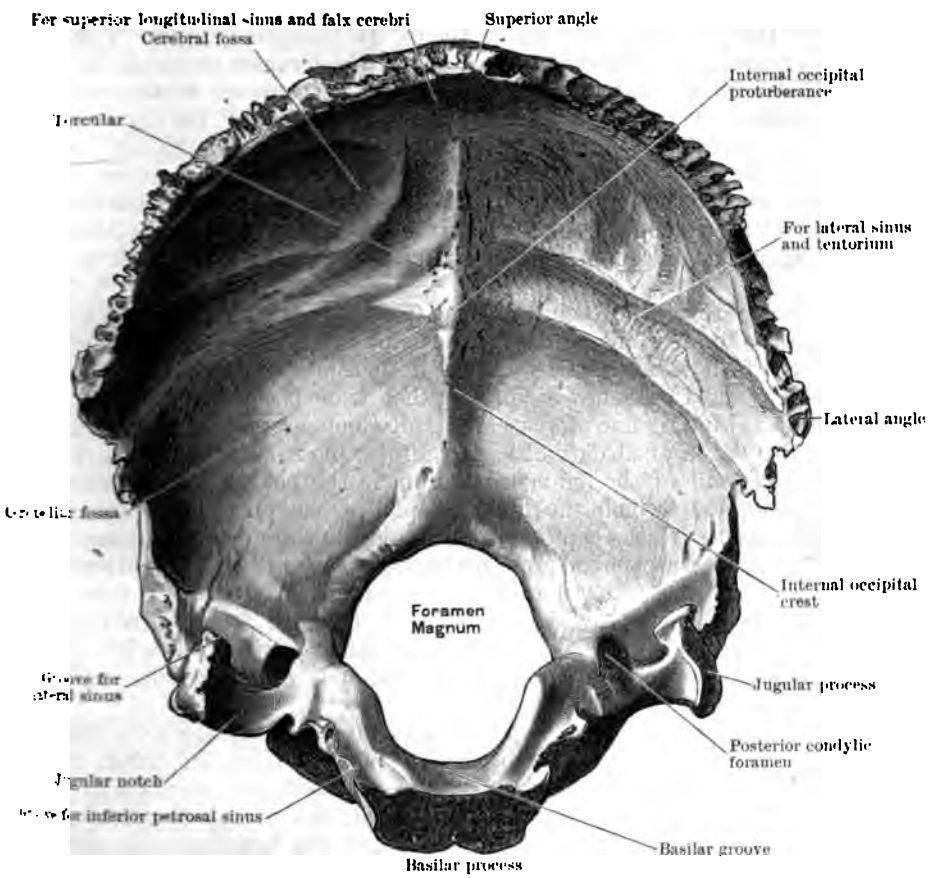


FIG. 86.—OCCIPITAL BONE (Inner Surface).

on either side of the foramen magnum; on their under surface they bear the condyles (condyli occipitales) by means of which the skull articulates with the atlas vertebra. Of elongated oval form, the condyles are so disposed that their anterior extremities, in line with the anterior margin of the foramen magnum, lie closer together than their posterior ends, which extend as far back as the middle of the external borders of the foramen. Convex from before backwards, they are skewed so that their surfaces, which are nearly plane from side to side, are directed slightly outwards. Each is supported on a boss of bone, pierced by the **anterior condylic foramen** (canalis hypoglossi), which opens obliquely from within outwards and forwards on the floor of a fossa called the **anterior condylic fossa**, situated just external to the fore part of the condyle. The foramen transmits the hypoglossal or XII. cranial nerve, together with a meningeal branch of the ascending pharyngeal artery and its companion veins. Behind the condyle is placed the **posterior condylic fossa**, in the floor of which the **posterior condylic foramen** frequently opens. Through

this a vein passes which joins the lateral sinus. The edge of the foramen magn immediately behind the condyle is often grooved for the passage of the verte artery around it. Jutting out from the posterior half of the condyle is a stout of bone, serially homologous with the vertebral transverse process—this is **jugular process** (processus jugularis); deeply notched in front, its anterior bo is free and rounded, and forms the posterior boundary of the jugular fora Curving outwards from this margin, in line with the anterior condylic fora there is often a small pointed projection, the **processus intra-jugularе**, which se to divide the jugular foramen into two compartments. Externally the jug process articulates by means of a synchondrosis with the jugular surface of petrous part of the temporal bone. Its posterior border is confluent with the lo and lateral portion of the occipital squama, and its under surface is rough tubercular for the attachment of the rectus capitis lateralis muscle. The *supe aspect* of the lateral part displays on either side of the foramen magnum an eleva surface of oval form, the **tuberculum jugulare**; this corresponds to the part of bone which bridges over the canal for the hypoglossal nerve. Its upper surface many instances displays an oblique groove running across it; in this are lodged glosso-pharyngeal, vagus, and accessory nerves. The jugular process is deep grooved superiorly for the lower part of the lateral blood sinus, which here tur round the anterior free edge of the process into the jugular foramen. Joining th close to its inner edge, is the opening of the posterior condylic foramen when th canal exists.

The **basilar part** of the occipital bone (pars basilaris) extends forwards a upwards from the foramen magnum. Its anterior extremity is usually sawn acro as, after adult life, it is necessary to sever it in this way from the sphenoid, t cartilage uniting the two bones having by that time become completely ossifi Broad and thin behind, it narrows laterally and thickens vertically in front, wh on section it displays a quadrilateral form. Projecting from its under surface so little distance in front of the foramen magnum is the **pharyngeal tubercle** (tub culum pharyngeum) to which the fibrous raphe of the pharynx is attached; either side of this the rectus capitis anticus major and minor muscles are inserte The *upper surface* forms a broad and shallow groove which slopes upwards a forwards from the thin anterior margin of the foramen magnum; in this rests t medulla oblongata. On either side its lateral edges are faintly grooved for t inferior petrosal venous sinuses, below which the lateral aspect of the bone is rou for the cartilage which unites it to the sides and apex of the petrous part of t temporal bone.

The **foramen magnum**, of oval shape, so disposed that its long axis lies in t sagittal plane, is of variable size and form. The plane of its outlet differs somewh in individual skulls; in most instances it is directed downwards and sligh forwards. In front the condyles encroach upon it, and narrow to some extent transverse diameter. To its margins are attached the ligaments which unite with the atlas and axis. Through it pass the lower part of the medulla oblonga where it becomes continuous with the spinal cord, the two vertebral arteries, t spinal accessory nerves, and the blood-vessels of the meninges of the upper part the cord.

Connexions.—The occipital bone articulates with the two parietals in front and above, wi the sphenoid in front and below, with the two temporals on either side, and with the at vertebra by means of its condyles.

Architecture.—The squamous part displays thickenings in the position of the various rid and crests, the stoutest part corresponding to the internal and external occipital protuberanc though it should be noted that the two protuberances do not necessarily coincide, the inter being, as a rule, placed at a higher level than the external. If the bone be held up to the lig it will be at once apparent that it is much thinner where it forms the floor of the inferior fos than in the upper part. The basilar portion consists of a spongy core surrounded by a m compact outer envelope, thickest on its lower surface. In the condyles the spongy tissue arranged radially to their convex articular surfaces, the hypoglossal canal being surrounded particularly dense and compact bone.

Variations.—The most striking of the many variations to which this bone is subject is t separation of the upper part of the occipital squama to form an independent bone—the int parietal bone, called also, from the frequency of its occurrence in Peruvian skulls, the os In

seen below (see Ossification), the occurrence of this anomaly is explained development- place of forming a single bone the interparietal is occasionally met with in two al halves, and instances have been recorded of its occurrence in three or even four the latter cases the two anterior parts form the pre-interparietals. Instances are f the presence of a separate epiphysis between the basi-occipital and the sphenoid, the um (Albrecht) or the os præ-basi-occipital. The articular surface of the condyles is divided into an anterior and posterior part. The so-called third occipital condyle is ding process rising from the anterior border of the foramen magnum, the extremity of culates with the odontoid process of the axis. Guerri has recorded a case, in which in ull, there were two outstanding tubercles in the position of the third occipital condyle, nt of the basi-occipital portions of the condyles (*Anat. Anz.* vol. xix. p. 42). This confirm the view of Macalister that there are two different structures included s name—one a mesial ossification in the sheath of the notochord, and the second, a ually paired process, caused by the deficiency of the mesial part of the hypochordal f the hindmost occipital vertebra, with thickenings of the lateral parts of the arch. from the under surface of the extremity of the jugular process, a rough or smooth urface, or else a projecting process, the extremity of which may articulate with the process of the atlas, is sometimes met with. This is the paroccipital or paramastoid Numerous instances of fusion of the atlas with the occipital bone have been recorded. no doubt, pathological in their origin; others are associated with errors in development. g anomalies are these in which there is evidence of the intercalation of a new vertebral etween the atlas and occipital, constituting what is termed a proatlas.

ification.—The major part of the bone ossifies in cartilage, the upper part of the interparietal), alone developing in membrane. The **basilar part** begins to ossify sixth week of fœtal life by the appearance of two centres, one in front of the ie anterior, according to Albrecht, constitutes the basiotic, the posterior the ital. These two centres—which there is some reason to believe—may themselves l by the fusion of pairs placed laterally, rapidly unite, so that the occurrence of e alone is frequently described. From this the fore part of the margin of the magnum is formed, together with a portion of the anterior end of the occipital n either side. It helps also to close up the front of the anterior condylic canal. ith the condylic parts is complete about h or fifth year. Ankylosis between the ital and the sphenoid takes place about the th year.

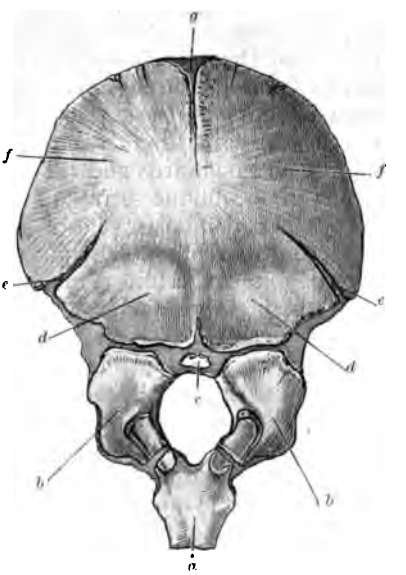


FIG. 87.—OSSIFICATION OF OCCIPITAL BONE.
a, Basilar centre; *b*, Exoccipital; *c*, Ossicle of Kerkring; *d*, Supra-occipital (from cartilage); *e*, Fissure between supra-occipital and interparietal; *f*, Interparietal (from membrane); *g*, Fissure between interparietals.

teral, condylic, or **exoccipital parts** begin from a single centre about the end of the onth of fœtal life. The notch for the al canal appears about the third month. s centre is formed the posterior three- f the occipital condyle. The exoccipital completely fused with the squama by year or earlier.

ready noted, the squama consists of two ie one above the occipital crest, the other ; the former develops in membrane, the cartilage. In a three-months' fœtus this is very characteristic. The cartilaginous ra-occipital) begins to ossify from two centres e sixth or seventh week, which rapidly join an elongated strip placed transversely in on of the occipital protuberance. The for the upper part (interparietal) appear According to Maggi (*Arch. Ital. Biol.* tome 2, p. 301), they are four in number, of vo placed on either side of the middle line bout the second month. The other pair, terally, are seen about the third month; etween these takes place early, but their on and arrangement explain the anomalies n this part of the bone is subject. The air may persist as separate ossicles, or fuse to form the pre-interparietals, whilst ral pair may remain independent of the supra-occipital as a single or double ietal bone. Union between the supra-occipital and the interparietal elements bout the third or fourth month; but evidence of their separation is frequently

met with even in the adult by the persistence of a transverse suture running inwa from each external angle of the squama, or, as above mentioned, there may be an Incæ. The supra-occipital forms a small part of the middle of the hinder border of foramen magnum, though here a small independent centre, known as the ossicl Kerkring, is occasionally met with. Other independent centres are sometimes f between the supra-occipital and the exoccipitals.

At birth the occipital consists of four parts—the interparietal and supra-occip combined, the basi-occipital, and the exoccipitals—one on either side.

The Temporal Bones.

The **temporal bone** (os temporale) lies about the centre of the lower half of eit side of the skull, and enters largely into the formation of the cranial base. I placed between the occipital behind, the parietal above, the sphenoid in front, a the occipital and sphenoid internally and below. At birth it consists of th parts—an upper and outer part, the **squamous** or **squamo-zygomatic portion**; an in and posterior portion, the **petro-mastoid**, which contains the parts specially associat with the sense of hearing, together with the organ associated with equilibratio and an under or **tympanic part**, from which the floor and anterior wall of t external auditory meatus is formed.

The **squamous part** (pars squamosa) consists of a thin shell-like plate of bo placed vertically, having an inner (cerebral) and an outer (temporal) surface and semicircular upper border. Inferiorly, behind, and internally it is fused in ear life with the petro-mastoid portion by means of the squamoso-mastoid and t petro-squamosal sutures, traces of which are often met with in the adult bon whilst below and in front it is separated from the tympanic and petrous parts b the **Glaserian fissure**. Its *external surface*, smooth and slightly convex, enters in the formation of the floor of the temporal fossa, and affords attachment to t temporal muscle. Near its hinder part it is crossed by one or more ascendi grooves for the branches of the middle temporal artery. In front and below the springs from it the **zygomatic process** (processus zygomaticus). This arises by broad attachment, the surfaces of which are inferior and superior; curving outwar and forwards, it then becomes twisted and narrow so that its sides are turn inwards and outwards and its edges directed upwards and downwards. Anterior it ends in an oblique serrated extremity which articulates with the zygomatic pr cess of the malar bone. Posteriorly the edges of the zygomatic process separate a are termed its roots. The upper edge, which becomes the **posterior root**, sweeps ba over the external auditory meatus, and is confluent with a ridge, the **supra-mast crest**, which curves backwards and slightly upwards, and serves to define the lim of the temporal fossa posteriorly. The inferior edge turns inwards and constitut the **anterior root**; the under surface of this forms a transversely-disposed round ridge, the **articular eminence** (tuberculum articulare), behind which there is a de hollow, the **glenoid fossa** (fossa mandibularis), limited posteriorly by the tympa plate, and crossed at its deepest part by an oblique fissure, the **Glaserian fiss** (fissura petro-tympanica). This cleft, which is closed externally, transmits abo its middle the tympanic branches of the internal maxillary artery, and lodges t slender process of the malleus. At its inner end the lips of this fissure a frequently separated by a thin scale of bone, a downgrowth from the tegm tympani of the petrous part, which here separates the tympanic from the squamo elements, forming in its descent the major part of the outer wall of the osseo Eustachian canal, which lies immediately internal to it. Between this scale of bo and the posterior edge of the fissure there is a small canal (**canal of Huguier**), whi transmits the chorda tympani nerve. The part of the glenoid fossa in front of t fissure articulates with the condyle of the inferior maxilla, through the mediu of the interarticular cartilage, which is here interposed and rests as well on t tuberculum articulare. Posteriorly the part of the fossa behind the fissure is no articular and lodges a portion of the parotid gland. At the angle formed by t divergence of the two roots of the zygoma, in correspondence with the outer p of the articular eminence, there is a rounded **tubercle**; to this are attached t

ace of the external lateral ligament of the temporo-mandibular joint. In front f the inner end of the articular eminence there is a small triangular surface, mited in front by the edge of the anterior root, and internally by a thick serrated argin which articulates with the outer side of the great wing of the sphenoid; is area forms part of the roof of the zygomatic fossa. Just anterior to the xternal auditory meatus and projecting downwards from the under surface of the sterior root there is a conical process, called the **post-glenoid tubercle**, which forms prominent anterior lip to the external extremity of the Glaserian fissure; it is the presentative in man of a process which occurs in some mammals and prevents the ckward displacement of the lower jaw. By some anatomists it is referred to as he **middle root** of the zygoma.

The **zygomatic process** by its lower margin and inner surface gives origin to the asseter muscle, whilst attached to its upper edge are the layers of the temporal scia. Behind the external auditory meatus, and below the supramastoid crest, the

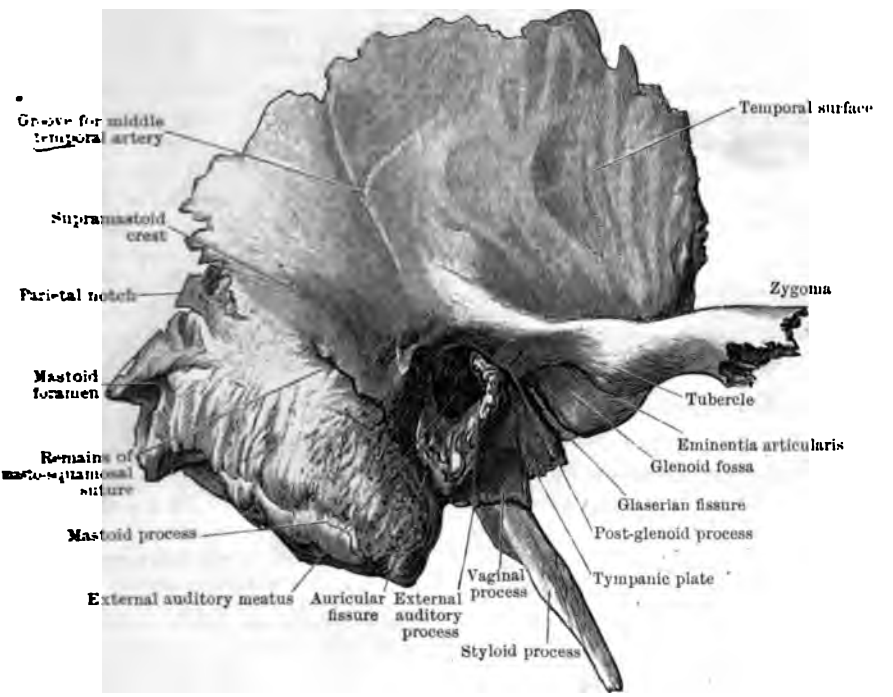


FIG. 88.—RIGHT TEMPORAL BONE AS SEEN FROM THE OUTER SIDE.

squamous element extends downwards as a pointed process, which assists in forming the roof and posterior wall of the external auditory meatus, where it unites inferiorly with the tympanic plate. In the adult this process is occasionally sharply defined posteriorly by an oblique irregular fissure, the remains of the mastoid-squamosal suture.

Professor Macewen has pointed out that this suture frequently remains open till puberty and occasionally after, and may be of importance as a channel along which infective processes may extend.

The *inner surface* of the squamous part, less extensive than the outer aspect owing to the bevelling of the superior border, is marked by the impression of the convolutions of the temporal lobe of the cerebrum, and is limited below by the petro-squamosal suture, the remains of which can frequently be seen. It is crossed in front by an ascending groove for the middle meningeal artery, branches from which course backwards over the bone in grooves more or less parallel to its upper border.

The *superior border* of the squamous part is curved, sharp, and scale-like, being bevelled at the expense of its inner table, except in front, where the margin is thick

and stout. Here it articulates with the great wing of the sphenoid, its union w
that bone extending to near the fore part of the summit of the curve, behind wh
it is united to the parietal overlapping the lower border of that bone; posteri
the free margin of the squamous part ends at an angle formed between it and
mastoid process called the **incisura parietalis.**

The **tympanic part** (pars tympanica) of the temporal bone forms the ante
lower, and part of the posterior wall of the external auditory meatus. Boun
in front and above by the Glaserian fissure, it forms the hinder wall of the
articular part of the glenoid fossa. Fused internally with the petrous part,
lower edge, sharp and well defined internally, splits to enclose the root of
projecting **styloid process**, and is hence called the **vaginal process.** Externally
unites with the fore part of the mastoid process, and higher up with the descend
process of the squamous part, from both of which it is separated by the auri
fissure (fissura tympano-mastoidea) through which the auricular branch of

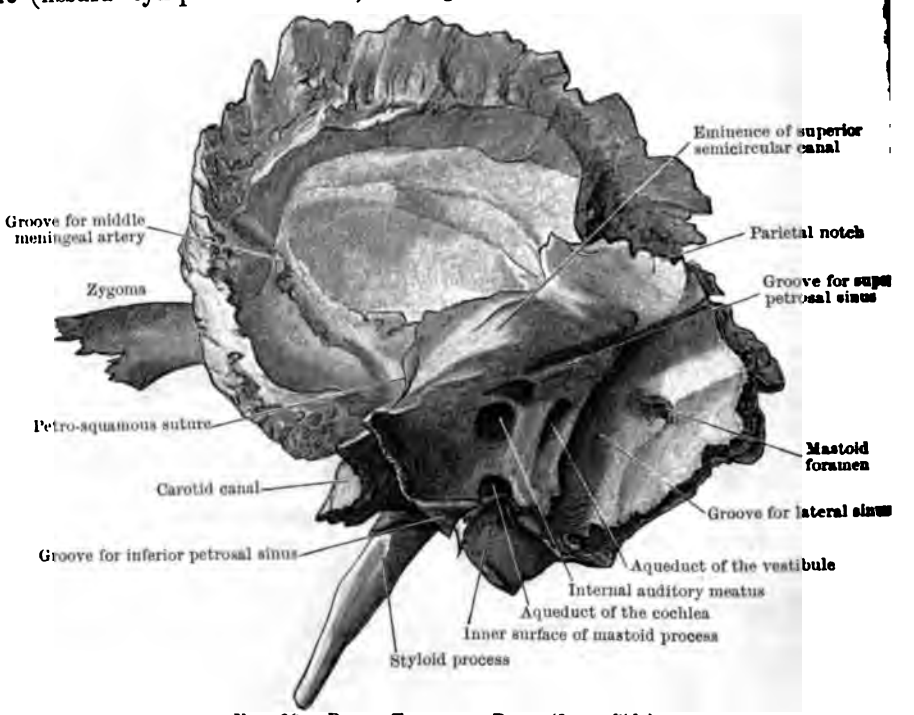


FIG. 89.—RIGHT TEMPORAL BONE (Inner Side).

vagus escapes. Its free border, which forms the anterior, lower, and part of
posterior border of the external auditory meatus, is usually somewhat thicke
and rough, and serves for the attachment of the cartilaginous part of the canal.

The **external auditory meatus** (meatus acusticus externus) is directed obliqu
inwards and a little forwards, and describes a slight curve, the convexity of wh
is directed upwards; of oval form, its long axis, close to its orifice, is nearly verti
but, as it passes inwards, inclines somewhat forwards so as to give a twist to
canal. The depth of the canal to the attachment of the membrana tymp
averages from 14 to 16 mm. The upper margin of the outer orifice overha
considerably the lower edge, but owing to the obliquity of the inner apertur
which the membrana tympani is attached, the upper wall of the osseous c
only exceeds the length of the lower wall by one or two millimetres.

The **petro-mastoid part** (pars petrosa et mastoidea) of the temporal bon
pyramidal form, is fused to the inner aspect of the tympanic and squam
portions, extending behind them, however, to form the well-marked and promi
mastoid process, which lies posterior to the external auditory meatus. This pr
(pars mastoidea) forms a nipple-like projection, the size of which differs consider
in different individuals. Usually larger in the male than in the female, its r

outer surface and lower border serve for the insertions of the sterno-mastoid, splenius capitis, and trachelo-mastoid muscles. Within and below its pointed extremity there is a deep groove (incisura mastoidea), usually well marked, which gives origin to the posterior belly of the digastric muscle; whilst lying to the inner side of this, and separated from it by a more or less well-defined rough ridge, there can oftentimes be seen a narrow, shallow furrow, which indicates the course of the occipital artery. The **inner surface** of the mastoid portion forms, in part, the lateral wall of the posterior cranial fossa, in which the cerebellar lobes are lodged. Coursing across this aspect of the bone there is a broad curved groove, the concavity of which is directed forwards and lies in the angle formed by the base of the petrous part and its fusion with the mastoid portion. The depth to which the bone is here channelled varies considerably, and is important from a surgical standpoint, as herein lies the sigmoid portion of the lateral venous sinus. Anteriorly the mastoid is fused with the descending process of the squamosal above, and below, where it is united with the tympanic, it enters into the formation of the posterior wall of the external auditory meatus and the cavity of the tympanum. Above, its free margin is rough and serrated, and articulates with the posterior inferior angle of the parietal; behind and below it articulates by a jagged suture with the occipital. Traversing this suture, or near it, is the **mastoid foramen** (foramen mastoideum), which transmits a vein from the lateral sinus to the cutaneous occipital vein, together with a small branch of the occipital artery.

The **petrous part** of the petro-mastoid is of the form of an elongated three-sided pyramid. By its base it is united obliquely to the inner sides of the squamosal and tympanic parts. Its apex is directed inwards, forwards, and a little upwards. Its three surfaces are arranged as follows:—The *superior* or *anterior* looks upwards, slightly forwards, and a little outwards, and forms part of the floor of the middle cranial fossa. The *posterior* is directed backwards and inwards, and forms part of the anterior wall of the posterior cranial fossa. The *inferior* is seen on the under surface of the base of the skull, and is directed downwards. The borders are named respectively anterior, superior, and posterior.

The *anterior border* is short, and forms an acute angle with the fore part of the squamous part; within this angle is wedged the spinous part of the great wing of the sphenoid. Here, too, the osseous **Eustachian canal** (canalis musculotubarius) may be seen leading backwards and outwards from the summit of the angle to reach the fore part of the cavity of the tympanum. On looking into it, the canal is seen to be divided into two unequal parts by an osseous partition, the **cochleariform process** (septum tubæ). The upper compartment, the smaller of the two (semicanalis m. tensoris tympani), lodges the tensor tympani muscle, whilst the lower (semicanalis tubæ auditivæ) forms the osseous part of a channel (the **Eustachian tube**), which serves to conduct air from the pharynx to the tympanum.

The *posterior border* is in part articular and in part non-articular. Posteriorly and externally it corresponds to the upper margin of an area on the inferior surface with which the extremity of the jugular process of the exoccipital articulates. In front of that it is irregularly notched, and forms the free anterior edge of the jugular foramen, internal to which it has a sharp curved border, often grooved, reaching to the apex. This groove, which is completed by articulation with the outer side of the basi-occipital, lodges the inferior petrosal venous sinus.

The *superior border* is a twisted edge which is continuous with the upper margin of the groove for the lateral sinus posteriorly, and anteriorly and internally reaches the apex of the bone. Running along it there is usually a well-marked groove for the superior petrosal venous sinus, and near its inner extremity it is slightly notched for the passage of the trigeminal nerve. Along the entire length of this border the tentorium cerebelli is attached.

On the *inferior surface* of the petrous part, which is bounded in front by the anterior border internally, and the tympanic plate externally, and behind by the posterior border, the following structures are to be noted:— Springing from and ensheathed by the vaginal process is the slender and pointed **styloid process** (processus styloideus), the length of which varies much. Projecting downwards and slightly forwards and inwards, it affords attachments for the stylo-glossus,

stylo-hyoid, and stylo-pharyngeus muscles as well as the stylo-hyoid and sty
mandibular ligaments. Just behind it, and between it and the mastoid proc
is the **stylo-mastoid foramen** (foramen stylomastoideum), which lies at the ante
end of the digastric groove, and transmits the facial nerve and the stylo-mast
artery. Immediately internal to the styloid process there is a deep, smoo
excavated hollow, the **jugular fossa** (fossa jugularis), which is converted into
foramen (jugular) by articulation with the occipital bone. Behind and external
the fossa there is a small **quadrilateral surface** of variable size, which is united
the extremity of the jugular process of the exoccipital by a synchondrosis. In
the fossa, on its outer aspect, or placed on its external border, is the opening o
small canal (canaliculus mastoideus), which passes outwards to open into the cana
facialis, and transmits the auricular branch of the vagus (Arnold's nerve), wh
ultimately escapes through the auricular fissure (see *ante*). In front of t
jugular fossa and separat
from it by a sharp crest, a
just internal to the tympa
plate, is the circular openi
of the inferior orifice of t
carotid canal (canalis caro
cus). Directed at first p
wards, this canal bends a
right angle and turns fo
wards and inwards, lyi
parallel to the anter
border; reaching the f
part of the apex of the bo
it opens in front by
oblique ragged orifi
Through the canal the i
ternal carotid artery, accom
panied by a plexus of sy
pathetic nerves, passes in
the cranium. On the rid
of bone separating the jugu
fossa from the carotid canal
the opening of a small can
(canaliculus tympanicu
through which the tympan
branch of the glosso-pharyn
geal (nerve of Jacobso
passes to reach the tym
panum. Within the orifi
of the carotid canal anoth
small opening or openings (canaliculi carotici tympanici) may be noticed whi
afford passage to the tympanic branches of the internal carotid artery and caroti
sympathetic plexus. Occupying the interval between the jugular fossa an
the carotid canal on the inner side is a V-shaped depression (fossula fenestr
cochleæ), on the floor of which and close to the posterior border is the orifice
the **aqueduct** of the **cochlea** (apertura externa aquæductus cochleæ). In the fos
is lodged the petrous ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, and the aqueduc
transmits a tubular prolongation of the dura mater, which forms a channel
communication between the perilymph of the cochlea and the subarachnoid spac
A small vein also passes through it. In front of and internal to the orifice of th
carotid canal the under surface of the apex of the bone corresponds to a roug
quadrilateral surface which forms the floor of the carotid canal, and also serves f
the attachment of the cartilaginous part of the Eustachian tube as well as th
origin of the levator palati muscle; elsewhere it has attached to it the dens
fibrous tissue which fills up the cleft (petro-basilar fissure) between it and th
basilar process of the occipital bone.

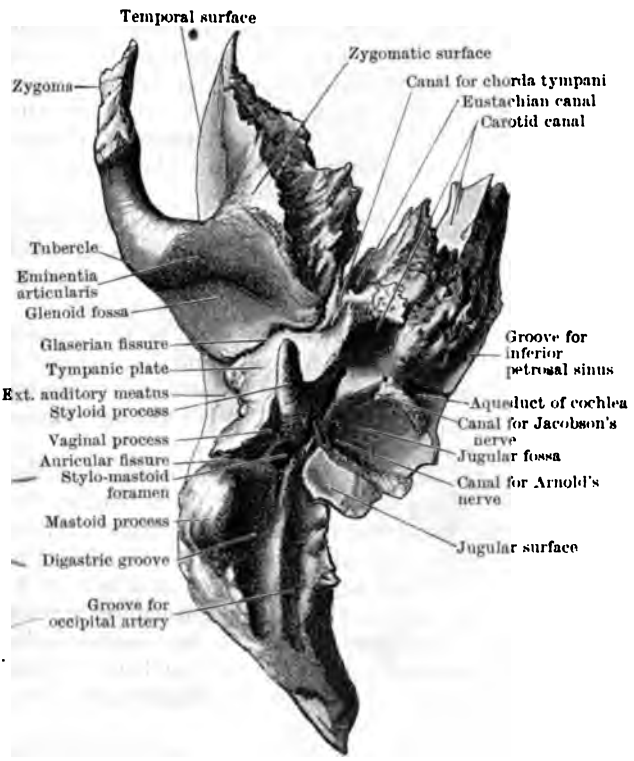


FIG. 90.—RIGHT TEMPORAL BONE AS SEEN FROM BELOW.

he *superior* or *anterior surface* bears the impress of the convolutions of the surface of the temporal lobe of the cerebrum, which rests upon it; in on, there is a distinct but shallow depression (impressio trigemini) near the corresponding to the roof of the carotid canal; in this is lodged the ian ganglion on the sensory root of the V. cranial nerve. External to the of the upper surface, and close to its posterior border, is the elevation ntia arcuata), more or less pronounced, which marks the position of the r semicircular canal here lodged within the bone. A little in front of this, and with the angle formed by the anterior border and the squamous part, is the opening of the **hiatus Fallopii** (hiatus canalis facialis), within the projecting hich two small orifices can usually be seen. These are the openings of the **tus Fallopii** (canalis facialis); if a bristle be passed through the inner of the nings it will be observed to pass into the bottom of the internal auditory if into the outer, it will pass through the aqueduct of Fallopius, and, provided nnel be clear, will appear on the under surface of the bone at the stylo- foramen. Leading forwards and inwards from the hiatus towards the border is a groove; in this lies the great superficial petrosal nerve which out of the hiatus. A small branch of the middle meningeal artery also the bone here. A little external to the hiatus is another small opening a superior canalis tympanici), often difficult to see; from this a groove runs s which channels the upper surface of the roof of the canal for the tensor i muscle. Through this foramen and along this groove passes the lesser ial petrosal nerve. Behind this, and in front of the **arcuate eminence**, the usually thin (as may be seen by holding it up to the light falling through rnal auditory meatus), roofing in the cavity of the tympanum and forming **en tympani**. Externally the line of fusion of the petrous with the squamous often indicated by a faint and irregular petro-squamous fissure.

most conspicuous object on the *posterior surface* of the petrous part of the the **internal auditory meatus** (meatus acusticus internus) about 8 mm. deep dult, which has an oblique oval aperture and leads outwards and slightly rds into the substance of the bone, giving passage to the auditory and erves, together with the pars intermedia and the auditory branch of the rtery. The canal appears to end blindly; but if it be large, or still better, if it be cut away, its fundus will be seen to be crossed by a horizontal ridge, the **crest**, which divides it into two fossæ, the floors of which (laminæ cribrosæ) ced by numerous small foramina for the branches of the auditory nerve and els passing to the membranous labyrinth, whilst in the fore and upper part nigher fossa the orifice of the **Fallopian aqueduct** (canalis facialis), through he facial nerve passes, is seen leading in the direction of the hiatus Fallopii *e*). External to the internal auditory meatus and above it, close to the border, an irregular depression, often faintly marked, with one or two small a opening into it, is to be noticed. This is the **floccular fossa** (fossa subarcuata), n in young bones, where it forms a distinct recess, which is bounded above bulging caused by the superior semicircular canal, within the concavity of t is placed; it lodges a process of the dura mater. Below and external to arated from it by a smooth, elevated curved ridge, is the opening of the **t of the vestibule** (apertura externa aquæductus vestibuli), often concealed row curved fissure overhung by a sharp scale of bone. In this is lodged the ndolymphaticus. The ridge above it corresponds to the upper half of the r semicircular canal.

exions.—The temporal bone articulates with the malar, sphenoid, parietal, and occipital d by a movable joint with the inferior maxilla. Occasionally the temporal articulates frontal, as happens normally in the anthropoid apes; although the region of the ee p. 154) is characterised by an X-like form in the lower races of man there is no that the occurrence of a fronto-squamosal suture is more frequent in the lower than the ces, its occurrence being due to the manner of fusion of the so-called epipteric ossicles surrounding bones.

itecture.—The temporal bone is remarkable for the hardness and density of its petrous rein is lodged the osseous labyrinth which contains the delicate organs associated with of **hearing** and equilibration. The **middle ear** or **tympanum** is a cavity which contains

the small auditory ossicles, and is separated from the external auditory meatus by the mem tympani. *In front* it communicates with the pharynx by the Eustachian tube; *behind*, it into the mastoid antrum and mastoid air-cells by the aditus ad antrum. *Superiorly* separated from the middle cranial foss thin plate of bone called the tegmen ty *Inferiorly*, its floor is formed in part l roof of the jugular fossa and the carotid *Internally*, it is related to the structures form the inner ear, notably the **cochl vestibule**, in front of which it is separate thin plate of bone from the carotid Curving over the cavity of the tympan the aquæductus Fallopii, the thin w which are occasionally deficient. These will be further dealt with in the secti voted to the Organs of Sense.

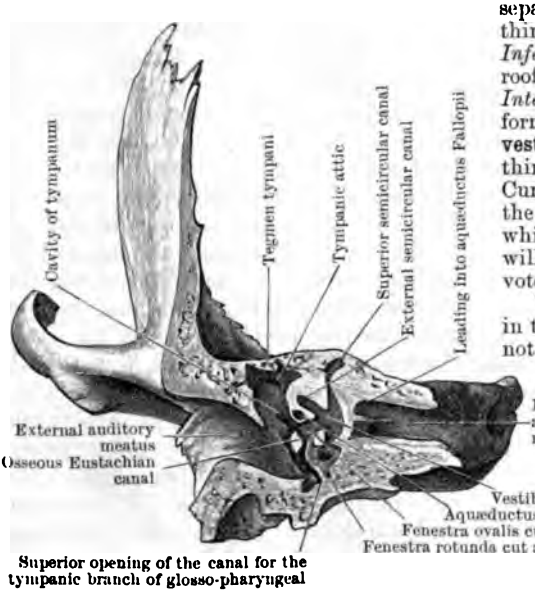


FIG. 91.—VERTICAL TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH LEFT TEMPORAL BONE (Anterior Half of Section).

Variations.—The occurrence of a defi in the floor of the external auditory me not uncommon in the adult. It is me commonly in the child till the age of five, and is due to plete ossification of the ty plate. The line of the squamosal suture is occas grooved for the lodgment of (petro-squamosal); sometim posterior end of this is cont with a canal which pierc superior border of the bo opens into the lateral sinus teriorly the groove may pa a canal which pierces the the zygoma and appears ext above the external extremity of the Glaserian fissure. These are the remains of channels t which the blood passed in the fœtal condition (see *ante*). Symington has described a which the squamous part was distinct and separate from the rest of the temporal bone in an adult; whilst Hyrtl has observed the division of the temporal squama into two by a transverse suture. P. P. Laidlaw (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.* vol. xxxvii. p. 364) describes a temporal bone in which there was absence of the internal auditory meatus and of the stylo-mastoid foramen. The jugular fossa also was absent, and there was partial absence of the groove for the lateral sinus associated with the presence of a large mastoid foramen. An instance of a rudimentary condition of the carotid canal is also referred to in the same volume by G. H. K. Macalister.

G. Caribbe (*Anat. Anz.* vol. xx. p. 81) notes the occurrence in idiots and imbeciles of a more pronounced form of post-glenoid tubercle, and associates it with regressive changes in the development of the temporal bone.

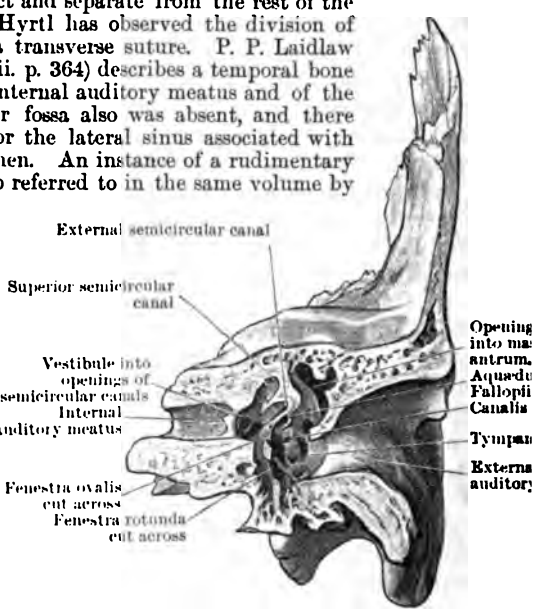


FIG. 92.- VERTICAL TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH LE TEMPORAL BONE (Posterior Half of Section).

Ossification.—The petro-mastoid portion of the bone is developed by the deposition of earthy matter in the cartilaginous ear capsule and the perichondrium lining the labyrinth. The squamous and tympanic parts are ossified in membrane.

Ossification commences in the ear capsule in the fifth month, and proceeds so rapidly that by the end of the sixth month the individual centres are more or less fused. Of these, one which appe the vicinity of the eminentia arcuata is the most definite in position and form this a lamina of bone of spiral form is developed, which covers in the inner l the superior semicircular canal, and forms the roof of the internal auditory m together with the commencement of the Fallopian aqueduct. Reaching forwa extends to the apex of the petrous part; whilst externally it forms part of the

f the tympanum, surrounds the fenestra ovalis, and encloses within its substance
ns of the cochlea, vestibule, and superior semicircular canal. Another centre
rs in the vicinity of the
ntory on the inner wall
tympanum, surrounds the
ra rotunda, forms the floor
e vestibule, and extends
ls to complete the floor
internal auditory meatus.
unding the cochlea in-
y and externally, it com-
the floor of the tympanum,
ltimately blends with the
nd under part of the
nic ring. The carotid
at first grooves it, and is
subsequently surrounded
According to Lambertz
nina spiralis of the cochlea
s in membrane. The roof
tympanum is formed from
rate centre, which extends
ards towards the superior
rcular canal, and encloses
mpanic part of the aque-
of Fallopius; externally
ntre unites by suture with
uamosal, and sends down
a process, which appears
en the lips of the Glaserian
, and forms the outer wall
Eustachian tube. Nuclei,

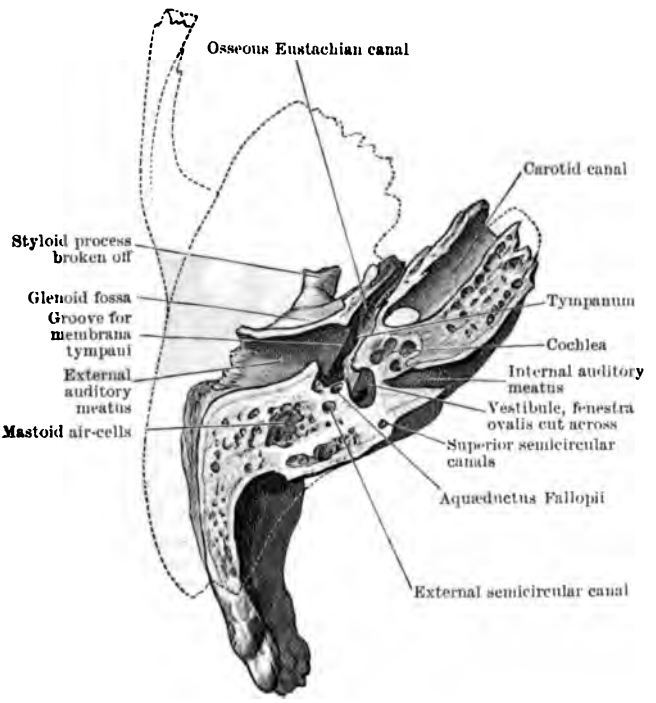


FIG. 93.—HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH LEFT TEMPORAL BONE (Lower Half of Section).

single or multiple, appear in the base of the petrous part, and envelop the posterior
ternal semicircular canals. It is by extension from this part that the mastoid process
imately developed. To these centres the terms pro-otic, opisthotic, pterotic, and
, respectively, have been applied by Huxley and others. The **styloid process**, an
endent development from the upper end of the cartilage of the second visceral arch,
fied from two centres. The upper or basal appears before birth, and rapidly unites
the petro-mastoid, the tympanic plate encircling it in front. This represents the
anohyal of comparative anatomy. At birth, or subsequent to it, another centre
rs in the cartilage below the above: this is the **stylohyal**. Ankylosis usually occurs
ult life between the tympanohyal and stylohyal, the union of the two constituting
-called styloid process of human anatomy.

he centre from which the **squamo-zygomatic** develops appears in membrane about
d of the second month. Situated near the root of the zygoma, it extends forwards
utwards into that process, inwards to form the floor of the glenoid fossa, and
ds into the squamosal. From this latter there is a downward and backward exten-
which forms the post-auditory process; this ultimately blends with the posterior limb
tympanic ring, being separated from it in the adult by the auricular fissure. It forms
uter wall of the mastoid antrum, and constitutes the fore and upper part of the
id process in the adult. About the third month a centre appears in the outer
ranous wall of the tympanum: from this the **tympanic ring** is developed. Incom-
above, it displays two free extremities. Of these, the anterior is somewhat enlarged,
unites in front with the glenoid portion of the squamo-zygomatic, being separated
it by the Glaserian fissure and the downgrowth from the tegmen tympani; the
ior joins the post-auditory process of the squamo-zygomatic above mentioned.
, it blends internally with the portion of the petro-mastoid which forms the floor of
mpanum, and ensheathes the tympanohyal behind. From the outer side of the
part of this ring two tubercles arise; these grow outwards, and so form the floor
e external auditory meatus. The interval between them remains unossified till
the age of five or six, after which closure takes place. This deficiency may, how-
persist even in adult life (see *ante*, Variations).

birth the temporal bone can usually be separated into its component parts. The

outer surface of the petrous part not only forms the inner wall of the tympani hollowed out behind and above to form the inner side of the mastoid an outer wall of which is completed by the post-auditory process of the squamo- As yet the mastoid process is undeveloped. It only assumes its nipple-like form second year. Towards puberty its cancellous tissue becomes permeated with

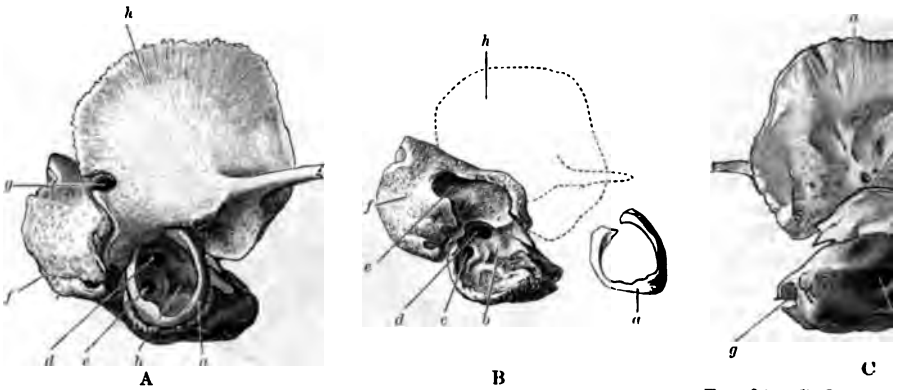


FIG. 94.—A. THE OUTER SURFACE OF THE RIGHT TEMPORAL BONE AT BIRTH. B. THE SAME WITH SQUAMO-ZYGOMATIC PORTION REMOVED.

(The lettering is the same in both A and B.) *a*, Tympanic ring. *b*, Inner wall of tympanum. *c*, Fenestra rotunda. *d*, Foramen ovale. *e*, Mastoid. *f*, Mastoid process. *g*. Masto-squamosal suture, with foramen for transmission of vessels. *h*, Squamo-zygomatic, removed in figure B to show how its descending process forms the outer wall of the mastoid antrum.

FIG. 94.—C. INNER RIGHT TEMPORAL B

a, Squamo-zygomati squamosal suture a above the end of *c*, Subarcuate fossa. vestibuli. *e*, Aqua *f*, Internal audito Upper end of caroti

which are in communication with and extensions from the mastoid antrum. Th auditory meatus is unossified in front and below, the outgrowth from the tym occurring subsequent to birth. The glenoid fossa is shallow and everted; th fossa is ill-marked; whilst the subarcuate fossa is represented by a deep pit, th flocculer fossa of comparative anatomy. The hiatus Fallopii is an open groove, at either end the openings of the inner and outer portions of the Fallopian aque

THE SPHENOID BONE.

The **sphenoid bone** (os sphenoidale) lies in front of the basi-occipital and the temporals on either side. It enters into the formation of the orbital, and nasal cavities, as well as the temporal, zygomatic, pteryg spheno-maxillary fossæ. It consists of a body with three pairs of expan cesses, the great wings, the lesser wings, and the pterygoid processes.

The **body** (corpus), more or less cubical in form, is hollow, and contain it the two large **sphenoidal air sinuses**. These are separated by a partitio is usually deflected to one or other side of the middle line. Each sinus outwards for a short distance into the root of the great wing, and downw outwards towards the base of the pterygoid process of the same side communicate by apertures with the upper and back part of the nasal fossæ. adult the *posterior aspect* of the body displays a sawn surface due to its se from the basi-occipital with which in the adult it is firmly ankylosed. The *surface*, from the fore angles of which the lesser wings arise, displays an ap comparable to that of an oriental saddle, over its middle there is a deep de the **sella turcica** or **pituitary fossa** (fossa hypophyseos), in which is lod pituitary body. Behind, this is overhung by a sloping ridge, the **dorsum** posterior surface of which is inclined upwards, and is in continuation v basilar groove of the occipital bone. Anteriorly and externally the angle ridge project over the pituitary fossa in the form of prominent tubercles, ca **posterior clinoid processes** (processus clinoidei posteriores). In front of the p fossa there is a transverse elevation, the **olivary eminence** (tuberculum towards the outer extremities of which, and somewhat behind, there ar

s little spurs of bone, the **middle clinoid processes** (processus clinoidei medii). ront of the olivary eminence is the **optic groove** (sulcus chiasmatis), which es outwards on either side to become continuous, between the roots of the r wings, with the optic foramina.

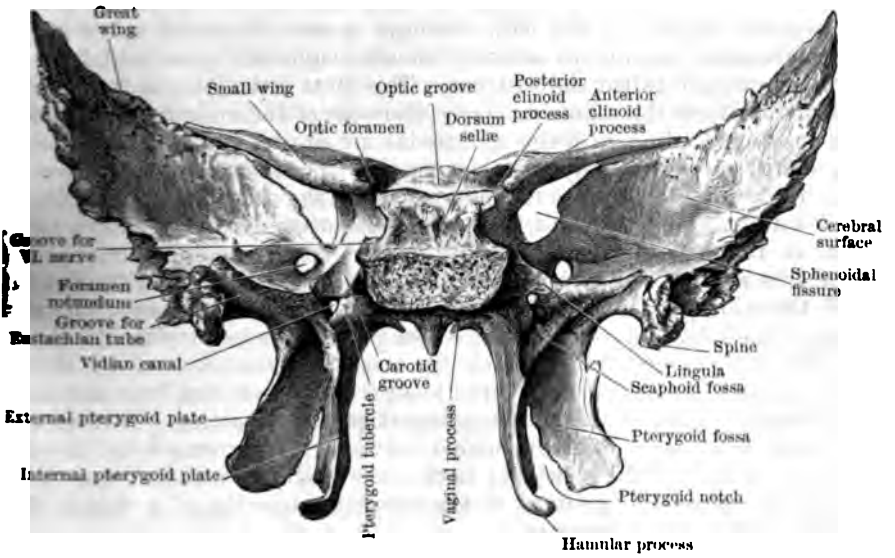


FIG. 95.—SPHENOID AS SEEN FROM BEHIND.

This groove is liable to considerable variations, and apparently does not always serve for the ment of the optic chiasma. (Lawrence, "Proc. Soc. Anat.," *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.* xxviii. p. 18.)

In front of the optic groove, from which it is often separated by a thin sharp edge, superior surface continues forwards on the same plane as the upper surfaces of

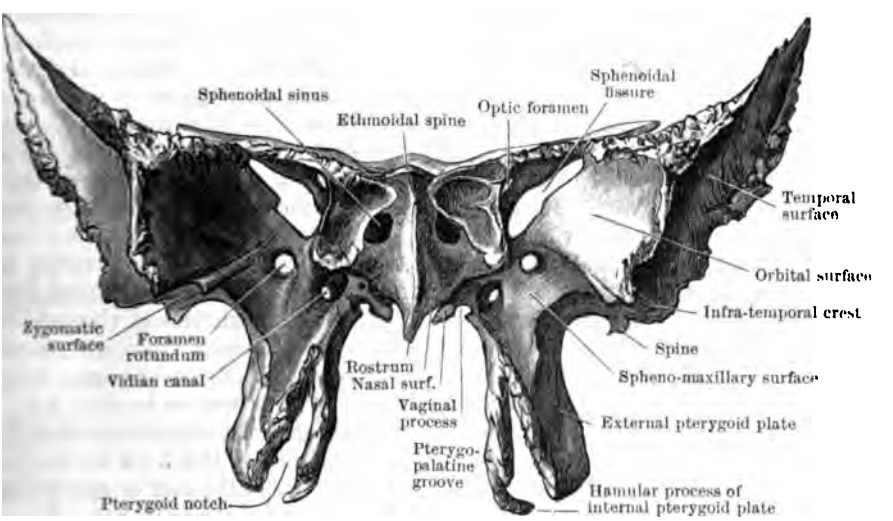


FIG. 96.—SPHENOID AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

he lesser wings, and terminates anteriorly in a ragged edge, which articulates with he cribriform plate of the ethmoid, and has often projecting from it, mesially, a inted process, the **ethmoidal spine**. The *lateral aspects* of the body are fused ith the great wings, and in part also with the roots of the pterygoid processes. urving along the side of the body, superior to its attachment to the great wing, an *S*-shaped groove, the **carotid groove** (sulcus caroticus), which marks the

position and course of the internal carotid artery. Posteriorly, the hinder mar of this groove, formed by the salient outer edge of the posterior surface of body, articulates with the apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, is hence called the **petrosal process**; just above this, on the lateral border of dorsum sellæ, there is often a groove for the sixth nerve.

The *anterior surface* of the body displays a vertical mesial **sphenoidal** (crista sphenoidalis), continuous above with the ethmoidal spine, and below w the pointed projection called the rostrum. This crest articulates in front with perpendicular plate of the ethmoid. On either side of the middle line are seen irregular openings leading into the sphenoidal air sinuses, the thin anterior w of which are in part formed by the absorption of the sphenoidal turbinated bo with which in early life they are in contact. With the exception of a broad gro leading downwards from the apertures above mentioned, which enters into formation of the roof of the nasal fossa of the corresponding side, the lat aspects of this surface of the bone are elsewhere in articulation with the lat masses of the ethmoid and the orbital processes of the palate bones. The rost is continued mesially for some distance along the *inferior surface* of the bo where it forms a prominent keel which fits into the recess formed by the ala the vomer. The edges of the latter serve to separate the rostrum from the incur vaginal processes at the roots of the internal pterygoid plates. Posteriorly under surface of the body of the sphenoid is rougher, and covered by the muc membrane of the roof of the pharynx; here, occasionally, a median depression be seen which marks the position of the inferior extremity of a fœtal chan called the **canalis cranio-pharyngeus.**

The **lesser** or **orbital wings** (alæ parvæ) are two flattened triangular plate bone which project forwards and outwards from the fore and upper part of body of the bone, with which they are united by two roots which enclose betw them the **optic foramina** (foramina optica) for the transmission of the optic ner and ophthalmic arteries. Of these roots, the posterior springs from the body wide of the olivary eminence, separating the carotid groove behind from the o foramen in front; externally this root is confluent with the recurved posterior a of the lesser wing, forming the projection known as the **anterior clinoid proc** (processus clinoideus anterior), which overhangs the fore part of the body of bone. The anterior root, broad and compressed, unites the upper surface of lesser wing with the fore and upper part of the body. Externally the ou angle terminates in a pointed process which reaches the region of the pterion there articulates with the frontal, and may come in contact with the great wi The superior aspect is smooth, and forms in part the floor of the anterior cra fossa. The inferior surface constitutes part of the posterior portion of the up wall of the orbit, and also serves to roof in the **sphenoidal fissure** which separa the lesser from the greater wings below. The anterior edge is ragged and irregul and articulates with the orbital plates of the frontal. The posterior marg sharp and sickle-shaped, separates the anterior from the middle cranial fossa, corresponds to the position of the Sylvian fissure on the surface of the cerebrum.

The **greater** or **temporal wings** (alæ magnæ), as seen from above, are of somewhat crescentic form. If the inner convex edge of the crescent be divid into fifths, the posterior fifth extends backwards and outwards beyond the body the bone, presenting a free posterior edge, which forms the anterior boundary of t foramen lacerum medium. This border ends behind in the horn of the cresce from which a pointed process projects downwards, called the **alar** or **sphenoidal spi** (spina angularis), this is wedged into the angle between the petrous and squamo parts of the temporal bone. The inner surface of the posterior border and spine furrowed for the cartilaginous **Eustachian tube** (sulcus tubæ), whilst on the inn side of the spine the course of the chorda tympani nerve is indicated by a groo (Lucas). The second fifth of the convex border of the crescent is fused to the si of the body and united below with the root of the pterygoid process. The ang formed by the union of the great wing with the side of the body posteriorly corr sponds to the hinder end of the carotid groove, the outer lip of which is formed b a projecting lamina called the **lingula.** The remaining three-fifths of the conve

r is divisible into two nearly equal parts; the inner is a free, curved, sharp n, which forms the inferior margin of the **sphenoidal fissure** (fissura orbitalis ior), the cleft which separates the great wing from the lesser wing, and which lishes a wide channel of communication between the middle cranial fossa and avity of the orbit, transmitting the third, fourth, ophthalmic division of the and the sixth cranial nerves, together with the ophthalmic veins. Wide of phenoidal fissure this edge becomes broad and serrated, articulating with the al bone internally, and at the part corresponding to the anterior horn of the ent, by a surface of variable width, it unites with the anterior inferior angle e parietal bone. The *external border* corresponds to the concave side of rescent, and is serrated for articulation with the squamous temporal, being and bevelled at the expense of its outer surface above and externally, and l and thick behind as it passes towards the alar spine. The *superior* or *al surface* is concave from behind forwards, and in its fore part from side to also; it forms a considerable part of the floor of the middle cranial fossa, and the impress of the convolutions of the extremity of the temporal lobe of the rum which rests upon it; towards its outer side it is grooved obliquely by an ior branch of the middle meningeal artery. The following foramina pierce great wing: close to and in front of the alar spine is the **foramen spinosum** he transmission of the middle meningeal artery and its companion vein, ber with a recurrent branch from the third division of the V. nerve. In of and internal to this, and close to the posterior free border, is the men ovale, of large size and elongated form. This gives passage to the r root and inferior sensory division of the V. nerve, and admits the small ngeal branch of the middle meningeal artery; a small emissary vein from the nous sinus usually passes through this foramen, and occasionally also the l superficial petrosal nerve. Near the fore part of the root of the great wing, just below the sphenoidal fissure, is the **foramen rotundum**, of smaller size and lar form. Through this the second division of the V. nerve escapes from the ium. Occasionally there is a small canal—the **foramen of Vesalius**—which es the root of the great wing to the inner side of the foramen ovale. This s below into the scaphoid fossa at the base of the internal pterygoid plate, and mits a small vein. Occasionally there is a small foramen (canaliculus minatus) to the inner side of the foramen spinosum for the transmission of mall superficial petrosal nerve.

The *outer surface* of the great wing is divided into three well-marked areas; of e the upper two are separated by an oblique jagged ridge, the **malar crest** go zygomaticus), for articulation with the orbital process of the malar bone. lower part of this ridge may occasionally articulate with the malar process of superior maxilla. Of these two areas the **orbital** (facies orbitalis) is directed ards and a little inwards; of quadrilateral shape, it forms the back and outer of the orbit; plane and smooth, it is bounded behind by the sharp inferior margin of the sphenoidal fissure, towards the inner extremity of which a ted spine for the attachment of the inferior common ligament of origin of the ar muscles can usually be seen. It is limited superiorly by the edge of a rough gular area which articulates with the frontal bone; anteriorly by the malar t; whilst inferiorly a free, well-defined horizontal margin constitutes the erior and external boundary of the spheno-maxillary fissure (fissura orbitalis rior), which separates this part of the bone from the orbital plate of the superior illa. Below this border there is a grooved surface which leads inwards toward orifice of the foramen rotundum. In the articulated skull this forms part of posterior wall of the spheno-maxillary fossa.

To the outer side of the malar crest, which bounds it in front, is the **temporal** (facies temporalis), concavo-convex from before backwards. It slopes inwards w, where it is separated from the zygomatic area by a well-marked muscular e, the **infra-temporal crest** or **pterygoid ridge** (crista infratemporalis). Behind, temporal surface is bounded by the margin of the great wing which articulates the squamous temporal, and above by the edge which unites it with the rior inferior angle of the parietal and the frontal bone. The temporal surface

enters into the formation of the floor of the fossa of the same name, and affords extensive attachment to the fibres of origin of the temporal muscle. The **zygomatic surface** (facies infratemporalis), situated below the infra-temporal crest, corresponds to the under surface of the posterior half of the great wing; it extends as far back as the alar spine and posterior border. Opening on it are seen the orifices of the foramen spinosum and ovale. It is slightly concave from side to side, and is confluent internally with the outer surface of the external pterygoid plate. In front it is bounded by a ridge which curves upwards and outwards from the front part of the external pterygoid plate to join the infratemporal crest. In the articulated skull this ridge forms the posterior boundary of the pterygo-maxillary fissure. The zygomatic surface overhangs the zygomatic fossa, and affords an origin for the upper head of the external pterygoid muscle.

The **pterygoid processes** (processus pterygoidei) spring from the inferior surface of the lateral aspect of the body as well as the under side of the root of the great wings, and pass vertically downwards. Each consists of two laminæ, the external and internal pterygoid plates, fused together anteriorly, and enclosing between them posteriorly the **pterygoid fossa** (fossa pterygoidea). The **external pterygoid plate** (lamina lateralis processus pterygoidei), thin and expanded, is directed obliquely backwards and outwards, its lower part being often somewhat everted. Its hinder edge is sharp, and often has projecting from it one or two spines, to one of which (processus pterygo-spinosus) the pterygo-spinous ligament which stretches towards the alar spine is attached. Externally it furnishes an origin for the lower head of the external pterygoid muscle, and on its inner side where it forms the lateral wall of the pterygoid fossa, it supplies an attachment to the internal pterygoid muscle.

The **internal pterygoid plate** (lamina medialis processus pterygoidei) is narrower and somewhat stouter. By its inner aspect it forms the posterior part of the lateral wall of the nasal fossæ; externally it is directed towards the pterygoid fossa. Its posterior edge ends below in the hook-like **hamular process** (hamulus pterygoidei), which, reaching a lower level than the external plate, curves backwards and outwards, furnishing a groove in which the tendon of the tensor palati muscle glides; superiorly, the sharp posterior margin of the inner plate bifurcates so as to enclose the shallow **scaphoid fossa** from which the tensor palati muscle arises, and wherein may occasionally be seen the inferior aperture of the foramen Vesalii. To the inner edge of this fossa, as well as to the posterior border of the internal pterygoid plate, the pharyngeal aponeurosis is attached. Here, too, the cartilage of the Eustachian tube is supported on a slight projection, and the palato-pharyngeus muscle receives an origin, whilst the superior constrictor of the pharynx arises from the lower third of the same border and from the hamular process. Superiorly and internally the inner plate forms an incurved lamina of bone, the **vaginal process** (processus vaginalis), which is applied to the under surface of the lateral aspect of the body reaching inwards, towards the root of the rostrum, from which, however, it is separated by a groove, in which, in the articulated skull, the ala of the vomer is lodged. The angle formed by the vaginal process and the internal edge of the scaphoid fossa forms a projection called the **pterygoid tubercle**, immediately above which is the posterior aperture of the **Vidian canal** (canalis pterygoideus), through which the Vidian nerve and artery are transmitted. On the under surface the vaginal process displays a groove (sulcus pterygo-palatinus), which in the articulated skull is converted into the **pterygo-palatine canal** by its union with the palate bone. In front, at its root, the pterygoid process displays a broad smooth surface (facies spheno-maxillaris), which is confluent above with the root of the great wing around the foramen rotundum, and forms the posterior wall of the spheno-maxillary fossa. Here, to the inner side of the foramen rotundum, is seen the anterior opening of the **Vidian canal**. Below, the pterygoid plates are separated by an angular cleft, the **pterygoid notch** (fissura pterygoidea); in this is lodged the tuberosity of the palate bone, the margins of which articulate with the serrated edges of the recess.

Connexions.—The sphenoid articulates with the occipital, temporals, parietals, frontal

sphenoidal turbinals, vomer, palate and malar bones, and occasionally with the superior

itecture.—In the adult the body of the bone is hollow and encloses the sphenoidal air
ally two in number, separated by a septum. The arrangement and extent of these air
; sometimes they are multilocular, at other times simple, while occasionally they extend
is into the basi-occipital and outwards and downwards into the roots of the great wings
goid processes. Cases are on record in which in the adult the body of the bone was not
ic.

stions.—Through imperfect ossification the foramen spinosum and foramen ovale are
s incomplete posteriorly. Le Double (*Bull. et mém. de la Soc. d'Anth. de Paris*, 5e ser.
. 550), records a case in which the foramen rotundum and the sphenoidal fissure were
as to form a single cleft.

ugh deficiency of its external wall, the optic foramen, in rare instances, communicates
sphenoidal fissure. Duplication of the optic foramen is also recorded as a rare
e, the artery passing through one canal, the nerve through the other. Persistence of
o-pharyngeal canal is also occasionally met with. On the other hand, owing to the
n of fibrous bands connecting the several bony points, anomalous foramina are
y met with. Cases of persistence of the cranio-pharyngeal canal have been

ification.—The sphenoid of man is formed by the fusion of two parts, the **pre-**
l and the **post-sphenoid**, each associated with certain processes. In most mammals
to-sphenoids or lesser wings fuse with the pre-sphenoid, whilst the alisphenoids or
wings, together with the internal pterygoid plate, ankylose with the post-sphenoid.
fication of these several parts takes place in cartilage, with the exception of the
pterygoid plate, which is developed from an independent centre in the connective
the lateral wall of the oral cavity (Hertwig).

he end of the second month a centre appears in the root of the great wing between
men ovale and foramen rotundum; from this the ossification spreads outwards and
ds and also downwards into the external pterygoid plate. Meanwhile two centres
bout the same time in the basi-sphenoid in relation to the floor of the sella turcica and
r side of the cranio-pharyngeal canal, around which they ossify, ultimately leading
bliteration of this channel. Somewhat later a centre appears on either side, from
ie lateral aspect of the body and the lingula are developed. Fusion between these
tres is usually complete by the sixth month.

he pre-sphenoid a pair of lateral nuclei make their appearance about the middle of
d month, just external to the optic
a; from each of these the orbito-
ls (lesser wings) and their roots are
ed. About the same time another
centres, placed mesial to the optic
a, constitute the body of the pre-
d. By the coalescence of these in
nd their ultimate union with the basi-
d behind, a cartilaginous interval is
l, of triangular shape, which, however,
s gradually reduced in size by the
h of its margins so as to form two
r-placed foramina, as may be fre-
observed in young bones—one open-

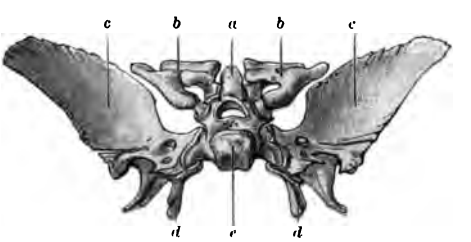


FIG. 97.—OSSIFICATION OF SPHENOID.

a, Pre-sphenoid; *b*, Orbito-sphenoids; *c*, Alisphenoids; *d*, Internal pterygoid plates; *e*, Basi-sphenoid.

the surface of the olivary eminence, the other being placed anteriorly. (Lawrence, Soc. Anat.," *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.* vol. xxviii. p. 19.)

as been seen, the internal pterygoid plates are developed in membrane and are the first the sphenoid to ossify. (Fawcett, *Anat. Anz.*, vol. xxvi. 1905, p. 280.) Each is derived ingle nucleus which appears about the ninth or tenth week, and fuses with the under of the great wing, there forming a groove which is converted into the Vidian canal he alisphenoid and internal pterygoid plates fuse later with the body of the post- d. The hamular process, however, chondrifies before it ossifies during the third

Fawcett also regards the external pterygoid plate as of membranous origin.

birth the sphenoid consists of three parts: one comprising the orbito-sphenoids r with the body of the pre-sphenoid and the basi-sphenoid, the others consisting of phenoids, one on either side. Fusion of the latter with the former occurs near the the first year. The dorsum sella at birth consists of a cartilaginous plate which es the body of the post-sphenoid from the basi-occipital. This slowly ossifies, but ilage does not entirely disappear till the age of twenty-five, by which time bony anky- the basi-cranial axis is complete. For a considerable time the under surface of the

body of the pre-sphenoid displays a bullate appearance, with the sides of which sphenoidal turbinated bones articulate. It is only after the seventh or eighth year reached that the cancellous tissue within this part of the bone becomes absorbed to the sphenoidal sinuses.

The **sphenoidal turbinals** (conchæ sphenoidales), or bones of Bertin, best studied childhood, are formed by the fusion of four distinct ossicles (Cleland), the centres which appear in the later months of utero-gestation. Each bone consists of a hollow, three sided pyramid, the apex of which is in contact with the fore part of the vaginal process the internal pterygoid, whilst the base fits on to the posterior surface of the lateral mass of the ethmoid. The *inferior surface* of each forms the roof of the corresponding nasal fossa, and completes the formation of the spheno-palatine foramen, whilst the external aspect is united with the palate bone and forms the inner wall of the spheno-maxillary fossa, and occasionally constitutes a part of the orbital wall posterior to the os planum the ethmoid. The *superior surface* of the sphenoidal turbinal is applied to the fore under surface of the body of the pre-sphenoid on either side of the rostrum. It is by absorption of this wall that the sphenoidal sinuses are ultimately opened up. The of the pyramid forms the aperture through which each of these sinuses opens into nasal fossæ in the adult. Owing to their firm ankylosis with the surrounding bones, ossicles are merely represented in the adult disarticulated skull by the irregular fragments adherent to the separated borders of the ethmoid, palate, and sphenoid bones.

The Ethmoid Bone.

The **ethmoid bone** (os ethmoidale) lies in front of the sphenoid, and occupies the interval between the orbital plates of the frontal, thus entering into the formation of the anterior cranial fossa as well as the inner walls of the orbits and roof and inner and outer walls of the nasal fossæ. The bone, which is extremely light, consists of two cellular parts—the **lateral masses**, which are united superiorly to a mesial **vertical plate** by a thin horizontal lamina which, from its perforated condition, is called the **cribriform plate**.

The study of this bone will be much facilitated by cutting through the cribriform plate on one side of the vertical plate, thus removing the lateral mass of one side exposing more fully the central perpendicular lamina.

The **vertical plate** (lamina perpendicularis), of irregular pentagonal shape, forms the upper part of the nasal septum. Its superior border projects above the level of the cribriform plate so as to form a crest, which is much elevated anteriorly, where it terminates in a bullate process called the **crista galli**, the upper edge of which is sharp and pointed, and affords attachment to the falx cerebri. In front of this process there is a groove which separates the **alar processes** (processus alares) which project from the crista galli on either side. By articulation with the frontal bone this groove is converted into a canal, the **foramen cæcum**; this, however, is not always blind, but frequently transmits a vein to the roof of the nose. The *posterior margin* of the vertical plate is thin, and articulates with the crest of the sphenoid.

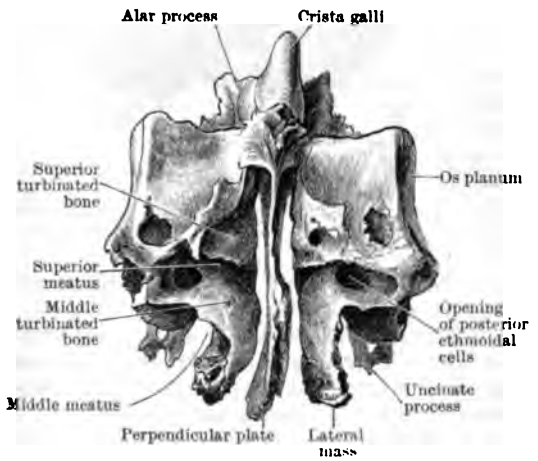


Fig. 98.—Ethmoid as seen from Behind.

The *posterior inferior border* in the adult is ankylosed with the vomer; at the *anterior inferior edge*, which is usually thicker than the others, unites with the cartilaginous nasal septum. The *anterior superior border* articulates with the nasal spine of the frontal bone and with the median crest formed by the union of the two nasal bones. The vertical plate, which is usually deflected to one or other side, has generally smooth *surfaces*, except above, where they are channelled

nd **shallow grooves** leading to the foramina which pierce the cribriform plate; re for the lodgment of the olfactory nerves.

: **lateral mass** or **labyrinth** (labyrinthus) is composed of papery bone, ng a large number of air-cells; these are arranged in three groups—an r, a middle, and rior, the walls of have been broken it, above, behind, elow, in the pro- f disarticulation. ally they are in by a thin, ob- mina, the **orbital** or **os planum** ia papyracea), forms a part of ner wall of the and articulates with the orbital of the frontal, here roofs in the dal cells. The line of this suture is pierced by two canals, the **anterior** and **or ethmoidal canals**, both of which transmit small ethmoidal vessels, whilst terior also gives passage to the nasal nerve. *In front* the os planum articu- ith the lachrymal bone; whilst *below*, by its union with the orbital surface superior maxillary bone, the air-sinuses in both situations are completed. *orly* the os planum articulates with the sphenoid, and at its posterior r angle for a variable distance with the orbital process of the palate bone, f which serve to close in the air-cells. The *mesial aspect* of the **lateral mass** s the convoluted **turbinated processes**, usually two in number, though nally there may be three—rarely more. In cases where there are two **turbinals** they are separated posteriorly by a deep groove. A channel is rmed in the back part of the lateral and upper aspect of the nasal fossæ, the **superior meatus**, which is roofed in by the superior **turbinated process** a superior), whilst its floor is formed by the upper surface of the **middle ated process** (concha media). The posterior ethmoidal cells open into this meatus. In front of the superior meatus, which only grooves the posterior half of this aspect of the bone, the surface is rounded from above downwards and before backwards, and forms the inner wall of the anterior and middle ethmoidal cells. Running obliquely from above downwards and backwards over the mesial surface of the superior concha, are a number of fine grooves continuous above with the foramina in the cribriform plate; these are fewer and more scattered in front, do not pass on to the middle concha, and are for the olfactory nerves.

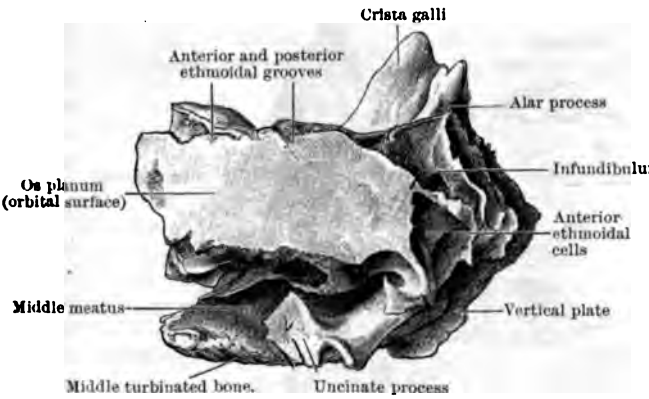
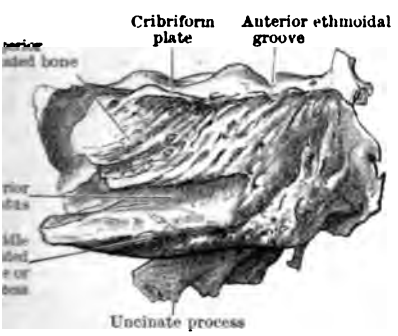


FIG. 99.—ETHMOID AS SEEN FROM THE RIGHT SIDE.



90.—SECTION SHOWING NASAL ASPECT OF LEFT LATERAL MASS OF ETHMOID.

The **middle turbinated process** (concha) is nearly twice the length of the superior. Its anterior extremity is united short distance to the superior turbinated crest on the inner side of the l process of the superior maxilla. By its thickened, free convoluted border hangs a deep groove which runs along the under surface of the lateral mass. s the **middle meatus of the nose**. It receives the openings of the middle idal cells and a passage which runs upwards and forwards from it, the ibulum. This communicates with the anterior ethmoidal cells and the l sinus. The outer side of the middle meatus is formed by the thin inner

walls of the ethmoidal cells. Curving downwards, backwards, and a litt
wards from the roof of the fore-part of this meatus is the **uncinate proce**
cessus uncinatus). This bridges across the irregular opening on the inner
the maxillary sinus, and
lates inferiorly with th
moidal process of the i
turbinated bone. The
extremity of the middle
ated bone articulates wi
ethmoidal crest on the
plate of palate bone.

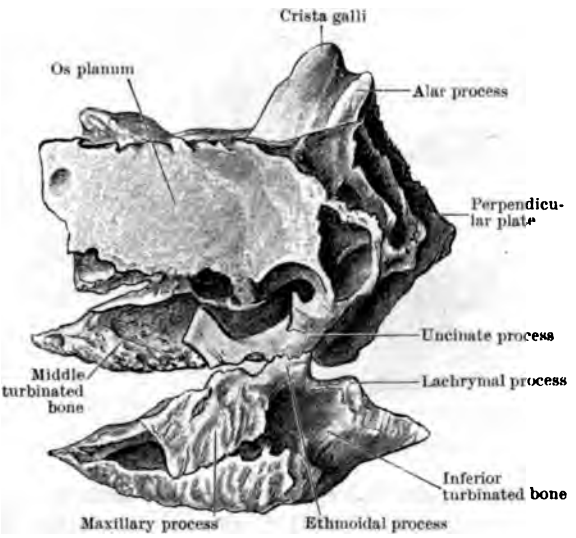


FIG. 101.—SHOWING ARTICULATION OF INFERIOR TURBINATED BONE WITH ETHMOID.

The **cribriform plate** (
cribrosa) is the hor
lamina which connect
lateral masses with the
plate, much in the same
as the cross limb of a ca
is arranged. It occupi
interval between the
plates of the frontal
roofing in the nasal fos
feriorly, and superiorly f
on either side of the crist
two shallow **olfactory groo**
which, in the recent con
the olfactory lobes of th
brum are lodged. Numerous foramina for the transmission of the olfactory
pierce this part of the bone; those to the inner and outer sides of the
are the largest and most regular in their arrangement. Along the outer edges of the cribriform plate two notches can usually be distinguished; when articulated with the frontal bone these form the inner openings of the **ethmoidal canals**. Leading forward from the anterior of these there is often a groove which crosses to the side of the crista galli, where it ends in a slit which allows of the transmission of the nasal nerve to the nose. Posteriorly the cribriform plate articulates with the ethmoidal spine of the sphenoid.

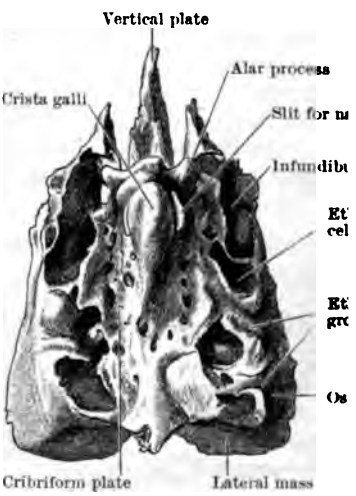


FIG. 102.—ETHMOID AS SEEN FROM

Connexions.—The ethmoid articulates with the sphenoid and sphenoidal turbinals, the frontal, the two nasals, two superior maxillæ, two lachrymals, two inferior turbinals, two palates, and the vomer.

Variations.—The size of the os planum is liable to considerable variations. In the lower races it tends to be narrower from above downwards than in the higher, in this respect resembling the condition met with in the anthropoids. The os planum may fail to articulate with the lachrymal owing to the union of the frontal with the orbital proce superior maxilla in front of it. (Orbito-maxillary frontal suture. A. Thomson, *Jour and Physiol.* vol. xxiv. p. 349.) Division of the os planum by a vertical suture into an and posterior part has been frequently recorded. The number of the turbinals may be i from two to four, or may be reduced to one. (Report of Committee of Collect. Invest. *Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxviii. p. 74.)

Ossification takes place in the cartilage of the nasal capsule. Each lateral n one centre, which appears about the fourth or fifth month in the neighbourhood os planum. From this the laminæ around the ethmoidal air cells are formed wl complete at birth, the air-sinuses in this instance not being formed by the abs of cancellous bone. From these centres the turbinals are also developed, and the are ossified at the ninth month.

At birth the ossified lateral masses are united to the central cartilaginous plate by a mous layer. Two centres make their appearance in the mesial cartilage on either side the root of the crista galli about the end of the first year; from these, the crista galli d the vertical plate are ossified as well as the mesial part of the cribriform plate, the teral portions of which are derived from an inward extension of the lateral mass.

Ossification is usually complete about the fifth or sixth year. About the twenty-fifth ar bony union has taken place between the cribriform plate and the sphenoid, but kylosis between the vertical plate and the vomer is not usual till the fortieth or forty-th year.

Wormian Bones.

Along the line of the cranial sutures and in the region of the fontanelles, isolated nes of irregular form and variable size are occasionally met with. These are the called Wormian bones, named after the Danish anatomist Wormius. They are also ed sutural or epactal bones. Their presence depends on the fact that they are either veloped from distinct ossific nuclei, or it may be from a division of the primary ossific posit. Their occurrence may also be associated with certain pathological conditions ich modify the development of the bone. They usually include the whole thickness the cranial wall, or it may be only involve the outer or inner tables of the cranial nes. They are most frequent in the region of the lambda and the lambdoid suture. y occur commonly about the pterion, and in this situation are called epipteric bones lower). By their fusion with one or other of the adjacent bones they here lead to the currence of a fronto-squamosal suture. Their presence has also been noted along the se of the sagittal suture, and sometimes in metopic skulls in the inter-frontal suture. ey are occasionally met with at the asterion and more rarely at the obelion. They pear less frequently in the face, but their presence has been noted around the lachrymal ne, and also at the extremity of the spheno-maxillary fissure, where they may form an dependent nodule wedged in between the great wing of the sphenoid, the malar, and e superior maxillary bones.

BONES OF THE FACE.

The bones of the face (ossa faciei), fourteen in number, comprise two superior axillæ, two palates, two malars, two lachrymals, and two nasals, together with the omer and inferior maxilla.

The Superior Maxillary Bones.

The **superior maxillæ** (maxillæ), of which there are two, unite to form the pper jaw. Each consists of a **body**, with which are connected four projections, named respectively the **zygomatic, frontal, alveolar**, and **palatal processes.**

The **body** (corpus) is of pyramidal form, and contains within it a hollow called the **antrum** or **maxillary air-sinus**. It has four surfaces—an antero-external or facial, a postero-external or zygomatic, a supero-external or orbital, and an internal or nasal. The *antero-external* or **facial surface** (facies anterior) is confluent below with the alveolar process. Above, it is separated from the orbital aspect by the **infraorbital margin** (margo infraorbitalis), whilst internally it is limited by the free margin of the **nasal notch**, which ends below in the pointed **anterior nasal spine** (spina nasalis anterior). Posteriorly it is separated from the zygomatic surface by the inferior border of the **zygomatic process**. The facial aspect of the bone is ridged by the sockets of the teeth (juga alveolaria). The ridge corresponding to the root of the canine tooth is usually the most pronounced; internal to this, and overlying the roots of the incisor teeth, is the shallow **incisive** or **myrtiform fossa**, whilst placed externally, on a higher level, is the deeper **canine fossa**, the floor of which is formed in part by the projecting zygomatic process. Above this, and near the infraorbital margin, is the **infraorbital foramen**, the external opening of the infraorbital canal, which transmits the infraorbital nerve and artery. The *postero-external* or **zygomatic surface** is separated above from the orbital aspect by a rounded free edge, which forms the anterior margin of the **spheno-maxillary fissure** in the articulated skull. Inferiorly and in front it is separated from the facial surface by the zygomatic process and its free lower border. Internally it is limited

by a sharp, irregular margin with which the palate bone articulates. This s
is more or less convex, and is directed towards the zygomatic and spheno-max
fossæ. It is pierced in a downward direction by the apertures of the **pos**
dental canals (fora
alveolaria), two
more in number, t
transmit the c
sponding nerves
vessels to the t
teeth. Its lower
slightly more p
nent where it overl
the root of the wi
molar, is often c
the **tuberosity** (
maxillare). The su
external or **orbital**
face (planum orbi
smooth and plan
triangular in shap
forms part of the
of the orbit. It
terior edge corres
to the infrao
margin; its pos
border coincides
the anterior boun

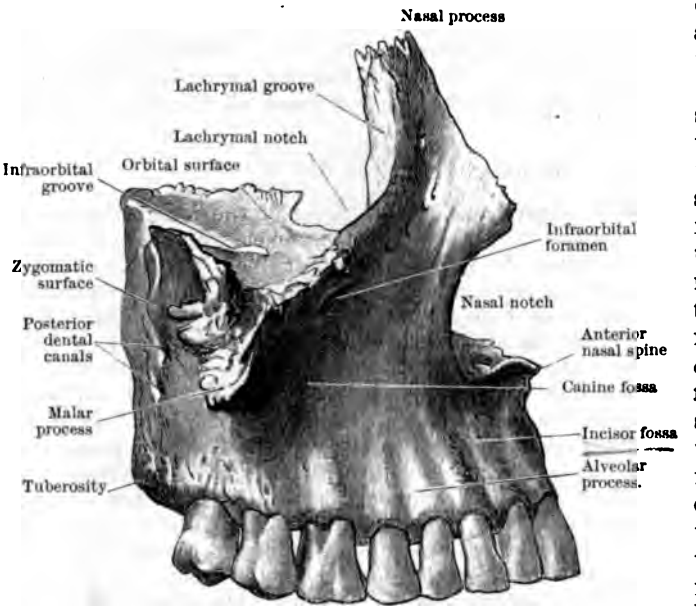


FIG. 103.—RIGHT SUPERIOR MAXILLA (Outer View).

of the spheno-maxillary fissure. Its thin inner edge, which may be regarded a
base of the triangle, is notched in front to form the **lachrymal groove** (sulcus
malis), behind which it articulates with the lachrymal bone for a short dist
then for a greater length with the os planum of the ethmoid, and terminates posteriorly in a surface for articulation with the orbital process of the palate bone. Its external angle corresponds to the outspring of the zygomatic process. Traversing its substance is the **infraorbital canal**, the anterior opening of which has been already noticed on the facial aspect of the body. Behind, however, owing to deficiency of its roof, the canal forms a groove which lips the edge of the bone which constitutes the anterior boundary of the spheno-maxillary fissure. If this canal be laid open, the orifices of the middle and anterior dental canals will be seen, which transmit the corresponding vessels and nerves to the bic
and incisor teeth. The *inner* or **nasal surface** (facies nasalis) of the bc
directed inwards towards the nasal fossæ. Below it is confluent with the

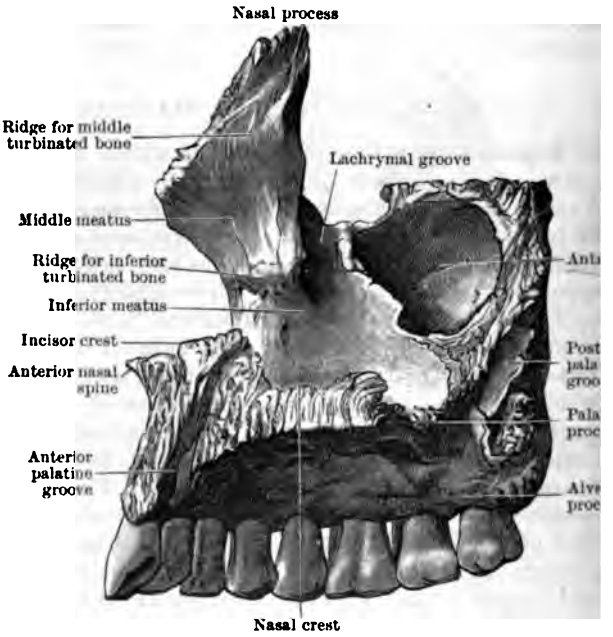


FIG. 104.—RIGHT SUPERIOR MAXILLA (Inner Aspect).

of the palatal process; in front it is limited by the sharp edge of the notch; above and in front it is continuous with the inner surface of the process; behind this it is deeply channelled by the **lachrymal groove**, which erted into a canal by articulation with the lachrymal and inferior turbinated

The channel so formed conveys the nasal duct from the orbital cavity to the inferior nasal meatus below. Behind this groove the upper edge of ea corresponds to the inner margin of the orbital surface, and articulates efore backwards with the lachrymal, os planum of the ethmoid, and the process of the palate bone. The posterior border, rough for articulation he palate bone, is traversed obliquely from above downwards and slightly ls by a groove, which, by articulation with the palate bone, is converted into sterior palatine or **palato-maxillary canal** which transmits the descending pala- rtery and great palatine nerve. Towards its upper and hinder part the nasal e of the body displays the irregular, more or less triangular, opening of the a (sinus maxillaris). This aperture, which, in the articulated skull opens ne middle meatus of the nose, is much reduced in size by articulation with achrymal, ethmoid, palate, and inferior turbinal bones. In front of the mal groove the inner surface is ridged horizontally by the **inferior turbinated** crista conchalis), to which the inferior turbinated bone is attached. Below he bone forms the outer wall of the inferior nasal meatus, receiving the ation of the lachrymal groove. Above, and for some little distance also on ner side of the frontal process, it constitutes the smooth outer wall of the of the middle meatus.

ne **zygomatic** or **malar process** (processus zygomaticus), which is placed on ter surface of the body, is confluent anteriorly with the facial surface of the posteriorly, where it is concave from side to side, with the zygomatic surface; superiorly, where it is rough and articular, it forms the apex of the triangular l plate, and supports the malar bone. Inferiorly, its anterior and posterior es meet to form an arched border, which fuses with the alveolar process ite the root of the first molar tooth, and serves to separate the facial from the atic aspects of the body.

ne **frontal** or **nasal process** (processus frontalis) rises from the upper and art of the body. It has two surfaces—one external, the other internal. The *al* is divided into two by a vertical ridge (crista lachrymalis anterior), which upward extension of the infraorbital margin. The narrow strip of bone l this ridge is hollowed out, and leads into the lachrymal groove below. riorly the edge of the frontal process here articulates with the lachrymal, and ms the fossa for the lodgment of the lachrymal sac (fossa sacci lacrimalis). ont of the vertical crest, to which the tendo oculi is attached, the external e is confluent below with the facial aspect of the body, and forms the side of ot of the nose. Its anterior edge is rough, or grooved, for articulation with asal bone. Superiorly the summit of the process is serrated for articulation he nasal notch of the frontal bone. The *inner surface* of the nasal process is ed towards the nasal fossæ. It is crossed obliquely from below upwards and ards by a ridge—the **agger nasi** or **superior turbinated crest** (crista ethmoidalis). this the bone is smooth and forms the upper part of the atrium, whilst the itself articulates posteriorly with the fore-part of the middle turbinated bone, d by the inferior turbinated process of the ethmoid bone.

ne **alveolar process** (processus alveolaris) projects from the under surface of dy of the bone below the level of the palatal process. Of curved form, it etes, with its fellow of the opposite side, the alveolar arch, in which are lded in sockets or alveoli the roots of the teeth of the upper jaw; ordinarily adult, when dentition is complete, each alveolar process supports eight teeth. ng the inner surface of the alveolar border behind the incisor teeth two vascular foramina are usually visible. When any or all the teeth are shed veoli become absorbed, and the process may under these circumstances be d to the level of the plane of the palatal process. Posteriorly the alveolar s ends below the **tuberosity** of the body; anteriorly it shares in the formation **intermaxillary suture.**

The **palatal process** (processus palatinus), of the form of a quadrant, lies in t horizontal plane; it has two surfaces—upper and under—and three borders, a stra internal, a more or less straight posterior, and a curved external, by which la it is attached to the inner side of the body and alveolar process as far back as interval between the second and third molar teeth. Its *under surface*, toge with that of its fellow, forms the anterior three-fourths of the vaulted hard pal it is rough and pitted for the glands of the mucous membrane of the roof of mouth, and is grooved on either side near the alveolar margin by a channel wh passes forward from the **posterior palatine canal** and transmits the great pala nerve and descending palatine artery. Its *superior surface*, smooth and conc from side to side, forms the floor of the corresponding nasal fossa. Its *interna mesial border*, broad and serrated, rises in a ridge superiorly, so as to form with fellow of the opposite side the **nasal crest** (crista nasalis), which is grooved superi to receive the lower border of the vomer. In front of its articulation with vomer this ridge rises somewhat higher, being named the **incisor crest**, anterior which it projects beyond the free border of the nasal notch, and together with fellow forms the pointed projection called the **anterior nasal spine** (spina nas anterior). These parts support the septal cartilage of the nose. Immediately the outer side of the incisor crest the superior surface of the palatal proces pierced by a foramen which leads downwards, forward, and a little inwards, to o into a broad groove on the mesial border of the bone immediately behind central incisor tooth. When the two maxillæ are articulated, the two groo form the oval **anterior palatine canal** or **fossa**, into which the two aforementio foramina open like the limbs of a Y; these are called the **incisor foramina, or foramina of Stensen**, and contain the remains of the organs of Jacobson. In fr and behind these, and lying within the fossa and in *the line* of the suture, are smaller **foramina of Scarpa**, which transmit the naso-palatine nerves, the right ne usually passing through the posterior foramen, the left through the anterior. *posterior border* of the palatal process, which is sharp and thin, falls in line wi the interval between the second and third molar, and articulates with the horizon plate of the palate bone.

The **maxillary sinus** or **antrum of Highmore** (sinus maxillaris) lies within body of the bone, and is of corresponding pyramidal form, its base being direc towards the nasal fossa, with the middle meatus of which it communicates, summit extending outwards into the root of the zygomatic process. It is clo in externally and above by the thin walls which form the facial, zygomatic, a orbital surfaces of the body. Inferiorly it overlies the alveolar process in wh the molar teeth are implanted, the sockets of which are separated from it by a th layer of bone.

Advantage is taken of this circumstance to pierce the floor of the antrum in such conditi as necessitate its thorough drainage, as its natural outlet into the middle meatus is of the nat of an overflow aperture, and so prevents purulent fluids, which may here accumulate, from be readily discharged.

The angles and corners of this cavity are frequently groined by narrow rid of bone, one superiorly corresponds to the relief formed by the infraorbital can A vascular and nervous groove is often exposed, curving along the floor of antrum just above the alveoli of the teeth. The interior of the cavity is lined an extension from the mucous membrane of the nose.

Connexions.—The superior maxillary bone articulates with the nasal, frontal, lachryn and ethmoid bones above, externally with the malar, and occasionally with the sphen posteriorly and internally with the palate, whilst on its inner side it unites with its fellow the opposite side, and also supports the inferior turbinated bone and the vomer.

Architecture.—The disposition of the maxillary sinus within the body of the bone has b already referred to. In union with its fellow, the vaulted arrangement of the hard palate is displayed, and the arched arrangement of the superior alveolar processes is obvious. It is these latter processes around the sockets for the reception of the teeth that the cancellous ti of the bone is seen; elsewhere its walls are formed by thin and dense bone.

Variations.—Not unfrequently there is a suture running vertically through the bar of b which separates the infraorbital foramen from the infraorbital margin. Through imperfect in ossification the infraorbital canal may form an open groove along the floor of the orbit.

sification.—The superior maxillæ are developed in the connective tissue around l aperture of the embryo. The centres from which the bone ossifies are not l by a cartilaginous stage. Their number is uncertain, as early fusion occurs them. They first make their appearance in the second month of intrauterine tly after the clavicle has begun to ossify. By the sixth month they are so united r independent character is obscured. Five centres are described—an *external* or hich forms the bone to the outer side of the infraorbital canal; an *inner* or *al*, from which is developed the inner part of the floor of the orbit, the frontal and the wall of the antrum; a *palatine*, for the posterior three-fourths of the rocess; a *nasal*, situated between the frontal process and the canine tooth; and is and nearer the middle line and below, an *incisive centre*, from which the pre- are developed, thus forming the anterior fourth of the palatal process in the n the early stages of the development of the bone the alveolar groove, in which are developed, lies close below the infraorbital groove, and it is not till later y become separated by the growth of the which first makes its appearance as a shallow he inner side of the orbito-nasal element about h month. In the adult bone the course of the tal canal and foramen indicates the line of fusion bito-nasal and malar elements, whilst the position terior palatine canal serves to determine the line of the incisive with the palatal elements. In to the foregoing centres, Rambaud and Renault another which, together with its fellow, is wedged en the incisive and the palatal elements beneath r, thus explaining the Y-shaped arrangement of mina of Stensen, which open into the anterior canal.

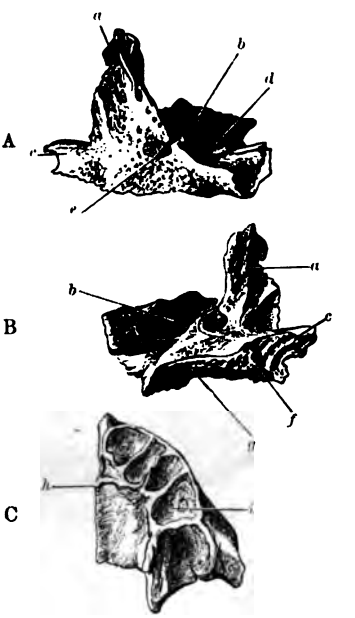


FIG. 105.—OSSIFICATION OF SUPERIOR MAXILLA.

A, Outer side; B, Inner side; C, Under side. *a*, Nasal process; *b*, Orbital plate; *c*, Anterior nasal spine; *d*, Infraorbital groove; *e*, Infraorbital foramen; *f*, Anterior palatine groove; *g*, Palatal process; *h*, Premaxillary suture; *i*, Alveolar process.

premaxillæ, which in most vertebrates are in- at bones lying in front of the superior maxillæ, e in man and apes the portions of the upper ch lie in front of the anterior palatine foramen, port the superior incisor teeth. They are de- from the incisive centres above described; the usion of these elements with the maxillæ proper lily be seen in young skulls, and occasionally the adult. It corresponds to a suture which n the palate obliquely outwards and forwards, e anterior palatine foramen to the interval the lateral incisor and the canine tooth. In alveolar cleft palate the adjacent bones fail to ng the line of the suture. In some instances, , the cleft passes outwards between the central ral incisor teeth, and this condition suggests the ion that the premaxillary element is derived centres—a lateral and a mesial. The researches echt and Warinski have confirmed this view. er anatomist further observes that the lateral cleavage may lead to a division of the erm of the lateral incisor tooth, and so explain the occurrence of the supernumer- sor which is occasionally met with. In this way the different varieties of cleft re readily explained; mesial cleft palate being due to failure of union between the maxillary bones. Lateral cleft palate may be of two types: the cleft in one case forward between the central and lateral incisor, and being due to the non-union two elements from which the premaxilla is primarily developed; the other, in he cleft passes between the lateral incisor and the canine, or between the lateral and a supernumerary incisor, owing to the imperfect fusion of the premaxilla r with the maxilla.

THE MALAR BONES.

malar bone (os zygomaticum) underlies the most prominent part of the and is hence often called the cheek-bone. Placed to the outer side of the cavity, it forms the sharp external border of that hollow, and serves to

separate that space from the temporal and zygomatic fossæ which lie behin below, it rests upon and is united to the superior maxilla; behind, it enters int the formation of the zygomatic arch which bridges across the temporal fossa.

As viewed from the outer side, the bone is convex from side to side, and ha four angles, of which three are prominent. These are the **ascending** or **fronta** (processus fronto-sphenoidalis), the **anterior** or pointed extremity of the maxillar border, and the **posterior** or **temporal** (processus temporalis).

The most elevated part of the convex *outer surface* (facies anterior) forms th **malar tuberosity**. The **processus temporalis**, sometimes called the zygomatic proces ends posteriorly in an oblique edge, which articulates with the extremity of th zygomatic process of the temporal bone. The **frontal**, the most prominent of it processes, is united superiorly to the external angular process of the frontal bon The edge between the frontal and temporal processes is thin and sharp; it afford attachment to the temporal fascia, and near its upper end there is usually pronounced angle (processus marginalis), formed by a sudden change in the direc tion of the border of the bone. It is just below this point that the tempor branch of the orbital nerve becomes cutaneous. The lower margin of the tempor process is somewhat thicker and rounded; it extends downwards and forwar towards the inferior angle, where the bone articulates with the superior maxill

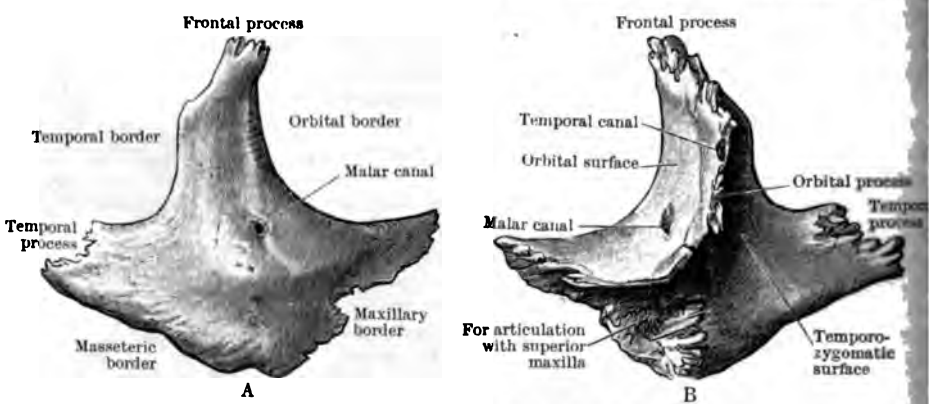


FIG. 106.—RIGHT MALAR BONE. A, Outer Side; B, Inner Side.

and is there confluent with the ridge which separates the facial from the zygomat aspect of the upper jaw. This edge of the bone is sometimes called the **masseter border**, since it affords attachment to the fibres of origin of the masseter musc Sweeping downwards in front of the frontal process is a curved edge whic terminates inferiorly in a pointed process. This border forms the outer and, i part, the inferior margin of the orbital cavity. Between the anterior extremity the masseteric edge and the pointed anterior angle there is an irregular suture b which the bone is joined to the maxilla. The opening of the **malar canal** (forame zygomatico-faciale) is seen on the outer surface of the bone; its size and positio are very variable.

The *mesial aspect* of the bone is distinguished by a curved elevated crest, calle the **orbital process**, which extends inwards and backwards, and is confluer externally with the orbital margin. This process has two surfaces—one anterio which forms a part of the outer and lower wall of the orbit, and one posterio which is directed towards the temporal fossa above and the zygomatic fossa belo The free edge of the orbital process is thin and serrated; a little below its middle is usually interrupted by a non-articular notch, which corresponds to the anteri extremity of the spheno-maxillary fissure. The part above this articulates with th great wing of the sphenoid, the portion below with the orbital plate of the superi maxilla. Behind the orbital process the inner surface of the bone is concave fro side to side, and extends backwards along the mesial aspect of the temporal proce and upwards over the posterior half of the inner side of the frontal process, thu entering into the formation of the zygomatic and temporal fossæ respectivel

ital surface of the orbital process usually displays the openings of two foramina zygomatic-orbitalia)—one which traverses the bone below the nargin and appears on the front of the bone as already described, the other asses obliquely upwards and outwards through the orbital process and in the temporal fossa, to the inner side of the frontal process (foramen ico-temporale). The former transmits the ramus subcutaneous malæ; the ie temporal branch of the orbital nerve.

w the orbital process there is a rough triangular area, bounded externally naxillary border. This articulates with the malar process of the superior and occasionally forms the outer wall of the antrum.

xions.—The malar bone articulates with the frontal, sphenoid, superior maxilla, and bones.

itecture.—In structure the bone is compact, with little cancellous tissue. Together zygomatic process of the temporal bone it forms the buttress which supports the superior and the outer orbital wall externally. Additional strength is imparted to the bone by lar mode of union of its orbital and facial parts.

itions.—Cases of division of the malar bone by a horizontal suture have been recorded, instances of its separation into two parts by a vertical suture. Owing to the supposed uent occurrence of this divided condition in Asiatics the malar has been named the os m. Barclay Smith ("Proc. Anat. Soc.," *Jour. Anat. and Physiol.*, April 1898, p. 40) a case in which the malar bone was divided into two parts, an upper and lower, by a l extension of the maxilla, which articulated with the zygomatic process of the temporal, ning a temporo-maxillary arch. Varieties of a like kind have also been described by nd others. Cases have been noted where, owing to deficiency in the development of the e continuity of the zygomatic arch has been incomplete.

ification.—The malar ossifies in membrane. Its basis appears about the tenth a thin ossifying lamina which corresponds to the orbital margin, attached to here is a backward expansion corresponding to of the bone; from this posteriorly there extends ent of the temporal process. On the inner side, re the angle formed by the orbital and temporal there appears a secondary thickening, which into a cap-shaped layer which fits into the nd ultimately forms the surface of the bone to the temporal fossa. Below the orbital on the inner side, and extending backwards the temporal process, is another secondary ng which forms a club-shaped nodule, the thick which is directed forwards, whilst posteriorly it forms, in part, the lower margin body and temporal process. The overlap of these several parts leads to the n of grooves which may persist in the adult as sutures. (Karl Toldt, junr., *der Akad. des Wiss.*, Wien. July 1902.)

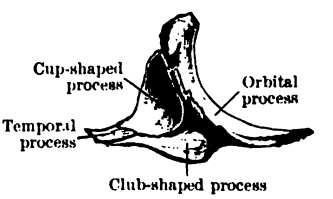


FIG. 107.—INNER SURFACE OF MALAR BONE AT BIRTH.

THE NASAL BONES.

nasal bones (ossa nasalia), two in number, lie in the interval between the processes of the superior maxillæ, there forming the root or bridge of the Each bone is of elongated quadrangular form, having two surfaces—an nd outer—and four borders. The *external surface*, somewhat constricted its middle, is convex from side to side, and slightly concavo-convex from downwards. Near its centre there is usually the opening of a nutrient canal. *internal surface* is not so extensive as the external, as the superior and r articular borders encroach somewhat upon it above. Concave from side to d also from above downwards, it is covered, in the recent condition, by the membrane of the nose. Running downwards along this surface is a groove (sulcus ethmoidalis) which transmits the internal nasal nerve. The r or *internal border*, narrow below, is thick above, and, in conjunction with ow at the opposite side, with which it articulates, forms a median crest orly, which is united to the nasal spine of the frontal, the vertical plate of moid, and the septal cartilage of the nose, in that order from above down-

The *posterior* or *external border*, usually the longest, is serrated and

bevelled to fit on to the anterior edge of the frontal process of the superior
The *superior border* forms a wide toothed surface, which articulates with t
part of the nasal notch of th
bone anteriorly; whilst, behin
in contact with the root of t
process of the same bone. Th
border is thin and sharp, an
nected below with the lateral
of the nose, and is usuall
notched near its mesial extre

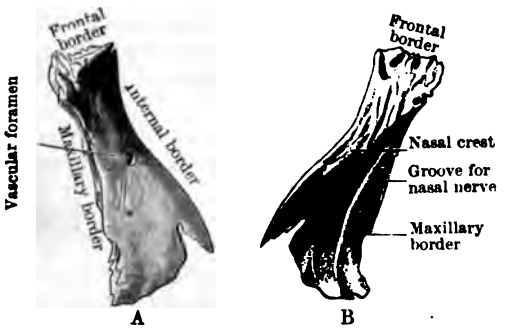


FIG. 108.—RIGHT NASAL BONE. A, Outer side; B, Inner side.

Connexions.—The nasal bone
with its fellow of the opposite
the frontal above, behind with
plate of the ethmoid and with t
process of the superior maxilla.
united to the septal and upper la
lages of the nose.

Architecture.—Formed of
compact bone; the strength of the nasal bones is increased by their mode of unic
formation of a median crest posteriorly.

Variations.—The size and configuration of the nasal bones vary greatly in diffe
being, as a rule, large and prominent in the white races, and flat and reduced in size
depressed, in the Mongolian and Negro stock. Obliteration of the internasal suture i
it is stated to occur more frequently in negroes, and is the recognised condition in adu

Duckworth has recorded a case (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxxvi. p. 257) of undu
downwards of the nasal bone, which may be perhaps accounted for on the supposition
lower part is a persistent portion of the premaxilla.

Ossification.—The nasal bones are each developed from a single centre, wh
its appearance about the end of the second month in the membrane coverin
part of the cartilaginous nasal capsule. Subsequent to birth the underlying ca
stratum disappears, persisting, however, below in the form of the lateral nasal
and behind as the septal cartilage of the nose.

THE LACHRYMAL BONES.

The **lachrymal bone** (os lachrymale), or os unguis, a thin scale of bone
size of a finger-nail, forms part of the inner orbital wall behind the fr
cess of the superior maxilla. Irregularly quadrangular, it has two sur
inner and outer—and four borders.

Its *external* or *orbital surface* has a vertical ridge, the **lachrymal cr**
lachrymalis posterior), running downwards upon it. In front of this is the
groove (sulcus lachrymalis) for the lodgment of the lachry-
mal sac. The floor of this groove descends below the level
of the bulk of the bone, and forms the **descending process**,
which helps to complete the osseous canal for the nasal
duct, and articulates inferiorly with the inferior turbinal.
The lower end of the lachrymal crest terminates in a
hook-like projection, the **hamular process** (hamulus lachry-
malis), which curves round the posterior and outer edge
of the lachrymal notch of the superior maxilla, and thus
defines the upper aperture of the canal for the nasal duct.
To the free edge of the crest behind the lachrymal groove
are attached the reflected portion of the tendo oculi, and
the tensor tarsi muscle. The part of the bone behind the
lachrymal crest is smooth and continuous with the surface of the os p
the ethmoid. The *inner surface* is irregular and cellular above; it close
of the anterior ethmoidal cells. Where it is smoother it forms a pa
lateral wall of the middle meatus of the nose immediately behind th
process of the superior maxilla, and above the inferior turbinated bo
superior border articulates with the orbital plate of the frontal; the *ant*
with the posterior border of the frontal process of the superior maxi

FIG. 109.—RIGHT BONE (Orbital

it completes the lachrymal groove for the lodgment of the lachrymal sac. *erior margin* articulates with the orbital surface of the superior maxilla, front by its **descending process** with the inferior turbinal. *Posteriorly* the iculates with the anterior border of the os planum of the ethmoid.

ıxions.—The lachrymal bone articulates with four bones—the frontal, ethmoid, inferior and the superior maxilla.

tecture.—The bone consists of a thin papery translucent lamina, somewhat strengthhe addition of the vertical crest.

tions.—The lachrymal is occasionally absent. In some cases it is divided into two others replaced by a number of smaller ossicles. In rare instances the hamular process ıd forwards to reach the orbital margin, and so bear a share in the formation of the face, ırs (Gegenbauer). In other instances the hamulus is much reduced in size. Occasionachrymal is separated from the os planum of the ethmoid by a down-growth from the hich articulates with the orbital process of the superior maxilla, as is the normal n in the gorilla and chimpanzee. (Turner, *Challenger Reports*, "Zoology," vol. x. Plate I.; and A. Thomson, *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, London, vol. xxiv. p. 349.)

fication.—The lachrymal is developed from a single centre, which makes its ce about the end of the second or the beginning of the third month of intrafe in the membrane around the cartilaginous nasal capsule.

The Inferior Turbinated Bones.

inferior turbinated or spongy bone (concha inferior) is a shell-like lamina lying along the lower part of the outer wall of the nasal fossa. Of d form, the bone displays two curved borders enclosing an internal and surface.

superior or *attached* border is thin and sharp in front and behind, where

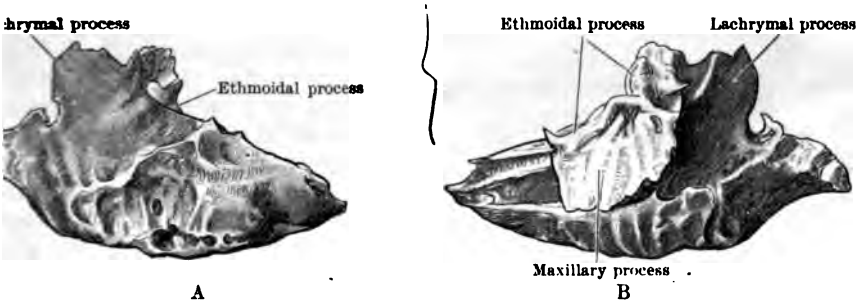


Fig. 110.—Right Inferior Turbinated Bone. A, Inner Surface; B, Outer Surface.

culates with the inferior turbinal crests on the inner surface of the body superior maxilla and the vertical plate of the palate bone respectively. en these two borders the central part of the upper edge rises in the form of p crest, the fore-part of which forms the upstanding **lachrymal process** (pro- lachrymalis), which articulates above with the descending process of the mal bone, as well as with the edges of the nasal groove of the superior la, thus completing the osseous canal of the nasal duct. The posterior end is crest is elevated in the form of an irregular projection called the **ethmoidal s** (processus ethmoidalis). This unites with the uncinate process of the oid bone (see Fig. 101). Spreading downwards from the middle of the ior border, on its outer side, is a thin, irregular plate of bone, the **maxillary s** (processus maxillaris), which partially conceals the outer concave surface e bone, and, by its union with the inner wall of the maxillary sinus, assists in ompletion of the partition which separates that cavity from the inferior nasal ıs. The *inferior* or *free border*, gently curved from before backwards and ly out-turned, is rounded and full, and formed of bone which is deeply pitted f a somewhat cellular character. The anterior and posterior extremities of ne, formed by the convergence of the upper and lower borders, are thin and ; as a rule the hinder end is the more pointed of the two. The *internal* e projects into the nasal fossa; convex from above downwards, and slightly

curved from before backwards, it forms the floor of the middle meatus. It rough and pitted, and displays some scattered and longitudinally directed vasc grooves. The *outer surface* overhangs the inferior nasal meatus. Concave f above downwards, and to some extent from before backwards, it is directed tow the outer wall of the nasal fossa. It is smooth in front, where it correspond the opening of the canal for the nasal duct; behind and towards its lower bo it is irregular and pitted. In the disarticulated bone this surface is in part c cealed by the downward projecting maxillary process.

Connexions.—The inferior turbinal articulates with the superior maxilla, lachry ethmoid, and palate bones.

Variation.—A case in which the inferior turbinals were absent has been recorded Hyrtl.

Ossification.—The inferior turbinate bone, the maxillo-turbinal of compara anatomy, is derived from the cartilage forming the outer wall of the nasal capsule, upper portion of which forms the ethmo-turbinals. It ossifies, however, from a sepa centre, which appears about the fifth month of fœtal life, and later contracts a u by a horizontal lamella on its outer side with the superior maxillary bone.

The Vomer.

The **vomer**, a bone of irregular quadrilateral shape, is placed mesially in hinder part of the nasal septum. It has four borders and two surfaces. *superior border*, which can readily be distinguished by the presence on either of an everted lip or ala, slopes from be upwards and forwards, and articul with the under surface of the body of sphenoid, the pointed rostrum of w is received into the groove formed by projecting alæ. Laterally these ala wedged in between the sphenoidal cesses of the palate bone in front, the vaginal processes at the root o internal pterygoid plates behind.

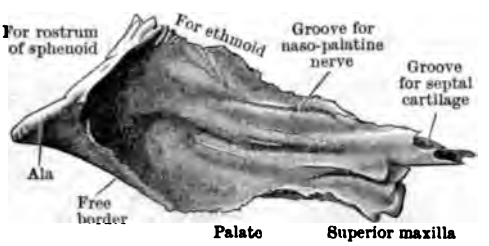


Fig. 111.—Vomer as seen from the Right Side.

posterior border, which slopes from be downwards and forwards, is free, and forms a sharp, slightly curved edge; constitutes the posterior margin of the nasal septum, and serves to separate openings of the posterior nares. The *inferior border*, more or less horizontal direction, articulates with the nasal crest formed by the superior maxillary palate bones. The *anterior edge* is the longest; it slopes obliquely from ab downwards and forwards. In its upper half it is ankylosed to the perpendic plate of the ethmoid; in its lower half this margin is grooved for the recep of the septal cartilage of the nose. The *anterior extremity* of the bone form truncated angle, which articulates with the hinder border of the incisor cre the superior maxillæ, and sends downwards a pointed process which passes betw the incisor foramina. The *right* and *left surfaces* of the bone are smooth, covered by mucous membrane. It is not uncommon to find them deflected one or other side. A few vascular grooves may be noticed scattered over th surfaces, and one, usually more distinct than the others, running obliquely do wards and forwards, indicates the course of the naso-palatine nerve.

Connexions.—The vomer articulates with the sphenoid, the ethmoid, the palates, and superior maxillæ. In front it supports the septal cartilage.

Architecture.—The bone is composed of two compact layers fused below, but separated ab by the groove for the lodgment of the rostrum of the sphenoid behind, and the septal cartil front. The lamellæ are also separated from each other by a canal which runs horizontally behind forwards in the substance of the bone, and which transmits the nutrient ves the bone.

Variations.—Owing to imperfect ossification there may be a deficiency in the bone, filled during life by cartilage. The separation of the two lamellæ along the anterior border va considerably, and instances are recorded where they were separated by a considerable cav within the substance of the bone. The spheno-vomerine canal is a minute opening beh

e rostrum of the sphenoid, and between it and the alæ of the vomer, by which the nutrient tery enters the bone.

Ossification.—The vomer, primitively double, begins to ossify about the end of the cond month of fœtal life. A nucleus appears on either side in the membrane overlying e back and lower part of the vomerine cartilage; these form the primitive lamellæ veloped on either side of, and not from, the cartilage. About the third month these minæ become fused behind and below, thus forming a deep groove in which the cartilage lodged. As growth goes on the groove becomes reduced by the further fusion of the teral plates and the absorption of the cartilage, until the age of puberty, by which ne the lateral laminæ have united to form a mesial plate, the primitively divided con- tion of which is now only represented by the eversion of the alæ and the grooving ng the anterior border.

The Palate Bones.

The **palate bone** (os palatinum), of irregular shape, assists in the formation of e outer wall of the back part of the nasal fossæ, the posterior portion of the hard alate, the orbit, the spheno-maxillary, zygomatic, and the pterygoid fossæ. It

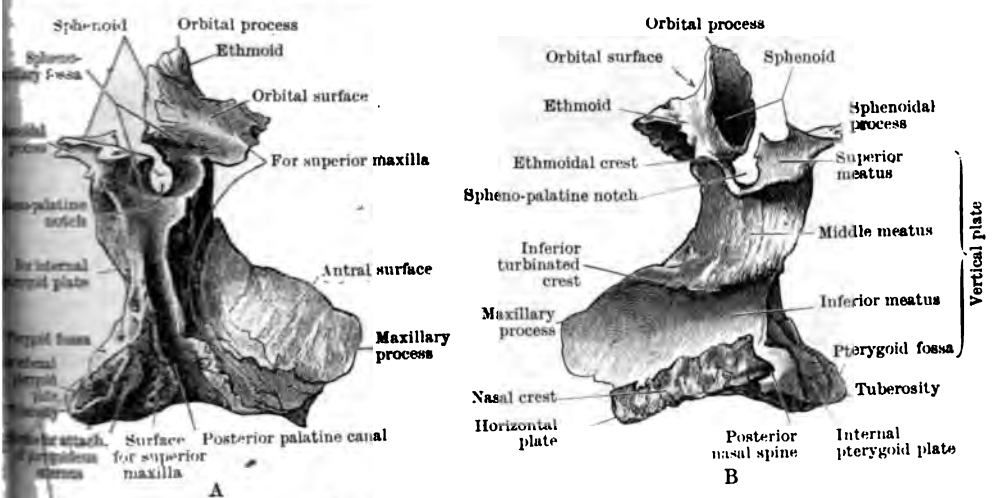


Fig. 112.—Right Palate Bone.

A, As seen from the Outer Side; B, As viewed from the Inner Side.

consists of a **horizontal** and a **vertical plate**, united to each other like the limbs of the letter L. At their point of union there is an irregular outstanding process, called the **tuberosity**, whilst capping the summit of the vertical plate and separated by a deep cleft are two irregular pieces of bone, called the **sphenoidal** and **orbital** processes.

The **horizontal plate** (pars horizontalis) has two surfaces and four borders. As its name implies, it is horizontal in position, and forms the posterior third of the hard palate. Its *upper surface*, which is smooth, is slightly concave from side to side, and forms the floor of the hinder part of the nasal fossæ. Its *inferior surface*, rougher, is directed towards the mouth, and near its posterior edge often displays a transverse ridge for the attachment of a part of the aponeurosis of the tensor palati muscle. The *anterior border* articulates by means of an irregular suture with the hinder edge of the palatal process of the superior maxilla. The *posterior margin* is free and concave from side to side; by its sharp edge it furnishes attachment to the aponeurosis of the soft palate. The *internal border* is upturned, and when it articulates with its fellow of the opposite side it forms superiorly a central crest continuous in front with the nasal crest of the superior maxilla; it supports the hinder part of the lower border of the vomer, and projecting beyond the line of the posterior border forms the **posterior nasal** or **palatine spine** (spina nasalis posterior). The *external border* fuses with the vertical plate, forming with

it a right angle. The hinder extremity of this edge is grooved by the l
the **posterior palatine canal.**

The **vertical plate** (pars perpendicularis) is very much broader
above. Composed of thin bone, it is liable to be broken in the process
lation, particularly at its upper part, so that it is somewhat uncomm
with a perfect specimen. It may be described as possessing two s
four borders. Its *inner surface*, which is directed towards the cavity
is crossed horizontally about its middle by the **inferior turbinated**
turbinalis) with which the hinder end of the superior border of
turbinated bone articulates; above and below this it enters into the
the outer wall of the middle and inferior meatuses of the nose respecti
the upper extremity of the vertical plate, and below the processes w
from it, there is another ridge more or less parallel to that alread
This is the **superior turbinated** or **ethmoidal crest** (crista ethmoidalis), an
the hinder extremity of the middle turbinated bone is united. The *exte*
which forms the inner wall of the spheno-maxillary fossa, is chan
vertical groove (sulcus pterygo-palatinus), converted into a canal by
with the superior maxillary
canal, called the **posterior pal**
transmits the large palatine
descending palatine vessels.
the external surface projects
a variable extent, and helps
the antrum of the maxilla by i
process. The *anterior borde*
edge of irregular outline wh
lates above with the ethmoi
posterior edge of the maxill
of the inferior turbinated bo
middle, and below with th
maxilla. The *posterior border*
where it articulates with th
of the internal pterygoid pla
below into a pyramidal proces
tuberosity. The *inferior bo*
vertical plate is confluent wit
edge of the horizontal plate;

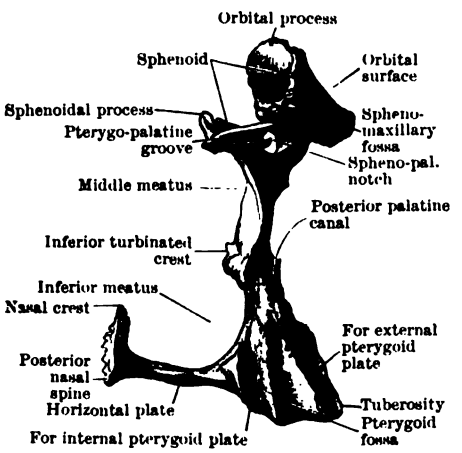


FIG. 113.—RIGHT PALATE BONE.
As seen from Behind.

and immediately in front of the tuberosity, it is notched by the lowe
of the posterior palatine canal. The *superior border* supports the
sphenoidal processes; the former—the anterior—is separated from the
notch (incisura spheno-palatina), which is converted into the **spheno-palat**
by the articulation of the palate bone with the under surface of th
Through this communication between the spheno-maxillary and nasal
the spheno-palatine artery and the nasal branches of the spheno-palati

The **tuberosity** (processus pyramidalis) is directed backwards an
from the angle formed by the vertical and horizontal plates, and pres
posterior surface a central smooth vertical groove, bounded on either si
articular furrows which unite above in a V-shaped manner with the
posterior edge. These latter articulate with the fore-parts of the lower po
internal and external pterygoid plates, while the central groove fits into
like interval between the two pterygoid plates, thus entering into the f
the pterygoid fossa. The *outer surface* of the tuberosity is rough abo
is confluent with the outer surface of the vertical plate which articulat
tuberosity of the superior maxilla; *below*, there is a small, smooth, tria
which appears between the tuberosity of the superior maxilla and the o
of the external pterygoid plate, and so enters into the floor of the zygo
Passing through the tuberosity in a vertical direction are the **posterior**
accessory palatine canals (foramina palatina minora) for the transmis
smaller palatine nerves and vessels.

ital process (processus orbitalis), shaped like a hollow cube, surmounts
t of the vertical plate. The open mouth of the cube is usually directed
ınd inwards towards the fore-part of the body of the sphenoid, with the
hich it commonly communicates; the fore-part of the cube articulates
ner end of the angle formed by the orbital plate and zygomatic surface
ior maxilla. Of the remaining four surfaces, one directed forwards and
iculates with the ethmoid. The others are non-articular: the *superior*
the formation of the floor of the orbit; the *external* is directed towards
maxillary fossa; whilst the *inferior*, which is confluent with the inner
the vertical plate, is of variable extent, and overhangs the superior
he nose.
ıenoidal process (processus sphenoidalis), much smaller than the orbital,
ards, inwards, and backwards from the hinder part of the summit of the
te. Its superior surface, which is grooved, articulates with the fore-part
er surface of the body of the sphenoid and the root of the internal
late, thereby converting the groove into the **pterygo-palatine canal**, which
n artery of the same name together with a pharyngeal branch from the
ıtine ganglion. Its outer side enters into the formation of part of the
of the spheno-maxillary fossa. Its internal curved aspect is directed
e nasal fossa, whilst its inner edge is in contact with the ala of the

ns.—The palate bone articulates with its fellow of the opposite side, with the
ıer, sphenoid, superior maxilla, and inferior turbinated bones.

ıtion.—The palate bones are developed from the ossification of the membrane
sides of the oral cavity. According to Rambaud and Renault, two primitive
ar about the sixth week of fœtal life. From one of these the tuberosity and
:he vertical plate behind the posterior palatine groove is developed; from the
mainder of the bone is formed, with the exception of the orbital and sphenoidal
hich are derived from secondary centres that make their appearance some-
Other authorities describe the bone as ossifying from a single centre which
ut the end of the second month in the angle between the vertical and hori-
s.
ı the bone is much longer in its antero-posterior diameter than in its vertical
converse of its typical adult form.

The Inferior Maxillary Bone.

ıferior maxilla (mandibula) or **mandible**, of horse-shoe shape, with the
s upturned, is the only movable bone of the face. Stout and strong, it
the teeth of the lower dental arch, and articulates with the base of the
by the joints, on either side, between its condyles and the glenoid fossæ
aporal bones. The anterior or horizontal part, which contains the teeth,
:he **body** (corpus); the posterior or vertical portions constitute the **rami**
ndibulæ).
body (corpus mandibulæ) displays in the middle line in front a faint
ridge, the **symphysis**, which indicates the line of fusion of the two
ical halves from which the bone is primarily developed. Inferiorly this
ides so as to enclose, in well-marked specimens, a triangular area—the
rotuberance (protuberantia mentalis), the centre of which is somewhat
l, thus emphasising the inferior angles, which are known as the **mental**
(tubera mentalia). The *outer surface* is crossed by a faint, elevated ridge,
nal oblique line (linea obliqua), which runs upwards and backwards from
tal tubercle to the fore-part of the anterior border of the ramus, with
is confluent. A little above this, midway between the upper and lower
f the jaw, and in line with the root of the second bicuspid tooth, the bone
d by the **mental foramen** (foramen mentale); this is the anterior opening
ferior dental canal, which traverses the body of the bone. Through this
the mental vessels and nerves reach the surface. The *upper border*

supports the sixteen teeth of the lower jaw. It is thick behind and thin front, in correspondence with the size of the roots of the teeth. Anterior sockets of the incisor and canine teeth produce a series of vertical elevations alveolaria), of which that corresponding to the canine tooth is the most prom When this is outstanding it gives rise to a hollowing of the surface between the symphysis, often referred to as the **incisor fossa**; frequently, however is only faintly marked. Below the external oblique line the bone is fu rounded, and ends below in the *inferior border* or **base**. This slopes outwa the sides, and forwards in front, where it is thick and hollowed out on either of the symphysis to form the **digastric fossæ** (fossæ digastricæ), to whic anterior bellies of the digastric muscles are attached; narrowing somewhat b this, the inferior border again expands opposite the molar teeth, and becoming reduced in width, terminates posteriorly at the **angle** formed betw and the posterior border of the ramus. The *deep* or *inner surface* of the body is crossed by the **internal oblique line** or **mylo-hyoid ridge** (linea mylo-hyoidea). This slants from above downwards and forwards towards the lower part of the symphysis. It serves for the origin of the mylo-hyoid muscle, and also furnishes an attachment to the superior constrictor of the pharynx just behind the last molar tooth. Below the hinder part of this ridge the surface is hollowed to form a **fossa** for the lodgment of the submaxillary gland. Above the fore-part of the internal oblique line the bone is smooth and usually convex. Here the sublingual gland lies in relation to it. In the angle formed by the convergence of the two internal oblique lines, and in correspondence with the back of the lower part of the symphysis, there is a raised tubercle surmounted by two laterally spines, the **mental** or **genial spines** (spinæ mentales). Occasionally the again subdivided into an upper and lower pair, or it may be that the pair may fuse to form a rough median ridge. To the upper pair of the genio-hyoglossi muscles are attached, whilst the lower pair serve f origin of the genio-hyoid muscles. Immediately above the tubercle t a median foramen for the transmission of a nutrient vessel, and close alveolar border opposite the intervals between the central and lateral incisor are two little vascular canals.

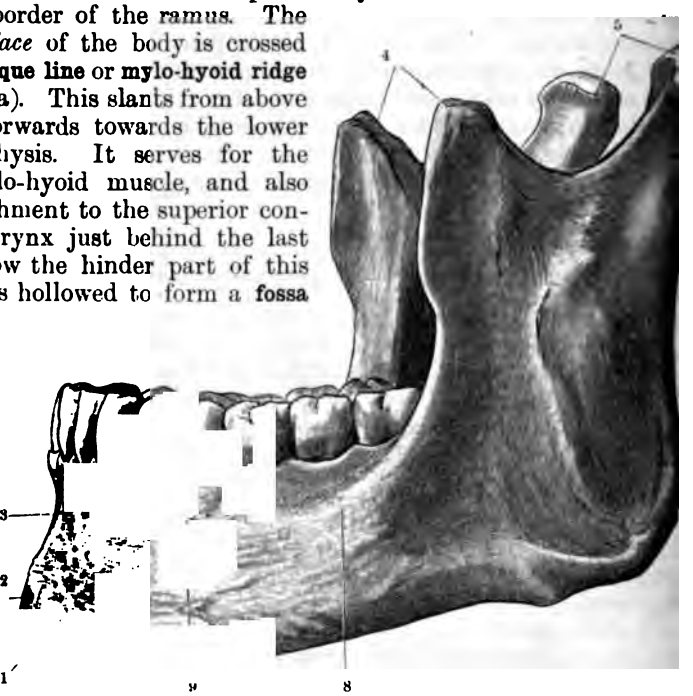


FIG. 114.—THE LOWER JAW AS SEEN FROM THE LEFT SIDE.

1. Mental tubercle.
2. Mental prominence.
3. Symphysis.
4. Coronoid process.
5. Condyles.
6. Neck.
7. Angle.
8. External obli
9. Mental foram

The **ramus** (ramus mandibulæ) passes upwards from the back part of th forming by the junction of its posterior border with the base of the body th (angulus mandibulæ), which is usually rounded and more or less everted. outer surface of the ramus affords attachment to the masseter muscle, and that muscle is powerfully developed the bone is usually marked by a se oblique curved ridges, best seen towards the angle. About the middle of th or inner surface is the large opening (foramen mandibulare) of the **inferior**

runs downwards and forwards to reach the body, and transmits the
l vessels and nerves. This aperture is overhung in front by a pointed
the **lingula**, to the edges of which the internal lateral ligament of the
illary articulation is attached. Behind the lingula and leading down-
wards for an inch or so from the opening of the inferior dental canal
roid groove (sulcus mylo-hyoideus), along which the mylo-hyoid artery
ss. Behind and below this groove the inner surface of the angle is
attachment of the internal pterygoid muscle. Superiorly the ramus
coronoid process in front, and the **condyle** behind, the two being
the wide **sigmoid notch** (incisura mandibulæ), over which there pass
condition the vessels and nerve to
muscle. The coronoid process, of
h and beak-shaped, is limited behind
ved margin, which forms the anterior
the sigmoid notch. In front its
is convex from above downwards
, and becomes confluent below with
order of the ramus and the external
To the inner side of this edge there
longated triangular surface, the inner
hich, commencing above near the
e coronoid process, leads downwards
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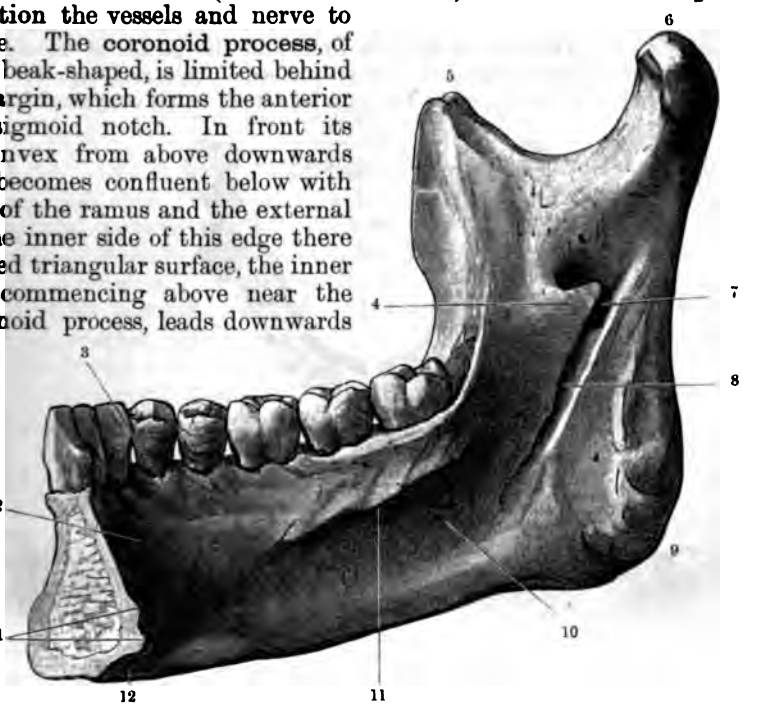


FIG. 115.—THE INNER SIDE OF THE RIGHT HALF OF THE LOWER JAW.

1. Mental spines.
2. Surface in relation to the sublingual gland.
3. Alveolar border.
4. Lingula.
5. Coronoid process.
6. Condyles.
7. Inferior dental foramen.
8. Mylo-hyoid groove.
9. Angle.
10. Fossa for submaxillary gland.
11. Internal oblique line.
12. Digastric fossa.

lum mandibulæ), below which it is somewhat constricted to form
llum mandibulæ), which is compressed from before backwards, and
sigmoid hollow posteriorly. To the inner side of the neck, im-
elow the condyle, there is a little depression (fovea pterygoidea)
ertion of the external pterygoid muscle. The convex surface of
is transversely elongated, and so disposed that its long axis is
arly horizontally from within outwards and a little forwards. The
f the condyle is more marked in its antero-posterior than in its
iameter.

ure.—The mandible is remarkable for the density and thickness of its inner and
Where these coalesce below at the base of the body, the bone is particularly stout.
here they form the walls of the alveoli, they gradually thin, being thicker,
the inner than the outer side, except in the region of the last molar tooth,
ner wall is the thinner. The cancellous substance is open-meshed below, finer
densed where it surrounds the alveoli. The inferior dental canal is large and
definite wall; it is prolonged beyond the mental foramen to reach the incisor
it numerous channels pass upwards to the sockets of the teeth, and it com-
ely with the surrounding cancellous tissue. Above the canal the substance of the
n up by the alveoli for the reception of the *roots of the* teeth. In the substance

of the condyle the cancellous tissue is more compact, with a general striation vertical t articular surface.

The mental prominence is an essentially human characteristic; by some it is associated wi development of speech in man, others regard it as due to the reduction in the size of the te

Variations.—Considerable differences are met with in the height of the coronoid pr usually its summit reaches the same level as the condyle, or slightly above it; occasionally, ever, it rises to a much higher level; in other cases it is much reduced. These diffe naturally react on the form of the sigmoid notch. The projection of the mental protube is also liable to vary. Occasionally the mental foramen is double, and sometimes the mylo groove is for a short distance converted into a canal.

Ossification.—The development of the lower jaw is intimately associated Meckel's cartilage, the cartilaginous bar of the first visceral or mandibular arch. Me cartilages, of which there are two, are connected proximally with the periotic capsule cranial base. Their distal ends are united in the region of the symphysis. It is i connective tissue overlying the outer surface of this cartilaginous arch that the bo the lower jaw is developed. The cartilage itself is not converted into bone, but under resorption, excep anterior extre which is stat undergo ossifi to form the p the jaw lyin tween the m foramen and symphysis. Ina or fourth m fœtus the car can be traced the under surf the fore-part o tympanic ring d wards and for to reach the ja which it is att at the opening o inferior dental c from this it ma traced forwards narrow strip ap to the inner surf the mandible, w it sensibly gro

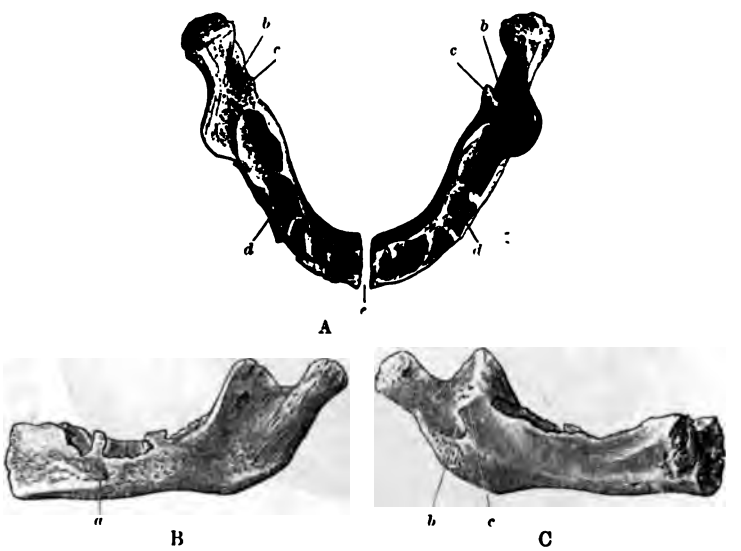


FIG. 116.—LOWER JAW AT BIRTH. A, As seen from above; B, Outer side; C, Inner side.

a, Mental foramen; *b*, Inferior dental canal; *c*, Lingula; *d*, Sockets for the dental sacs

The proximal end of this furrow remains permanently as the mylo-hyoid groove. part of the cartilage between the tympanic ring and the jaw becomes converted fibrous tissue, and persists in the adult as the so-called internal lateral ligament o temporo-maxillary articulation, its proximal end through the Glaserian fissure being tinuous with the slender process of the malleus. J. Chaine (*Comptes Rendus.* Bio 1903) takes exception to this view and regards the internal lateral ligament as the re of a muscular slip. The part which is applied to the inner surface of the lowe disappears. In the tissue overlying the cartilage ossification begins by several centr early as the sixth or seventh week of fœtal life, in this respect resembling the clavic which it is alone preceded. The dentary or basal centre forms the outer wall and l border. With this is united the splenial portion, which appears somewhat later, for the inner table from near the symphysis backwards towards the opening of the in dental canal where it terminates in the lingula. By the union of these two parts a gr is formed, which ultimately becomes covered in, and in which the inferior dental n and vessels are lodged. As has been already stated, the part of the body between symphysis and the mental foramen is regarded as directly developed by the ossificati the fore-part of the Meckelian cartilage. As will have been gathered from the a description, the upper part of the ramus and its processes have no connexion with Mec cartilage. The condyle and the coronoid process are each developed from a sepa centre, preceded by a cartilaginous matrix. These several centres are all united about fourth month.

At birth the lower jaw consists of two lateral halves united at the symphysis by fi

wards the end of the first, or during the second year, osseous union between the s is complete. In infancy the jaw is shallow and the rami proportionately small; wing to the obliquity of the ramus the angle is large, averaging about 150°. al foramen lies near the lower border of the bone. Coincident with the eruption th and the use of the jaw in mastication, the rami rapidly increase in size, and becomes more acute. After the completion of the permanent dentition it s more nearly a right angle varying from 110° to 120°. The body of the bone id deep, and the mental foramen usually lies midway between the upper and ders. As age advances, owing to the loss of the teeth and the consequent and absorption of the alveolar border of the bone, the body becomes narrow and d, and the mental foramen now lies close to the upper border. At the same time opens out again (130° to 140°), in this respect resembling the infantile condition. e the coronoid process and the condyle form a more open angle with each other ne adult.

THE HYOID BONE.

hyoid bone (os hyoideum), or **os linguæ**, though placed in the neck, is ientally connected with the skull. It lies between the mandible above larynx below, and is connected with the root of the tongue. Of U-shaped its name implies (Greek *υ* and *εἶδος*, like), it consists in the adult of a part, or **body**, with which on either side are united two long processes ig backwards—the **great cornua**. At the point where these are ossified body, the **lesser cornua**, which project upwards and backwards, are placed.

body (basis) is arched from side to side and compressed from before back- that its surfaces slope downwards and forwards. Its *anterior surface* a slight median ridge, on either side of he bone is marked by the attachment nylo-hyoid muscles. Its *posterior surface*, ollowed, is concave from side to side and ove downwards. Herein lie a quantity and a bursa which separates this aspect he thyro-hyoid membrane. The upper is broad; it is separated from the anterior by a transverse ridge, behind which are pressions for the attachment of the genio- nuscles. Its hinder edge is thin and sharp; above, are attached the genio-glossi, whilst and below the thyro-hyoid membrane is ted with it. The inferior border is well defined and narrow; it serves for the nent of the omo-hyoid, sterno-hyoid, thyro-hyoid, and stylo-hyoid muscles.

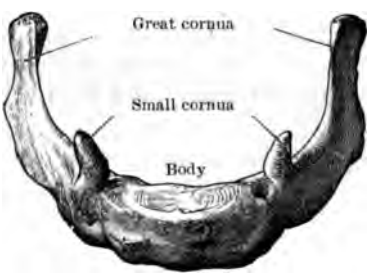


FIG. 117.—THE HYOID BONE AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

great cornua are connected on either side with the lateral parts of the At first, union is effected by synchondroses, which, however, ultimately These cornua curve backwards as well as upwards, and terminate in more or unded and expanded extremities. Compressed laterally, they serve for the ments externally of the thyro-hyoid and hyo-glossi muscles, and the middle ctor of the pharynx from below upwards, whilst internally they are con- with the lateral expansions of the thyro-hyoid membrane, the free edges of are somewhat thickened, and connect the extremities of the great cornua he ends of the superior cornua of the thyroid cartilage below.

e **lesser cornua**, frequently cartilaginous in part, are about the size of grains at. They rest upon the upper surface of the bone at the junctions of the cornua with the body. In youth they are separated from, but in advanced come ossified with, the rest of the bone, from which they are directed upwards, ards, and a little outwards. Their summits are connected with the stylo- ligaments; they also serve for the attachment of muscles.

nexions.—The hyoid is slung from the styloid processes of the temporal bones by the oid ligaments. Inferiorly it is connected with the thyroid cartilage of the larynx by ro-hyoid ligaments and membrane. Posteriorly it is intimately associated with the ia.

Ossification.—In considering the development of the hyoid bone it is neces refer to the arrangement and disposition of the cartilaginous bars of the second and visceral arches. That of the second visceral arch, the hyoid bar—or Reichert's car as it is sometimes called—is united above to the petrous temporal, whilst ventrall joined to its fellow of the opposite side by an independent mesial cartilage. Chond tion of the third visceral arch only occurs towards its ventral extremity, forming w known as the thyro-hyoid bar. This also unites with the mesial cartilage above ment In these cartilaginous processes ossific centres appear in certain definite situ Towards the end of fœtal life a single centre (by some authorities regarded as pri double) appears in the mesial cartilage, and forms the body of the bone (**basi** About the same time ossification begins in the lower ends of the thyro-hyoid bar from these the great cornua are developed (thyro-hyals). During the first year the ends of the hyoid bars begin to ossify and form the lesser cornua (cerato-hyals). cephalic ends of the same cartilages meanwhile ossify to form the styloid processes (hyals) (see p. 121), whilst the intervening portions of cartilage undergo resorptio become converted into the fibrous tissue of the stylo-hyoid ligaments, which in the connect the lesser cornua with the styloid processes of the temporal bone. The cornua fuse with the body in middle life; the lesser cornua only at a more adv period. Variations in the course of development lead to interesting anomalies hyoid apparatus. The lesser cornua may be unduly long or the stylo-hyoid ligamen be bony; in this case the cartilage has not undergone resorption, but has passed on further stage of ossification, thus forming an epihyal element comparable to that dog. The ossified stylo-hyoid ligament, as felt through the pharyngeal wall, m mistaken for a foreign body. (Farmer, G. W. S., *Brit. Med. Journ.* 1900, vol. i. p.

THE SKULL AS A WHOLE.

The skull as a whole may be studied as seen from the front (norma fron from the side (norma lateralis), from the back (norma occipitalis), from (norma verticalis), and from below (norma basalis).

Norma Frontalis.

In front, the smooth convexity of the frontal bone limits this region a whilst inferiorly, when the lower jaw is disarticulated, the teeth of the uppe form its lower boundary. The large openings of the **orbits** are seen on either whilst placed mesially and at a somewhat lower level is the **anterior nasal ap** (apertura pyriformis) leading into the **nasal fossæ**.

The **frontal region**, convex from above downwards and from side to si limited externally by two ridges, which are the anterior extremities of the tem lines. Superiorly the fulness of the bone blends with the convexity of the v Inferiorly the frontal bone forms on either side the arched superior border o orbit (margo supraorbitalis). The space between these borders corresponds t root of the nose, and here are seen the sutures which unite the frontal with nasal bones in the middle line, and with the nasal process of the superior m on either side, called the **naso-frontal** and **fronto-maxillary sutures** respectively. orbital arch is thin and sharp externally, but becomes thick and more rou towards its inner side, where it forms the **internal angular process** and unites the frontal process of the superior maxilla and the lachrymal bone on the wall of the orbit. This arched border is interrupted towards the inner sid a notch (incisura supraorbitalis), sometimes converted into a foramen, fo transmission of the supraorbital nerve and artery. In the middle line, just the naso-frontal suture, there is often the remains of a median suture (s frontalis), which marks the fusion of the two halves from which the bo primarily ossified. Here also a prominence, of variable extent—the **glabella**—i with; from this there passes out on either side above and over the orbital m a projection called the **superciliary ridge** (arcus superciliaris).

The **orbital fossæ**, of more or less conical form, display a tendency to a the shape of four-sided pyramids by the flattening of the superior, inferior lateral walls. The *base*, which is directed forwards and a little outw

›nds to the orbital aperture. The shape of this is liable to individual and ariations, being nearly circular in the Mongoloid type, whilst it displays a r less quadrangular form in Australoid skulls. The upper margin, as has ready stated, is formed by the frontal bone between the internal and external : processes. The outer, and about half the lower, margin are formed by the urved edge between the facial and orbital surfaces of the malar bone. The l border and the remainder of the lower margin are determined by the urface of the frontal process of the superior maxilla, and the sharp edge ing the facial from the orbital surface of the same bone. Three sutures pt the continuity of the orbital margin—the **fronto-malar** (sutura zygomatico-s) externally, the **fronto-maxillary** (sutura fronto-maxillaris) internally, both bout the same level, and the **malo-maxillary** (sutura zygomatico-maxillaris) ly. The *apex* of the space is directed backwards and inwards, so that the alls of the two orbits lie nearly parallel to each other, whilst the outer e so disposed as to form nearly a right angle with each other. The depth of it measures, on an average, about two inches (5 cm.). At the apex there are nings; the larger, known as the **sphenoidal fissure** (fissura orbitalis superior), rom the apex of the space outwards and a little upwards for the distance -quarters of an inch or so, between the roof and outer wall of the orbit. The hird of this fissure is broad and of circular form. Externally it is consider-duced in width. Through this the third, fourth, ophthalmic division of the nd the sixth nerves enter the orbit, whilst the ophthalmic veins pass rds through it. Above and internal to the inner end of the sphenoidal there is a smaller circular opening, the **optic foramen** (foramen opticum), for nsmission of the optic nerve and ophthalmic artery.

roof of the orbit, which is very thin and brittle towards its centre, is formed t by the **orbital plate** of the **frontal bone** (pars orbitalis) and behind by a triangular piece of the **lesser wing** of the **sphenoid**, which surrounds the foramen and forms the upper border of the sphenoidal fissure. Externally rface is separated from the outer wall by the sphenoidal fissure posteriorly, rly by an irregular suture between the orbital part of the frontal and per margin of the orbital surface of the great wing of the sphenoid, ex- to which the external angular process of the frontal articulates with the

Internally the roof is marked off from the inner wall by a suture, more s horizontal in direction, between the orbital plate of the frontal and the ing bones in order from before backwards, viz. the frontal process of the ior maxilla, the lachrymal bone, and the os planum of ethmoid. In the e between the last-mentioned bone and the frontal there are two foramina, nterior and **posterior internal orbital** or **ethmoidal canals** (foramen ethmoidale ius et posterius); both transmit ethmoidal vessels—the anterior affording ge to the nasal nerve as well. The roof is concave from side to side, and me extent also from before backwards. About midway between the o-maxillary suture and the supraorbital notch or foramen, but within margin of the orbit, there is a small **depression**, occasionally replaced by a e (fovea vel. spina trochlearis), for the attachment of the cartilaginous pulley he superior oblique muscle of the eyeball. Under cover of the external lar process the roof is more deeply excavated, forming a shallow **fossa** for the ment of the lachrymal gland (fossa glandulæ lachrymalis). In front, the roof rates the orbit from the **frontal sinus**, and along its inner border it is in relation the **ethmoidal air-cells**. The relation to these air spaces is variable, depending he development and size of the sinuses. The rest of the roof, which is very thin, s by its upper surface the floor of the anterior cranial fossa, in which are lodged rontal lobes of the cerebrum.

he *floor of the orbit* is formed by the **orbital plate** of the **superior maxilla**, ther with part of the **orbital surface** of the **malar bone**, and a small triangular of bone, the **orbital process** of the **palate**, which is wedged in posteriorly. rnally, for three-quarters of its length posteriorly, it is separated from the outer which is here formed by the great wing of the sphenoid, by a cleft called the o-maxillary fissure (fissura orbitalis inferior). Through this there pass the

superior maxillary division of the fifth nerve on its way to the infraorbital c
orbital or temporo-malar branch of the same nerve, the infraorbital vessels, a

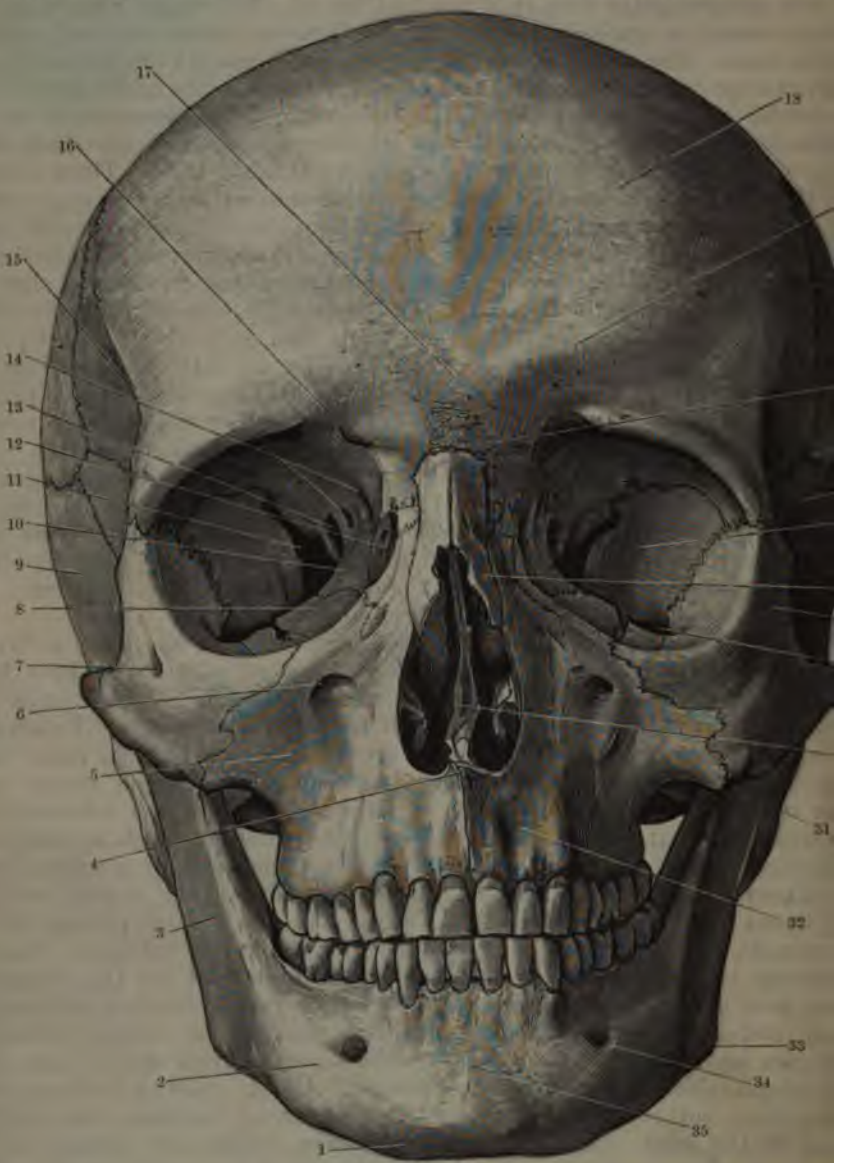


FIG. 118.—NORMA FRONTALIS.

1. Mental protuberance.
2. Body of lower jaw.
3. Ramus of lower jaw.
4. Anterior nasal spine
5. Canine fossa.
6. Infraorbital canal.
7. Malar canal.
8. Orbital surface of superior maxilla.
9. Temporal fossa.
10. Os planum of ethmoid.
11. Sphenoidal fissure.
12. Lachrymal bone and groove.
13. Optic foramen.
14. Orbital foramina.
15. Temporal ridge.
16. Supraorbital notch.
17. Glabella.
18. Frontal eminence.
19. Superciliary ridge.
20. Parietal bone.
21. Fronto-nasal suture.
22. Pterion.
23. Great wing of sphenoid.
24. Orbital surface of great wing of sphenoid.
25. Squamous temporal.
26. Left nasal bone.
27. Malar bone.
28. Spheno-maxillary fissur
29. Zygomatic arch.
30. Anterior nasal apertur nasal septum and middle turbinated bo
31. Mastoid process.
32. Incisor fossa.
33. Angle of jaw.
34. Mental foramen.
35. Symphysis.

twigs from Meckel's (spheno-palatine) ganglion. By means of this fissure
communicates with the spheno-maxillary fossa behind and the zygomatic
the outer side. Internally the floor is limited from behind forwards by th

. the following bones, viz. the orbital process of the palate below with the the sphenoid above and behind, and the os planum of the ethmoid above and —anterior to which the orbital plate of the superior maxilla below articulates e os planum of the ethmoid and the lachrymal above and in front. At the · extremity of this line of sutures the inner edge of the orbital plate of the · maxilla is notched and free between the point where it articulates with the al posteriorly and the part from which its frontal process rises. Here it he outer edge of a canal, down which the membranous nasal duct passes to e. The floor of the orbit is thin behind and at the sides, but thicker in here it blends with the orbital margin. Passing in a sagittal direction its substance is the infraorbital canal, the roof of which is usually deficient where it becomes continuous with a broad, shallow groove, which leads ls from the anterior margin of the spheno-maxillary fissure. This canal infraorbitalis) opens on the facial surface of the superior maxillary imme- below the orbital margin (foramen infraorbitale) and transmits the superior ry division of the fifth nerve, together with the infraorbital vessels. The ms a thin partition which separates the orbit from the antrum or sinus of erior maxilla, which lies below. Internally it completes the lower ethmoidal s, and separates the orbit from the middle meatus of the nasal fossæ.

outer wall of the orbit, which is the strongest, is formed by the orbital of the great wing of the sphenoid and the upper part of the orbital surface malar bone. Above it, behind, is the sphenoidal fissure, whilst below, tending much farther forward, is the spheno-maxillary fissure. The anterior of the outer wall is stout and formed by the malar bone, behind which, in part by the orbital process of the malar bone and the malar edge (margo- ticus) of the great wing of the sphenoid, it forms a fairly thick partition the orbit in front and the temporal fossa behind. Crossing this surface ove downwards, close to the anterior extremity of the spheno-maxillary is the suture between the malar bone and the great wing of the sphenoid spheno-zygomatica). This wall is pierced in front by one or two anals (foramen zygomatico-orbitale), which traverse the malar bone and the transmission of the temporal and malar branches of the orbital portion uperior maxillary division of the fifth nerve.

inner wall of the orbit is formed from before backwards by a small part of tal process of the superior maxilla, by the lachrymal, and by the os planum or late of the ethmoid (lamina papyracea ossis ethmoidalis), posterior to which all part of the lateral aspect of the body of the sphenoid in front of the amen. Above, the orbital plate of the frontal bone forms a continuous rom before backwards with the bones just enumerated; whilst below, the al and the os planum of the ethmoid articulate with the orbital plate of erior maxilla; posteriorly the hinder extremity of the os planum and the t of the body of the sphenoid articulate with the orbital process of the The orbital surface of the lachrymal bone is divided into two by a vertical he lachrymal crest (crista lachrymalis posterior)—which forms in front the r half of a hollow, the lachrymal groove (sulcus lachrymalis), the anterior which is completed by the channelled posterior border of the frontal process uperior maxilla. In the lachrymal groove or fossa (fossa sacci lachrymalis) d the lachrymal sac, whilst passing from it and occupying the canal, of he upper opening is at present seen, is the membranous nasal duct. The ly thin wall of the lower part of the lachrymal fossa separates the orbit e fore-part of the middle meatus of the nasal fossa. To the inner side of r and fore part of the lachrymal bone, and separated from the orbit merely hickness of that bone, is the passage leading from the nose to the frontal infundibulum ethmoidale), whilst the part of the bone behind the lachrymal rms the thin partition between the orbit and the anterior ethmoidal cells. where the body of the sphenoid forms part of the inner wall of the orbit, enoidal air sinus is in relation to the apex of that space, though here the n wall between the two cavities is much thicker.

skeleton of the face on its *anterior surface* is formed by the two superior

maxillæ, the frontal processes of which have been already seen to pass up to arti
late with the internal angular processes of the frontal bone, thus forming the l
halves of the inner margins of the orbit. Joined to the upper jaws externally
the **malar** or **cheek bones** (ossa zygomatica), which are supported by their u
with the temporal bones posteriorly through the medium of the zygomatic ar
The suture which separates the malar from the superior maxilla (sutura zygomat
maxillaris) commences above about the centre of the lower orbital margin
passes obliquely downward and outward, its lower end lying in vertical line w
the outer orbital margin. The two superior maxillæ are separated by the na
fossæ, which here open anteriorly. Above, the two nasal bones are wedged
between the frontal processes of the maxillæ; whilst below the **nasal aperture**, t
maxillæ themselves are united in the middle line by the intermaxillary sut
(sutura intermaxillaris).

The **nasal aperture** (apertura pyriformis), which lies below and in part betwe
the orbits, is of variable shape and size—usually pyriform, it tends to be long
narrow in Europeans, as contrasted with the shorter and wider form met with
the negroid races. Its edges are formed below and on either side by the f
curved margin of the body and the frontal process of the superior maxilla; a
above, and partly at the sides, by the free border of the nasal bones. In t
middle line, inferiorly, corresponding to the upper end of the intermaxill
suture there is an outstanding process—the **anterior nasal spine** (spina na
anterior) formed by the coalescence of spicules from both maxillæ; arising f
this, and passing backwards and upwards, is a thin bony partition—the os
septum of the nose. Often deflected to one or other side, it divides the cavi
the nose (cavum nasi) into a right and left half. Projecting into these cham
from their outer walls can be seen the inner surfaces and free borders of the mid
(concha media) and **inferior** (concha inferior) **turbinated bones**, the spaces bel
and between which form the **inferior** and **middle meatuses** of the nose respectively

Below the orbit, and to the outer side of the nasal aperture, the anterior
facial surface of the body of the superior maxilla (corpus maxillæ) is seen; this
continuous inferiorly with the outer surface of the alveolar process (process alv
laris), in which are embedded the roots of the upper teeth.

A horizontal line drawn round the jaw on the level of a point midway betwe
the lower border of the nasal aperture and the alveolar edge corresponds to t
plane of the **hard palate**. Below that the alveolar process separates the cavity
the mouth from the front of the face; whilst above, the large air space, the max
lary sinus (sinus maxillaris), or **antrum of Highmore**, lies within the body of t
superior maxilla.

The **malar** or **cheek bone** (os zygomaticum) forms the lower half of the out
and outer half of the lower border of the orbit. Its external aspect corresponds
the point of greatest width of the face, the modelling of which depends on t
flatness or projection of this bone.

When the **lower jaw** (mandibula) is in position, and the teeth in both jaws
complete, the lower dental arch will be seen to be smaller in all its diameters th
the upper, so that when the jaws are closed the upper teeth slightly overlap t
lower both in front and at the sides. Exceptionally a departure from this arrang
ment is met with.

Norma Lateralis.

Viewing this aspect of the skull, in the first instance, without the lower jaw,
is seen to be formed in part by the bones of the cranium, and in part by the bon
of the face. A line drawn from the fronto-nasal suture to the tip of the mast
process serves to define roughly the boundary between these portions of the sku
Of ovoid shape, the cranium is formed above by the **frontal, parietal,** and **occipit**
bones from before backwards; whilst below, included within these are the **sphen**
and **temporal bones**. The sutures between these several bones are arranged
follows: Commencing at the external angular process of the frontal, the sut
between that bone and the malar is first seen; tracing this backwards and a lit

the lower edge of the frontal next articulates with the upper margin of the
g of the sphenoid for a distance varying from three-quarters of an inch to
Here the posterior border of the frontal turns upwards and slightly back-
rming with the parietal the **coronal suture** (sutura coronalis). The lower
the parietal bone, which is placed immediately behind the frontal, articulates

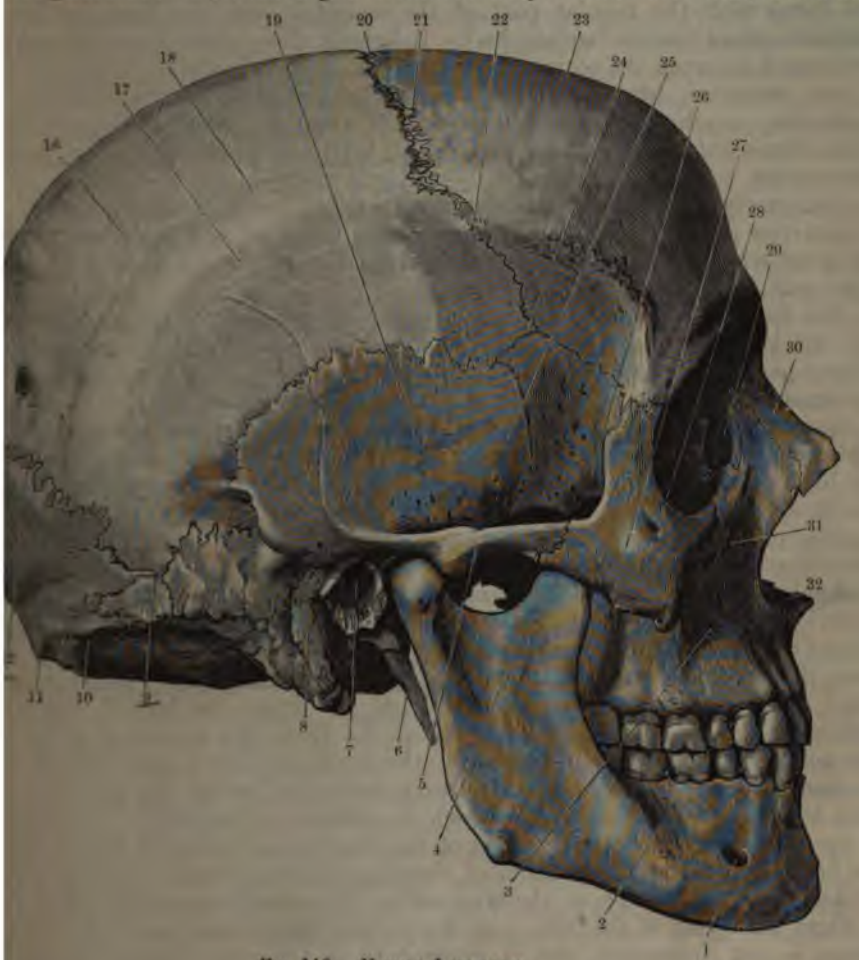


FIG. 119.—NORMA LATERALIS.

foramen.
f lower jaw.
r maxilla.
of lower jaw.
alic arch.
process.
al auditory meatus.
d process.
r curved line of occipital
al occipital protuberance.

12. Lambdoid suture.
13. Occipital bone.
14. Lambda.
15. Obelion placed between the two parietal foramina.
16. Parietal bone.
17. Lower temporal ridge.
18. Upper temporal ridge.
19. Squamous part of temporal bone.
20. Bregma.
21. Coronal suture.
22. Stephanion.
23. Frontal bone.
24. Pterion.
25. Temporal fossa.
26. Great wing of sphenoid.
27. Malar bone.
28. Malar canal.
29. Lachrymal bone.
30. Nasal bone.
31. Infraorbital canal.
32. Anterior nasal aperture.

ly with the hinder part of the upper edge of the great wing of the sphenoid.
ent of this suture (sutura spheno-parietalis) is liable to very great indi-
variation—at times being broad, in other instances being pointed and
whilst occasionally the parietal does not articulate with the sphenoid at all.
the spheno-parietal suture the parietal articulates with the squamous part
emporal (sutura squamosa). This repeats to a certain extent the curve
by the outline of the calvaria, and ends posteriorly about one inch behind
rnal auditory meatus. Here the suture alters its character and direction,
lace of being scaly, becomes toothed and irregular, uniting for the space of

an inch or so the posterior inferior angle of the parietal with the mastoid pro of the temporal bone. This suture (sutura parieto-mastoid) is more or less h zontal in direction, and lies in line and on a level with the upper border o zygomatic arch. At a point about two inches behind the external auditory me the posterior border of the parietal bone turns obliquely upwards and backw and forms with the tabular part of the occipital bone the strongly-dentical **lambdoid suture** (sutura lambdoidea). Inferiorly this suture is continued obliq downwards between the occipital bone and the hinder border of the mastoid por of the temporal, where it forms the **occipito-mastoid suture** (sutura occi mastoidea), much simpler and less serrated than the two previously menti These three sutures just described meet in tri-radiate fashion at a point c the **asterion**.

Anteriorly the curve of the squamous suture is continued downward betw the anterior edge of the squamous part of the temporal and the posterior borde the great wing of the sphenoid; inferiorly it lies in plane with the middle of zygomatic arch.

The sutures around the summit of the great wing of the sphenoid are arra like the letter H placed obliquely, the cross-piece of the H corresponding to spheno-parietal suture. When this is short, and becomes a mere point of con the arrangement then resembles the letter X. This region is named the **pteri**

Curving over the lateral region of the calvaria in a longitudinal directi the **temporal crest** (linea temporalis). This is often double. The lower line m the limit of the attachment of the temporal muscle, whilst the upper ridge de the attachment of the temporal fascia. Commencing in front at the exte angular process of the frontal, the crest sweeps upwards and backwards across lower part of that bone, and then crossing the coronal suture—a point called **stephanion**—it passes on to the parietal, over which it curves in the direction of posterior inferior angle. Here it is continued on to the temporal bone, whe sweeps forward to form the **supramastoid crest**, which serves to separate the squa from the mastoid portion of the temporal bone externally. Carried forward, ridge is seen to become continuous with the upper border of the zygom arch over the external auditory meatus. In front, the temporal ridge separ the temporal fossa from the region of the forehead; above and behind, it bou the **temporal fossa** which lies within its concavity, and serves to separate that hol from the surface of the calvaria which is overlain by the scalp. Above the l of the temporal lines the surfaces of the frontal and parietal bones are smo the latter exhibiting an elevation of varying prominence and position, but usu situated about the centre of the bone, called the **parietal eminence** (tuber parieta A slight hollowing of the surface of the parietal behind and parallel to the coro suture is not uncommon, and is referred to as the post-coronal depression. seen in profile, the part of the calvaria behind and below the lambdoid suture formed by the tabular part of the occipital bone. In line with the zygomatic a this outline is interrupted by the **external occipital protuberance** or **inion** (protub antia occipitalis externa). The projection of this point is variable; but position can usually be easily determined in the living. Passing forwards fr it, and blending anteriorly with the posterior border of the mastoid process of t temporal bone, is a rough crest, the **superior curved line** (linea nuchæ superior), little above which there is often a much fainter line, the **highest curved line** (lin nuchæ suprema); this affords attachment to the epicranial aponeurosis. These tw lines serve to separate the part of the cranium above, which is covered by scal from that below, which serves for the attachment of the fleshy muscles of the ba of the neck, the latter surface (planum nuchale) being rough and irregular contrasted with the smooth superior part (planum occipitale). The fulness these two parts of the occipital bone varies much. There is frequently a pronounc bulging of the planum occipitale, and the position of the lambda can often easily determined in the living; similarly the planum nuchale may be either com paratively flat or else full and rounded. These differences are of course associate with corresponding differences in the development of the cerebral and cerebell lobes which are lodged in relation to the internal aspect of these parts of the bon

further description of the planum nuchale is best deferred till the base of skull (norma basalis) is studied.

Temporal Fossa.—Within the limits of the temporal lines the side of the cranium es forwards, inwards, and downwards, thus leaving a considerable interval between ower part and the **zygomatic arch**. This space or hollow is called the temporal a (fossa temporalis); bounded above and behind by the temporal lines, its inferior t is defined by the level of the zygomatic arch. Deepest opposite the angle formed he frontal and temporal processes of the malar bone, the fossa becomes shallow ards its circumference. Its floor, which is slightly concavo-convex from before kwards about mid-level, is formed above by the temporal surface (facies temporalis) he frontal, behind by the anterior inferior angle (angulis sphenoidalis) of the ietal, as well as the lower portion of that bone, below the temporal crest; below . in front by the temporal surface of the great wing of the sphenoid, and behind . below by the squamous portion of the temporal bone. Inferiorly the floor is ited in front by the free inferior border of the great wing of the sphenoid, which ns the upper boundary of the **spheno-maxillary fissure**; behind that, by a rough ge, the **infratemporal crest** or **pterygoid ridge** (crista infratemporalis), which sses the external surface of the great wing of the sphenoid, to become con- uous posteriorly with a ridge on the lower surface of the squamous temporal, m which the anterior root of the zygomatic process springs. In front the nporal fossa is separated from the orbit by the external angular process of the ntal above, and by the orbital process of the malar and its junction with the ternal border of the great wing of the sphenoid between the orbital and temporal rfaces of that process. Externally and in front, the fossa is overhung by the ckward projection of the frontal process of the malar bone, and it is under cover this, and within the angle formed by the frontal and orbital processes of the malar, at we see the opening of the **temporal canal**, which pierces the orbital plate of the alar and transmits the temporal branch of the orbital nerve—a filament of the perior maxillary division of the V nerve. The fore-part of the **spheno-maxillary sure** (fissura orbita inferior) opens into the lower part of the temporal fossa, and us establishes a communication between it and the orbit. If the floor of the sa be carefully examined, some more or less distinct **vascular grooves** may seen. One passing upwards over the posterior part of the squamous mporal, immediately in front of and above the external auditory meatus, is for e middle temporal artery; two others, usually less distinct, pass up, one over the mporal surface of the great wing of the sphenoid, the other over the fore-part of he squamous temporal; these are for the anterior and posterior deep temporal anches of the internal maxillary artery. The fossa contains the temporal muscle ith its vessels and nerves, together with the temporal branch of the orbital nerve nd some fat; all of which are enclosed by the fascia which stretches over the space om the upper temporal line above to the superior border of the zygomatic arch elow. The extent of the fossa depends on the size of the temporal muscle, he development of which is correlated with the size and weight of the lower jaw.

Springing from the front and lower part of the squamous temporal is the **ygomatic process** of that bone; it has two roots, an anterior and a posterior, between nd below which are placed the **glenoid fossa** (fossa mandibularis) in front, and the pening of the **external auditory meatus** behind. Of compressed triangular form, the rocess at first has its surfaces directed upwards and downwards, but curving out- ards and forwards, it twists on itself, so that its narrowed surfaces are now turned outwards and inwards, and its edges upwards and downwards; passing forwards, it xpands somewhat, and ends in an oblique serrated surface, which unites with the emporal process of the malar bone and completes the **zygomatic arch**. It is the upper edge of this bridge of bone which forms the posterior root. The lower border, turning inwards, forms the anterior root, and serves to separate the temporal from the zygomatic surface of the squamous temporal, blending in front with the **infra- temporal crest** on the outer surface of the great wing of the sphenoid. The under surface of this root is convex from before backwards, and is thrown into relief by the **glenoid hollow**, which passes up behind it. In this way a downward projection, which is called the **eminentia articularis**, is formed.

The **alar spine** of the **sphenoid** (spina angularis) lies immediately to
inner side of the articular part of the glenoid fossa. Its size and projection
It is well to remember its relation to the condyle of the lower jaw when that
is in position; lying, as it does, to the inner side and a little in front of that
cess, it affords attachment to the so-called long internal lateral ligament (sph
mandibular) of the temporo-maxillary articulation. As will be seen hereafter,
anterior extremity of the osseous Eustachian canal lies immediately to its i
side (p. 164). A noteworthy feature about the articular part of the glenoid
is the thinness of the bony plate which serves to separate it from the mi
cranial fossa above. The **vaginal process** is a crest of bone which runs oblig
forwards from the front and inner side of the mastoid process, just below
external auditory meatus, to the alar spine of the sphenoid. Passing downw
and slightly forwards from the centre of this, and ensheathed by it in front
at the sides, is the pointed **styloid process**, the length of which is extremely vari

In the recess between the posterior root of the zygoma and the upper cu
edge of the meatus there is usually a depression, though in some instances
may be replaced by a slight bulging of the bone. If from the posterior roo
the zygoma a vertical line be let fall, tangential to the posterior edge of the me
a small triangular area is mapped off which has been named by Macewen the m
meatal triangle. Surgically this is of importance, as it is the spot selected in w
to trephine the bone to reach the **mastoid antrum** (see p. 120).

In the suture between the posterior border of the mastoid-temporal and
tabular plate of the occipital, there is usually a **foramen** (**mastoid**) for the tr
mission of an emissary vein from the lateral sinus within the cranium to
cutaneous occipital vein of the scalp; this opening, which may be double, va
greatly in size, and is usually placed on a level with the external audit
meatus.

Zygomatic Fossa.—The side of the cranium in front of the anterior root of
zygomatic process of the temporal bone is deeply hollowed, forming the **zygom**
or **infratemporal fossa** (fossa infratemporalis); this in topographical anat
corresponds to the pterygo-maxillary region. The student must bear in m
that, in examining this space, the ramus and coronoid process of the lo
jaw form its outer wall; but this bone for the present being withdrawn, enable
to get a better view of the boundaries of the space. In front its *anterior*
is formed by the convex posterior or **zygomatic surface** (facies infratempora
of the **superior maxilla**, which rises behind the socket for the last molar tooth
form the **tuberosity** (tuber-maxillare). Anteriorly the zygomatic surface of the up
jaw is separated from its facial aspect by the rounded inferior margin of the ma
or zygomatic process which supports the malar bone. This latter curves outwa
and backwards, forming part of the upper and anterior wall of the fossa. On the in
surface of this wall will be seen the suture uniting the malar and superior maxill
bones (sutura zygomatico-maxillaris), which runs obliquely upwards and inwa
to reach the external extremity of the spheno-maxillary fissure, the lower border
which forms the superior boundary of the zygomatic surface of the upper jaw. O
this aspect of the bone are to be seen the openings of the **posterior dental can**
(foramina alveolaria) two or more in number, which transmit the nerves a
vessels to the upper molar teeth. The *inner wall* of the zygomatic fossa is form
by the outer surface of the **external pterygoid plate** (lamina lateralis proces
pterygoidei), the width and shape of which varies greatly; its posterior border
thin and sharp, and often furnished with spiny points, to one of which the pteryg
spinous ligament, which stretches from this border to the alar spine of the sphenoi
is attached. It occasionally happens that this ligament becomes ossifie
Anteriorly the external pterygoid plate is separated from the superior maxil
above by an interval called the **pterygo-maxillary fissure**. Below this the bones a
apparently fused, but a careful inspection of the skull, together with an examin
tion of the disarticulated bones, will enable the student to realise that, wedged
between the two bones at this point, is a part of one of the smaller bones of t
face, the **tuberosity** of the **palate bone** (processus pyramidalis ossis palatini).

The lower border of the external pterygoid plate is usually curved and slight

Superiorly, where the external pterygoid plate is generally narrower, it
ıpwards to become continuous with the broad under surface of the great
the sphenoid; this, which overhangs in part the zygomatic fossa superiorly,
d above by the **infratemporal crest** which separates its zygomatic from its
l surface. The zygomatic surface of the great wing of the sphenoid is
in front and below by the edge which forms the upper boundary of the
naxillary fissure, whilst behind it reaches as far back as the inner
y of the Glaserian fissure, where it terminates in the alar spine. It is
is point that the suture (sutura spheno-squamosa) curves forward and
to reach the region of the pterion. The infratemporal or zygomatic
of the great wing of the sphenoid, and the outer surface of the external
d plate, alike afford extensive attachments for the external pterygoid
whilst the former is pierced by minute canals for the transmission of
veins. Occasionally a larger vascular foramen is present (foramen Vesalii),
which a vein runs from the cavernous sinus within the cranium to the
id venous plexus situated in the pterygo-maxillary region. Immediately
he root of the external pterygoid plate there is a large oval hole, the **foramen**
nd behind that, and in line with the alar spine, is the smaller **foramen**
a. These two foramina cannot usually be seen in a side view of the skull,
better studied when the base is examined; they are mentioned, however,
they transmit structures which here pass from and enter the cranium, viz.
rior maxillary division of the fifth nerve, together with its motor root, and
ll meningeal artery through the foramen ovale, and the middle meningeal
and its companion veins through the foramen spinosum. A part of the
us temporal also forms a small portion of the roof of this fossa; it consists
angular area immediately in front of the eminentia articularis, and between
the anterior root of the zygomatic process of the temporal, which is here
inwards and forwards, to become continuous with the infratemporal crest.
lly this surface is continuous with the zygomatic surface of the great wing
sphenoid, separated from it, however, by the hinder part of the spheno-
sal suture.

en the lower jaw is in position, the zygomatic fossa is concealed by the
f the mandible, the inner surface of which, in its upper half, forms the outer
that space. Viewed from the outer side, the ramus of the inferior maxilla
s considerable differences in different skulls. These are mainly due to varia-
ı its width and in the nature of the angle which it forms at its fusion with
y of the bone. A considerable interval separates the posterior border of the
from the front of the mastoid process. Within this space may be seen the
erior edge of the **tympanic plate** (vaginal process), from which, just below
ernal auditory meatus, the **styloid process** of the temporal bone is observed
downwards and slightly forwards. The width and height of the **coronoid**
vary much, oftentimes reaching the level of the top of the condyle. Its
ity, when the lower jaw is closed, lies just within the fore-part of the zygo-
ırch; at other times it rises to a much higher level, so that its point may be
ove the level of the upper border of the zygomatic arch. The posterior
f the coronoid process forms the anterior border of the sigmoid notch, and
in front the interval left between the lower border of the posterior half of
gomatic arch and the upper hollowed edge of the ramus. On looking into
terval, the floor of the zygomatic fossa may be seen, formed anteriorly by the
ıl pterygoid plate; whilst posteriorly it is possible to pass a probe right
the base of the skull from one sigmoid notch to the other, the shaft of the
ying immediately behind the pterygoid processes of the sphenoid, and cross-
foramina ovalia, through which the inferior maxillary divisions of the fifth
pass.

e **ramus** and **coronoid process** are so placed as to occupy a position inter-
e between the zygomatic arch externally and the external pterygoid plate
lly; their inner surface, therefore, forms the outer wall of the zygomatic fossa.
level with the surface of the crowns of the teeth of the lower jaw, and
d about the middle of this aspect of the ramus, is the **inferior dental foramen**

(foramen mandibulare), the superior opening of the **inferior dental canal** (cana mandibulæ), which traverses the body of the bone. Through this foramen the pass the inferior dental branch of the inferior maxillary division of the fifth ner together with the inferior dental artery and its companion veins. As will now seen, when the lower jaw is in position, the zygomatic fossa is closed in externa by the ramus of the mandible. In front there is an interval between the anter border of the ramus and the zygomatic surface of the superior maxilla, throu which pass the buccal branch of the fifth nerve and the communicating ve between the pterygoid plexus and the facial vein. Above, in the interval betwe the sigmoid edge and the lower border of the zygomatic arch, there pass from t fossa the vessels and nerves which supply the masseter muscle. Between t posterior border of the ramus and the styloid process there enter and leave t large vessels which are found within the space. Superiorly, under cover of t zygomatic arch, the zygomatic fossa communicates with the temporal fossa, whil inferiorly it is continuous with the inframaxillary region. Internally, on t floor of the fossa there is an Γ-shaped fissure, the horizontal limb of whi corresponds to the **spheno-maxillary fissure**, forming a channel of communicati between the fossa and the orbit, through which passes the orbital branch of t superior maxillary division of the fifth nerve; whilst the vertical cleft is the **pteryg maxillary fissure**, which leads into a small fossa placed between the front of the r of the pterygoid process of the sphenoid and the back of the superior maxilla, call the **spheno-maxillary fossa** (fossa pterygo-palatina).

The following foramina open into the zygomatic fossa—the foramen ova

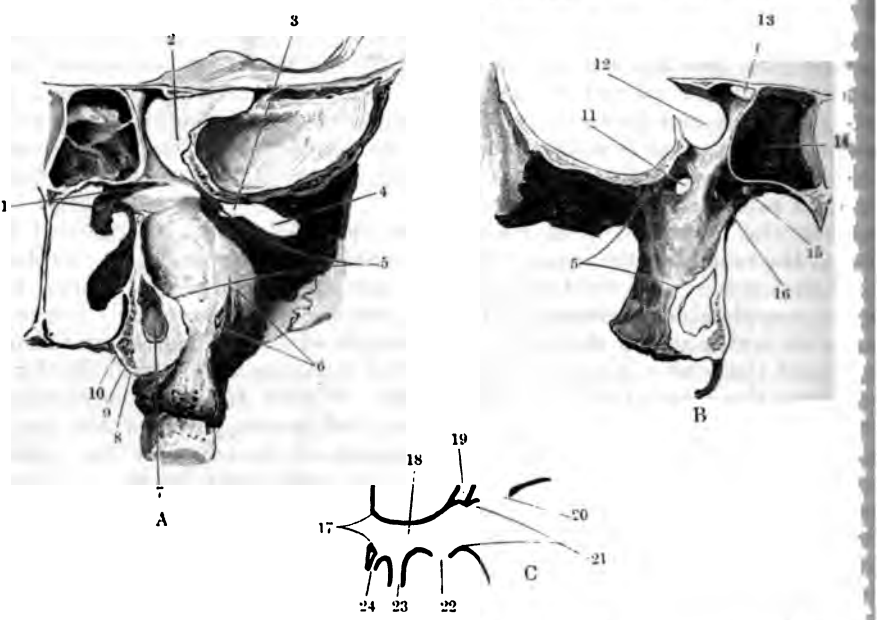


FIG. 120.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE SPHENO-MAXILLARY FOSSA OF THE RIGHT SIDE.

A. Anterior Wall. B. Posterior Wall. C. Diagrammatic representation of a horizontal section across th fossa.

1. Spheno-palatine foramen.
2. Apex of orbital cavity.
3. Spheno-maxillary fissure.
4. Spheno-maxillary fissure.
5. Pterygo-maxillary fissure.
6. Dental foramina.
7. Part of pterygoid fossa.
8, 9, 10. Posterior palatine and accessory palatine canals.
11. Foramen rotundum.
12. Sphenoidal fissure.
13. Optic foramen.
14. Sphenoidal sinus.
15. Pterygo-palatine canal.
16. Vidian canal.
17. Spheno-palatine foramen.
18. Spheno-maxillary fossa.
19. Infra-orbital groove.
20. Spheno-maxillary fissure.
21. Pterygo-maxillary fissure.
22. Foramen rotundum.
23. Vidian canal.
24. Pterygo-palatine canal.

foramen spinosum, posterior dental foramina, inferior dental foramen, mino foramina for the transmission of emissary veins; of these one of large size occasionally present, the foramen of Vesalius.

Spheno-Maxillary Fossa.—This space, which corresponds to the angular inter

ween the pterygo-maxillary and spheno-maxillary fissures, and which lies **ween the maxilla** in front and the root of the pterygoid process behind, is **nded internally** by the vertical plate of the palate bone, which separates it **m the nasal cavity**, with which, however, it communicates by means of the **sno-palatine** foramen, which lies between the orbital and sphenoidal processes of **palate bone** and the under surface of the body of the sphenoid. Opening **this fossa**, above and behind, are the foramen rotundum, the Vidian canal and **pterygo-palatine** canal from without inwards, whilst below is the superior **ce of the posterior** palatine canal, together with openings of the accessory **erior palatine canals**. Its roof is formed by the under surface of the body of **sphenoid and the orbital** plate of the palate bone. Anteriorly it lies in relation **the apex of the** orbit, with which it communicates by means of the spheno-**xillary fissure**; whilst externally, as already stated, it communicates with the **omatic fossa** through the pterygo-maxillary fissure.

Norma Occipitalis.

This view of the cranium includes the posterior halves of the two parietal **nes above**, the tabular part of the occipital bone below, and the mastoid portions **the temporal** bones on either side inferiorly. The shape of this aspect of the **ull varies much**, but ordinarily the greatest width corresponds to the level of the **rietal eminences**. The sutures on this view of the calvaria display a tri-radiate **angement**, one limb of which is vertical, and corresponds to the posterior part of **e interparietal** or **sagittal suture** (sutura sagittalis). The other two limbs pass **twards and downwards** in the direction of the mastoid processes, uniting the two **rietal bones in front** with the occipital bone behind; these constitute the Λ-shaped **mbdoid suture** (sutura lambdoidea). The point of confluence of the sagittal and **mbdoid sutures** is called the **lambda**. This can generally be felt in the living, **ring to the** tendency of the tabular part of the occipital to project slightly **mediately below** this spot. About one inch and a quarter above the lambda the **o small parietal foramina** (foramina parietalia) are seen, through which pass the **all emissary** veins of Santorini, which connect the intracranial venous system **ith** the superficial veins of scalp. These small holes lie about $\frac{5}{16}$ of an inch apart **n** either side of the sagittal suture, which here, for the space of about an inch, **isplays** a simplicity of outline in striking contrast with its serrated arrangement **lsewhere**. The term **obelion** is applied to a point on the sagittal suture in line **ith** the two parietal foramina. The **lambdoid suture** is characterised by great **regularity** of outline, and not unfrequently chains of separated ossicles are met **ith** in it, the so-called **Wormian bones**. The tabular part of the occipital bone is **ivided** into two parts by the **superior curved line** (linea nuchæ superior), the **entral** part of which forms the **external occipital protuberance** (protuberantia **ccipitalis exterior**). The part above, called the occipital surface (planum occipitale), **omes** within our present consideration; the part below, the nuchal surface (planum **uchale**, though seen in perspective, had best be considered when the base is **examined**. A little above the level of the superior curved line the occipital surface **is** crossed on either side by a faint lunated line, the **highest curved line** (linea **uchæ** suprema) to which are attached the occipitales muscles and the epicranial **aponeurosis**. The projection of the occipital surface varies much in individual **skulls**; most frequently it overhangs the external occipital protuberance, forming a **distinct** boss; exceptionally, however, the latter may be the most projecting part of **the** bone. The extremity of the superior curved line on either side corresponds to **the** position of the **asterion** (p. 154). External to these points the outline of the **skull** is determined by the downward projection of the mastoid processes, the inner **surfaces** of which are deeply grooved for the attachment of the posterior bellies of **the** digastric muscles, thus causing these processes to appear more pointed when **viewed** from this aspect.

Norma Verticalis.

This is the view of the calvaria as seen from above. It is liable to great

diversities of form. Thus its shape may vary from an elongated oval to an out more nearly circular. These differences have been classified, and form impor distinctions from a craniometrical standpoint (p. 178), the rounder varieties h termed the **brachycephalic**, whilst the elongated belong to the **dolichocephalic** gr Another noteworthy point in this view is the fact that in some instances zygomatic arches are seen, whilst in others they are concealed by the overh and bulge of the sides of the fore-part of the cranium. The former conditio described as **phœnozygous**, the latter as **cryptozygous**, and each is more or less clo associated with the long or round varieties of head-form respectively.

The sutures displayed have a T-shaped arrangement. Placed mesially betw the two parietal bones is the **sagittal suture**. This is finely denticulated, excep the region of the obelion, though, of course, this will not be apparent if obliter of the suture has taken place through fusion of the two parietal bones. Poster the sagittal suture unites with the lambdoid suture at the **lambda**, which m in the adult the position of the posterior fontanelle of the fœtus. Anterior terminates by joining the transverse suture which separates the **frontal** anteriorly from the parietals behind; this latter is called the **coronal suture**, and point of junction between the sagittal and coronal sutures is known as the **bre** which corresponds in position to the anterior fontanelle of the fœtus. The sum of the vault of the calvaria corresponds to a variable point in the line of the sagi suture, and is named the **vertex**. The **coronal suture** is less denticulated centrally t laterally. Occasionally there is a persistence of the suture which unites the halves of the frontal bone; under these conditions the line of the **sagittal sutur** carried forward to the fronto-nasal suture, and a skull displaying this peculiarit described as **metopic**. Behind the coronal suture may occasionally be seen **post-coronal depression** (p. 154), and in some instances the vault of the **calvaria** fo a broad, slightly elevated crest along the line of the sagittal suture. On ei side, the temporal ridges can be seen curving over the lateral and superior asp of the parietal bones. As the lower of these crosses the coronal suture in fro marks a spot known as the **stephanion**, useful as affording a fixed point from wh to estimate the bi-stephanic diameter. The interval between the temporal ri on either side will vary according to the form of the skull and the developmen the temporal muscle. In this view of the calvaria a small part of the lambd suture on either side of the lambda is visible posteriorly.

Norma Basalis.

The base of the cranium—*i.e.* the skull without the mandible—includes a descri tion of the under surfaces of the **skeleton of the face** (cranium viscerale) and t **cranium** (cranium cerebrale). The former includes the **hard palate** formed by t superior maxillæ and palate bones, the **superior dental arch**, and the **bodies of t superior maxillæ** as seen from below; whilst externally, and united with the bodies the superior maxilla, the **malar** bones are displayed, curving backwards to form t anterior halves of the **zygomatic arches**. In the middle line, passing from the up surface of the hard palate, is the osseous septum of the nose, here formed the vomer, which is united above to the under surface of the body of t sphenoid.

The under surface of the cranium is pierced by the **foramen magnum** for t transmission of the spinal cord and its membranes. In front of this a stout bar bone extends forwards in the middle line, formed by the union of the body of t sphenoid in front with the basilar process of the occipital bone behind. In ad skulls all trace of the fusion of these two bones has disappeared; when union is i complete, it indicates that the skull is that of a person below the age of twenty-fi The sphenoid comprises that part of the calvaria which forms the roof and sides the apertures which lie on either side of the nasal septum above the hard pal —the **choanæ** or **posterior nares**. Laterally the under surfaces of the gr sphenoidal wings extend as far forward as the posterior border of the sphe **maxillary fissure**; whilst posteriorly they reach as far as the **alar spine**, external which the spheno-squamosal suture, separating the great wing of the sphenoid fr

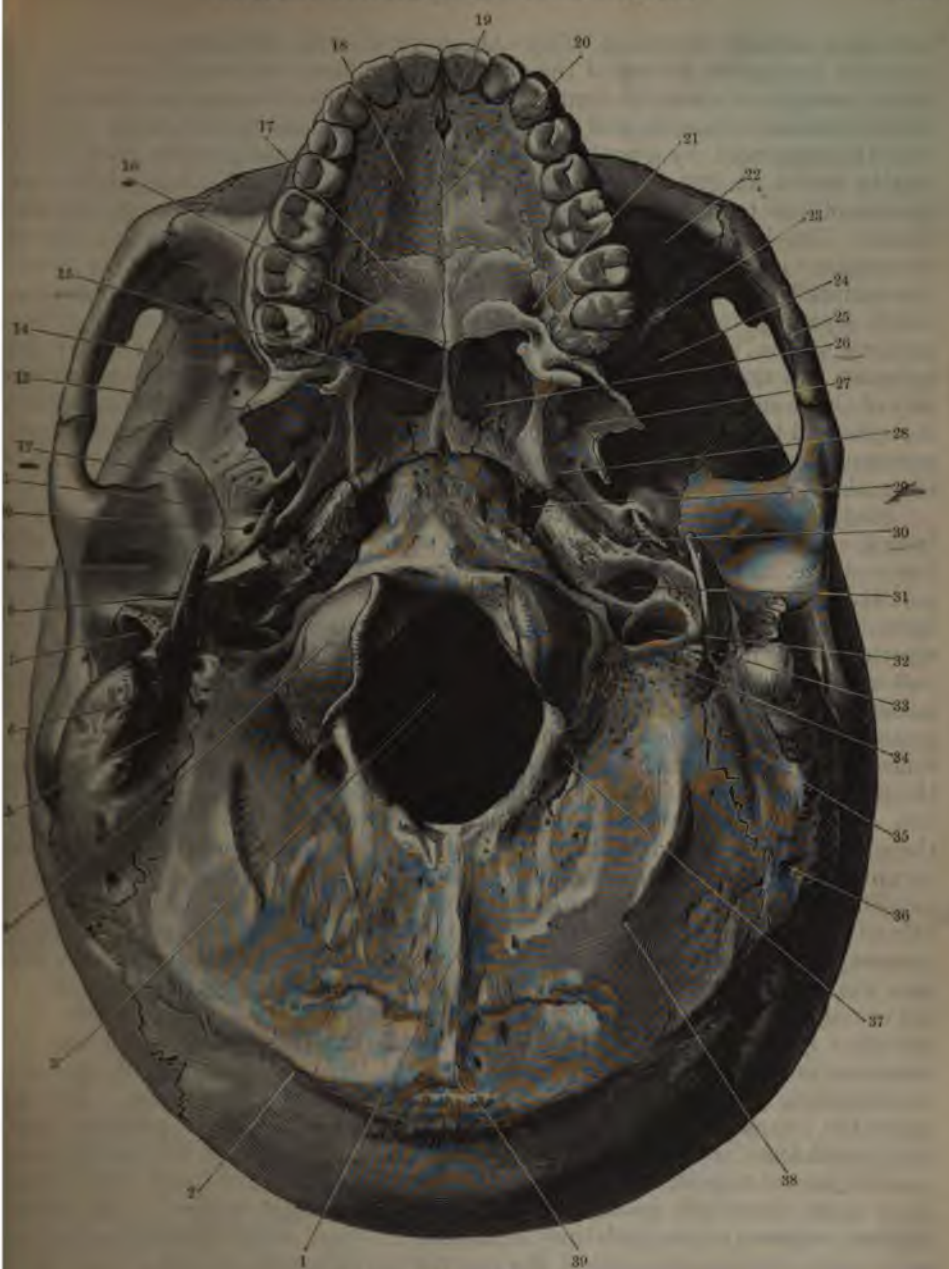


FIG. 121.—NORMA BASALIS.

External occipital crest.
Superior curved line of the occipital bone.
Foramen magnum.
Occipital condyle.
Digastric groove.
Mastoid process.
External auditory meatus.
Styloid process.
Glenoid fossa.
Foramen spinosum.
Sphenoidal spine.
Foramen ovale.
External pterygoid plate.
14. Hamular process of internal pterygoid plate.
15. Nasal septum.
16. Posterior nasal spine.
17. Horizontal plate of palate bone.
18. Palatal process of superior maxilla.
19. Anterior palatine canal.
20. Intermaxillary suture.
21. Posterior palatine canal.
22. Malar process of superior maxilla.
23. Spheno-maxillary fissure.
24. Zygomatic fossa.
25. Zygomatic arch.
26. Posterior opening of left nasal fossa.
27. Pterygoid fossa.
28. Scaphoid fossa.
29. Foramen lacerum medium.
30. Opening of osseous Eustachian canal.
31. Carotid canal.
32. Jugular fossa.
33. Stylo-mastoid foramen.
34. Jugular process of occipital bone.
35. Groove for occipital artery.
36. Mastoid foramen.
37. Posterior condylic foramen.
38. Inferior curved line of occipital bone
39. External occipital protuberance.

squamous portion of the temporal, curves forwards and upwards, internal to the mentia articularis, to reach the floor of the temporal fossa, along which its course

has been already traced (p. 155). On a level with the front of the foram magnum the **jugular process** of the occipital bone forms an irregular curved bon which sweeps outwards to terminate at a point just internal to the root of t styloid process. Here, in line with the spheno-squamosal suture, from which, h ever, it is separated by a considerable interval, its extremity turns backwards, may be traced at first internal to, and then turning upwards, behind the mast process of the temporal bone, separated from this latter by the occipito-mast suture. The bone behind the foramen magnum, which is included between two occipito-mastoid sutures, comprises the **nuchal surface** of the tabular portion the occipital bone, an area which is limited behind by the **superior curved** which separates it from the occipital surface of the same bone. The remain portions of the base of the calvaria, as at present exposed, are formed by **squamous** and **tympanic portions** of the **temporal bone** together with the **petro-mast part** of the same bone, the latter of which is wedged in between the great win the sphenoid in front and the occipital bone behind. Stretching forwards from squamous temporal in front is seen the **zygomatic process** which, by its union w the malar, completes the formation of the zygomatic arch.

Studying next the various parts in detail, the **hard palate** (palatum durum) m be first examined. Of horse-shoe shape as a rule, it presents many varieties of e line and size. Formed by the palatal processes (processus palatini) of the supe maxillæ in front and the horizontal plates (partes horizontales) of the palate bo behind, its circumference in front and at the sides corresponds to the sup **alveolar arch**, in which are embedded the sixteen teeth of the upper j posteriorly the edge of the hard palate is thin, ending mesially in a poin process, the **posterior nasal spine** (spina nasalis posterior), on either side of which posterior free border is sharp and lunated. The vault of the palate, which concave from side to side, and from before backwards, varies in depth according the projection and development of the alveolar processes. When the teeth are s and the alveoli are absorbed, the palate becomes shallow and flat. Runni throughout its entire length in the middle line is the **middle palatine sut** (sutura palatina mediana), which separates the palatal processes of the supe maxillæ in front and the horizontal plates of the palate bones behind. A lit behind the central incisor teeth, and in the line of this suture, is a little pit, **anterior palatine canal** or **fossa** (foramen incisivum). At the bottom of this may seen the openings of some small canals, varying in number from one to four; th are usually described as arranged in two pairs, the one pair placed side by si the other lying mesially in front and behind. The former are called the inci foramina, or foramina of Stenson, and transmit the terminal twigs of the super or descending palatine arteries which ascend to reach the nasal fossæ. The latt called the foramina of Scarpa, open, the anterior into the left, the posterior into t right nasal fossa, and afford passage for the fine filaments of the left and right na palatine nerves respectively. About half an inch (12 mm.) in front of the poster nasal spine the middle palatine suture is crossed at right angles by the transve **palatine suture** (sutura palatina transversa). This, which indicates the line union of the palatal processes of the superior maxillæ with the horizontal plates the palate bones, passes transversely outwards on either side until it reaches t inner aspect of the base of the alveolar process, along which it turns backward, disappear within the **posterior palatine canal** (foramen palatinum majus), the apertu of which lies immediately internal to the root of the wisdom molar. Through th there pass the superior or descending palatine artery and the large descendi palatine nerve. Leading from this foramen is a groove which curves forward im mediately to the inner side of the alveolar arch; not unfrequently the inner edg of this groove forms a thin and sharp ridge on the surface of the palate. In thi groove are lodged the aforementioned vessels and nerves. The surface of the palat in front of the transverse suture is rough, pitted for the palatine glands, and pierced b numerous small vascular foramina; the part of the palate behind the suture, forme by the under surface of the horizontal plate of the palate bone, is much smoothe From this there rises, just posterior to the orifice of the posterior palatine canal, thin sharp crest which curves inwards immediately in front of the posterior fr

; to this are attached some of the tendinous fibres of the tensor palati cle.

Pterygoid Processes.—Buttressed against the hinder extremities of the alveolar are the pterygoid processes of the sphenoid. If carefully examined, these be seen not to lie in actual contact with the maxillæ, but to be separated from a by the triangular wedge-shaped **tuberosities** (proc. pyramidales) of the palate s. It is these latter which are pierced by the posterior and external **accessory tine canals** (foramina palatina minora) which lie just behind the posterior pala- canal, and through which pass the lesser palatine nerves. As here displayed, **pterygoid processes** (processus pterygoidei) of the sphenoid lie on either side of opening of the posterior nares; each consists of two plates, an internal (lamina ialis) and an external (lamina lateralis); the latter is the broader, and is cted backwards and slightly outwards. Its external surface has been already lied in connexion with the zygomatic fossa (p. 156). Internally it is separated n the inner pterygoid plate by the **pterygoid fossa** (fossa pterygoidea), wherein odged a considerable part of the internal pterygoid muscle. The floor of the a is formed in greater part by the coalescence of the two pterygoid plates; but he level of the hard palate the tuberosity of the palate bone appears wedged in ween the two plates, and so enters into the formation of the floor of the rygoid fossa. The internal pterygoid plate separates the nasal from the rygoid fossa; to the hinder edge of the internal pterygoid plate are attached the ryngeal aponeurosis, the superior constrictor of the pharynx, and the palato- ryngeus muscle. Above, the posterior border of this plate is channelled to m the small **scaphoid fossa** (fossa scaphoidea), which curves outwards over the mmit of the pterygoid fossa, and furnishes a surface for the origin of the tensor palati scle. The sharp inner margin of this fossa, continuous below with the posterior rder of the internal pterygoid plate, extends upwards, and on either side of the dy of the sphenoid forms a blunt pointed process, the **pterygoid tubercle**, which tends backwards towards the apex of the petrous part of the temporal bone. st external to this, and concealed by it, is the hinder extremity of the **Vidian nal** (canalis Vidianis), through which pass the Vidian vessels and nerve. The ner surface of the internal pterygoid plate is directed towards the nasal fossæ. periorly this surface curves inwards to meet the under surface of the body of the henoid, forming on either side a lipped edge, the **vaginal process** (processus vaginalis), tween which the alæ of the vomer, which here forms the nasal septum, are edged. Between the two a small interval, however, is occasionally left, which forms s either side the **basi-pharyngeal canal**. A little external to the line of union of he vaginal process with the vomer is the opening of the **pterygo-palatine canal** analis pharyngeus). This lies between the under surface of the vaginal process nd the sphenoidal process of the palate bone, which here articulates with the nferior surface of the body of the sphenoid. The pharyngeal branch of the pheno-palatine ganglion and the pterygo-palatine artery pass through this canal. nferiorly the pterygoid processes project below the level of the hard palate. The ner plate ends in a slender recurved process, called the **hamular process** (hamulus terygoideus), which turns backwards and outwards; this is frequently broken off in kulls which have been roughly handled. It reaches as low as the level of the lveolar margin, and lies just within and behind the posterior extremity of the lveolar process. It can readily be felt in the living by placing the finger against he soft palate behind and just within the gum around the root of the wisdom ooth. On the front of and below this process the tendon of the tensor palati nuscle glides in a groove.

The **posterior nares** (choanæ) lie within and between the pterygoid processes. f a shape much resembling two Gothic windows, their bases or inferior boundaries re formed by the horizontal plates of the palate bone. Externally they are ounded by the inner surfaces of the internal pterygoid plates, whilst above, the uter side of the arch is formed by the vaginal processes of the same plate; intern- lly they are separated by the thin vertical posterior border of the vomer, whilst bove the everted alæ of the same bone form the inner sides of the arch. The lane of these apertures is not vertical but oblique, corresponding usually to a

line drawn from the bregma above through the last molar tooth of the u jaw below. Their size varies considerably, but the height is usually equal to t the width.

The region of the cranium which lies external to the superior maxilla external pterygoid plate corresponds to the **zygomatic fossa**, which has been al described as seen from the side (norma lateralis, p. 156). Viewed from below zygomatic fossa is bounded in front by the posterior surface of the body of superior maxilla and the internal surface of the malar bone. The roof, whi traversed by the spheno-squamosal suture, is formed in front by the under su of the great wing of the sphenoid, and behind by a small triangular surface o under side of the squamous part of the temporal bone immediately in front of eminentia articularis.

Circumscribed externally and behind by the anterior root of the zygoma, w curves forward to become continuous in front with the infra-temporal crest cro the external surface of the great wing of the sphenoid, the roof of the fo separated from its anterior wall by the **spheno-maxillary fissure**, which is so inc that with its fellow of the opposite side it forms an angle of 90°. Superiorly zygomatic fossa communicates freely with the temporal fossa beneath the matic arch, though the student must bear in mind the fact that when the inf maxilla is in position the external limits of the space are very much reduced (p.

The under surface of the great wing of the sphenoid is here V-shaped. angle corresponds to the spine, the outer limb to the spheno-squamosal su whilst the inner limb corresponds to a narrow cleft, the fissura spheno-pet which separates it from the petrous portion of the temporal bone to which united in the recent condition by a synchondrosis. Along the line of this l fissure the edges of the adjacent bones (sphenoid and petrous temporal) bevelled so as to form a groove, which extends from the root of the inner pter plate internally, to the inner side of the base of the alar spine externally, w the groove ends by entering an osseous canal. In the groove (sulcus tubæ audit is lodged the cartilaginous part of the **Eustachian tube**, whilst the osseous c includes the bony part of the same tube, together with the tensor tympani mu which is lodged in a separate compartment immediately above it. The ant extremity of the cartilaginous part of the Eustachian tube is supported by posterior edge of the internal pterygoid plate, which is often notched for its re tion. Between the root of the external pterygoid plate and the alar spine t are two foramina which lie immediately in front of the sulcus tubæ audit Of these the larger and anterior is the **foramen ovale**, through which pass motor root and inferior maxillary division of the fifth nerve, together with small meningeal artery. The smaller, which from its position immediately front of the alar spine is called the **foramen spinosum**, transmits the middle me geal artery and sympathetic plexus surrounding that vessel. The lesser superf petrosal nerve here passes through the base of the skull to join the otic gangl either through a small foramen (canalis innominatus) placed between the fora ovale and the foramen spinosum, or through the foramen ovale or through spheno-petrosal fissure. The position of the suture between the basi-occipital a basi-sphenoid corresponds to a line connecting the tips of the pterygoid tubercles the root of the internal pterygoid plates.

Occasionally in the centre of this line there is a small pit with a foramen leading from it. T probably represents the lower end of the cranio-pharyngeal canal.

The under surface of the **basi-occipital** (pars basilaris) stretches between t body of the sphenoid in front and the anterior margin of the foramen magnu behind; projecting from its centre is a slight elevation, the **pharyngeal tuber** (tuberculum pharyngeum), to which the pharyngeal aponeurosis, together with t central part of the anterior occipito-atlantal ligament, is attached. It should b noted, that when the atlas is in position the pharyngeal tubercle lies in line wit the tubercle on the anterior arch of that bone. Curving outwards and backward from the pharyngeal tubercle, on either side, is an irregular ridge (**crista muscularis**) in front and behind which are attached the rectus capitis anticus **major and mino**

cles. On either side of the basi-occipital, in front, there is an irregular opening ariable size; this is placed between the root of the pterygoid process anteriorly, apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone externally, and the outer e of the basi-occipital and basi-sphenoid internally. It is called the **foramen rum medium**. Opening into it in front, just external to the pterygoid tubercle, he **Vidian canal**, whilst in correspondence with the apex of the petrous temporal large orifice of the **carotid canal** may be seen entering it behind and from the er side. In the recent condition the lower part of the foramen lacerum is upied by fibro-cartilage, over the upper surface of which the internal carotid ery and great superficial petrosal nerve pass to reach their respective foramina, ilst a small meningeal branch of the ascending pharyngeal occasionally enters cranium through it. Leading outwards from the foramen lacerum in the ection of the alar spine of the sphenoid is the spheno-petrosal fissure, which lies the bottom of the **sulcus tubæ auditivæ**, and disappears from view within the y **Eustachian canal**. Passing backwards from the foramen lacerum there is a sure between the outer side of the basi-occipital and the posterior and inner rder of the petrous part of the temporal bone. This, which is called the **petro-ipital fissure** (fissura petro-occipitalis), opens posteriorly into the **jugular foramen**. the recent condition the fissure is filled up with cartilage. The under surface the petrous bone included between these two fissures is rough and irregular, and ords attachments near its apex to two small muscles, the levator palati and the nor tympani. Immediately behind the alar spine the petrous temporal is rced by a circular hole, the inferior opening of the **carotid canal** (canalis caroticus). is passes upwards, and then turns inwards and forwards towards the apex of the ne, where it may again be seen opening into the outer and upper side of the ramen lacerum. Externally the wall of the vertical part of this canal which is ually very thin, separates it from the cavity of the tympanum, as may be seen by lding the skull up to the light and looking into the external auditory meatus . 118). The carotid canal transmits the internal carotid artery, together with e sympathetic plexus around it. It is noteworthy that the two carotid canals e in line with the anterior edges of the two external auditory meatuses.

The **jugular foramen** is an opening of irregular shape and size placed between e petrous temporal in front and the jugular process of the occipital bone hind. The former is excavated into a hollow called the **jugular fossa**, which forms roof to the upper and outer part of the space, whilst the latter, by a curved edge, ther rounded or sharp, constitutes its posterior border. There is often considerable fference in the size of the jugular foramina; that on the right side (with the skull n its normal position) is usually the larger. The foramen is occasionally sub-ivided into two by spicules of bone which bridge across it. Lodged within the men is the sinus of the internal jugular vein, in front of which the inferior petrosal inus passes down to join the internal jugular vein below the foramen. Effect-ng an exit between the two veins, in order from before backwards, are the glosso-haryngeal, pneumogastric, and spinal accessory nerves. Small meningeal branches om the ascending pharyngeal and occipital arteries also enter the foramen. The wo jugular foramina lie in line with a line drawn through the centres of the two xternal auditory meatuses. Following the direction of a line connecting the alar pine of the sphenoid and the mastoid process of the temporal, and placed immedi-tely external to the apertures of the carotid canal and jugular foramen, is the aginal process of the tympanic plate of the temporal bone, the edge of which is harp and thin, and serves to separate the under surface of the petrous temporal from the non-articular part of the glenoid fossa. Springing from this crest im-mediately external to the jugular fossa, and in line with the middle of the external uditory meatus, is the **styloid process** (processus styloideum) of the temporal bone (p. 116). Its relation to the jugular foramen is of great importance, as the internal jugular vein lies immediately to its inner side.

Immediately behind the root of the styloid process, internal to and in line with the front of the mastoid process, is the **stylo-mastoid foramen** (foramen stylo-mastoideum), the lower aperture of the aquæductus Fallopii through which the facial erve passes out and the stylo-mastoid branch of the posterior auricular artery

passes in. The inner surface of the mastoid process is deeply grooved at its b for the origin of the posterior belly of the digastric muscle. Internal to this, running along, just wide of the occipito-mastoid suture, is a shallow groove in w the occipital artery is lodged. Immediately internal to the stylo-mastoid fora is the synchondrosis between the extremity of the **jugular process** (proc jugularis) of the occipital bone and the petrous temporal. The former is a ba bone which limits the jugular fossa posteriorly and abuts on the occipital cond internally; its under surface is convex from before backwards and affords attachm to the rectus lateralis muscle. The **occipital condyles** (condyli occipitales) placed between the jugular processes and the foramen magnum. Limited in fr by a rounded thickening which becomes confluent with the anterior border of foramen magnum, they form by their inner sides the lateral boundaries of t aperture on its anterior half. Externally they are continuous with the jug processes, in front of which they overhang a fossa which is pierced behind by **anterior condylic foramen** (canalis hypoglossi), through which passes the hypogl nerve, together with a small vein and occasionally a small meningeal bra derived from the ascending pharyngeal artery.

The **posterior condylic fossæ** are situated just behind the posterior extremiti the condyles. Not unfrequently their floor is pierced by the **posterior con foramen** (canalis condyloideus), through which the posterior condylic vein eme The base of the skull behind the jugular processes and condyles of the occip bone is formed by the nuchal surface (planum nuchale) of the tabular plate of t bone. Posteriorly this surface is bounded by the **superior curved line**, in the ce of which is placed the projecting external occipital protuberance. Laterally tabular plate is separated from the mastoid portion of the temporal bone by occipito-mastoid suture, which curves backwards and outwards, from the extre of the jugular process in front, around the base of the mastoid process behind. front and in the middle line this plate of bone is pierced by the **foramen magn** the anterior half of which has been already seen to lie between the occip condyles. Usually of oval form, though in some cases it tends to approach circular, the plane of this opening is inclined downwards and slightly forwa The extreme anterior edge of the foramen is sometimes called the **basion**, whilst extreme posterior margin is termed the **opisthion**. The lower border of the medu oblongata, where it becomes continuous with the spinal cord, is lodged within foramen, together with the meninges which cover it, whilst the vertebral arter and the spinal portions of the spinal accessory nerves pass upwards through The anterior and posterior spinal arteries, some small veins, and the roots of th first cervical nerves, also traverse it from above downwards.

The student will, no doubt, experience considerable difficulty in bearing in mind the rela positions of the various foramina and processes which he has studied on the under surface of base of the skull.

If a line be drawn on either side from the anterior palatine canal in front, through the st mastoid foramina posteriorly, it will be found to cut or pass near to the following objects:— the hard palate it will lie close to the posterior and accessory palatine canals. It will then between the hamular process and the external pterygoid plate overlying the foramen ovale, foramen spinosum, the opening of the osseous Eustachian canal and the spine of the sphen behind this it will cut through the root of the styloid process and define externally the limit the jugular fossa. After passing through the stylo-mastoid foramen, if the line be prolon backwards it will usually be found to pass over the mastoid foramen in the occipito-mast suture. Another line of much value is one drawn across the base of the skull from the ce of one external auditory meatus to the other. This will be found to pass through the root the styloid process, the jugular foramen, the anterior condylic foramen; it then crosses the fro of the occipital condyles, and corresponds with the anterior edge of the foramen magnum.

A line which may be found useful is one drawn from the stylo-mastoid foramen of one side the posterior palatine canal of the opposite side. This will be seen to overlie, from behin forwards, the outer part of the jugular foramen and the inferior opening of the carotid can The line indicates the direction of the carotid canal, and cuts the foramen lacerum medi anteriorly; in front of this it usually corresponds to the position of the posterior aperture of t pterygo-palatine canal.

The examination of the base of the skull is incomplete unless the student examin it with the lower jaw and atlas vertebra in position. The relation of the ramus the lower jaw to the zygomatic fossa has been already sufficiently studied (p. 157

e or two points, however, may be emphasised. The **alar spine** of the sphenoid s just internal to the condyle of the jaw when that structure is in position in the ticular part of the glenoid fossa, and it is noteworthy that immediately to the ner side of the alar spine is the commencement of the **osseous Eustachian tube.** he root of the **styloid process** occupies the centre of the interval between the andibular ramus and the front of the mastoid process.

Anteriorly the arcade formed by the **body** of the **lower jaw** adds greatly to the pth of the hard palate. In this space are lodged the tongue and the structures hich form the floor of the mouth. The inner surface of each side of the body of e mandible is traversed by the **internal oblique line** (linea mylo-hyoidea), which mmences posteriorly just behind the root of the last molar tooth and runs downards and forwards towards the symphysis in front.

When the **atlas vertebra** is in articulation with the occipital bone it is well to cognise the relation of its **transverse processes** to the surrounding structures. The xtremities of these processes lie in line with the ends of the jugular processes of e occipital bone, and thus come to be placed just internal to and immediately below id slightly in front of the tips of the **mastoid processes.** They can thus be easily felt the living. Anteriorly they are separated by a short interval from the **styloid rocesses,** and the **stylo-mastoid foramina** lie immediately in front and slightly to he outer side of their extremities. The student will note that there is no hole in he jugular process of the occipital bone corresponding to the arterial foramen in he transverse process of the atlas through which the vertebral artery passes. The ourse of this vessel over the upper surface of the posterior arch behind the perior articular processes of the atlas will be seen to coincide with the posterior ondylic fossæ and the margins of the foramen magnum immediately internal hereto, where a slight grooving of the edge often indicates the course of the artery. n front the anterior tubercle of the atlas falls in line with the **pharyngeal tubercle** n the under surface of the basi-occipital, and the student must not overlook the ct that the anterior surface of the cervical column does not coincide with the nterior margin of the foramen magnum, but lies nearly half an inch in front of hat, in a coronal plane passing immediately in front of the external auditory neatus. Behind, the upper surface of the posterior arch of the atlas overlaps the nder margin of the foramen magnum, and it is by the apposition of these two rfaces that extension is checked at the occipito-atlantal articulation.

THE SKULL IN SECTION.

By the removal of the skull-cap the interior of the cranial cavity is exposed. The deep surface of the cranial vault is grooved mesially for the **superior longitudinal inus,** on either side of which are seen numerous depressions for the lodgment of Pacchionian bodies. On holding the bone up to the light, the floor of these little hollows is oftentimes seen to be very thin. A short distance in front of the lambda, and on either side of the saggital suture, are the internal openings of the **parietal foramina.** The inner tables of the frontal and parietal bones are grooved for the meningeal arteries. The principal branch of the **middle meningeal** runs more or less parallel to and at a variable distance behind the line of the coronal suture. Along the bottom of these grooves small foramina may be seen for the passage of nutrient arteries to the bone, and the floor of the longitudinal sinus is likewise pierced by small apertures for the transmission of veins.

The Upper Surface of the Base of the Skull.

Cranial Fossæ.—The upper surface of the base of the skull is divided into three fossæ, of which the cerebrum occupies the anterior and middle, whilst in the posterior is lodged the cerebellum.

The **anterior fossa** is defined posteriorly by the sharp, thin edge of the lesser wings of the sphenoid, which curve outwards and slightly upwards as well as backwards to reach the region of the **pterion** externally. The floor is formed from before backwards, in the middle line, by the upper surface of the ethmoid and the forepart of the body of the sphenoid; laterally it is constituted by the orbital plates

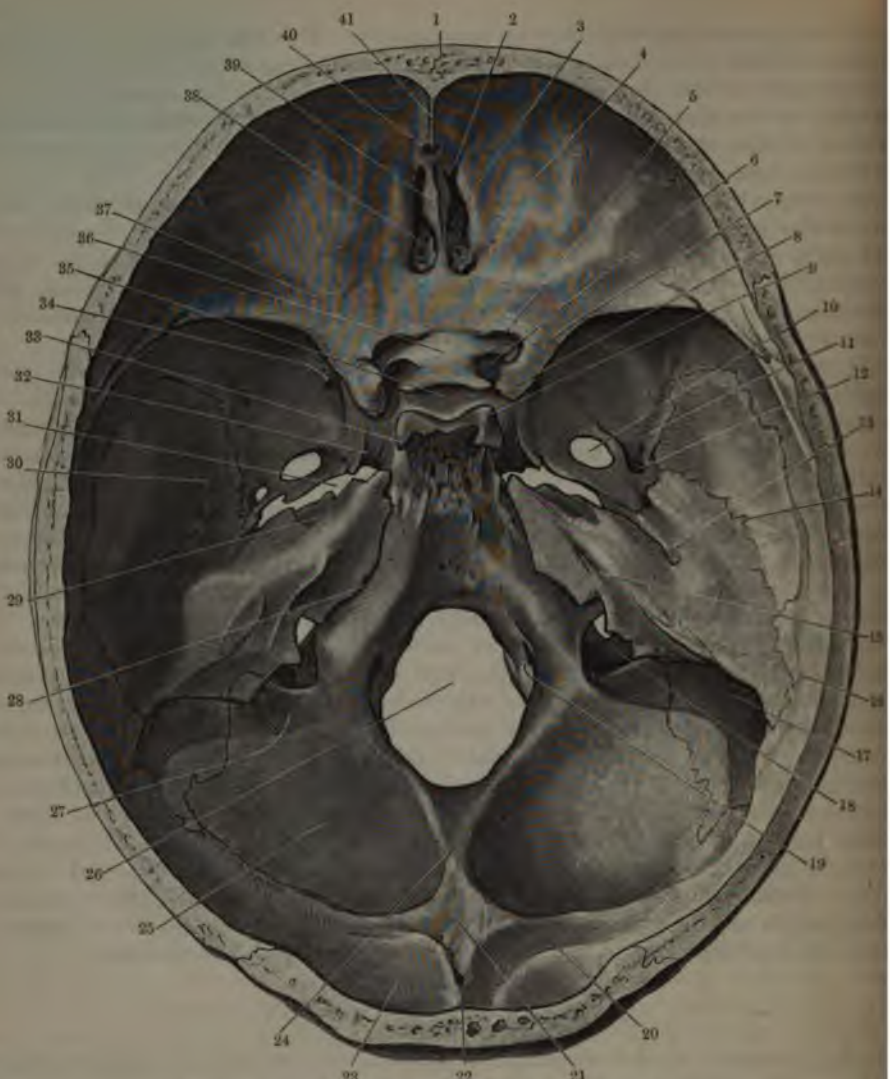


FIG. 122.—BASE OF THE SKULL AS SEEN FROM ABOVE.

1. Frontal bone.
2. Slit for nasal nerve.
3. Anterior ethmoidal foramen.
4. Posterior ethmoidal foramen.
5. Optic foramen.
6. Foramen for internal carotid artery formed by anterior and middle clinoid process.
7. Lesser wing of sphenoid.
8. Anterior clinoid process, in this case united on its inner side to the middle clinoid processes.
9. Posterior clinoid process.
10. Foramen ovale.
11. Groove for middle meningeal artery.
12. Foramen spinosum.
13. Hiatus Fallopii.
14. Line of petro-squamosal suture.
15. Internal auditory meatus.
16. Groove for superior petrosal sinus.
17. Groove for sigmoid part of lateral sinus.
18. Jugular foramen.
19. Anterior condylic foramen.
20. Groove for lateral sinus.
21. Internal occipital protuberance.
22. Ridge for attachment of falx cerebri.
23. Fossa for the lodgment of the occipital lobes of cerebrum.
24. Ridge for the attachment of the falx cerebelli
25. Fossa for the lodgment of the left cere bemisphere.
26. Foramen magnum.
27. Groove for the sigmoid sinus turning int jugular foramen.
28. Groove for the inferior petrosal sinus ru along the line of suture between the pe temporal and the basi-occipital.
29. Depression for the Gasserian ganglion.
30. Middle cranial fossa for lodgment of tem lobe of cerebrum.
31. Foramen lacerum medium.
32. Carotid groove.
33. Dorsum sellæ of sphenoid.
34. Leads into foramen rotundum.
35. Pituitary fossa.
36. Olivary eminence of sphenoid.
37. Anterior cranial fossa for lodgment of frontal of cerebrum.
38. Cribriform plate of ethmoid.
39. Crista galli of ethmoid.
40. Foramen cæcum.
41. Crest for attachment of falx cerebri.

the frontal and the lesser wings of the sphenoid. On these the under surface the frontal lobes of the cerebrum rests. In front the fossa is divided mesially the **frontal crest**, to which the falx cerebri is attached. This is confluent below h the fore part of the **crista galli**, from which, however, it is separated by the **amen cæcum**, which usually transmits a small vein from the nose. On either e of the crista galli there are grooves which vary considerably in depth and ith: therein are lodged the olfactory lobes. The floor and sides of the groove pierced by numerous foramina; of these the largest number transmit the actory nerves to the nasal fossæ. In front an elongated slit, placed on either e of the crista, affords a passage to the nose for the internal nasal nerve and a all branch of the anterior ethmoidal artery which accompanies it. To the outer e of the olfactory groove and the cribriform plate, the anterior fossæ communi- e on either side by means of the two **ethmoidal foramina** with the cavities of the bits. The anterior foramen transmits the internal nasal nerve and the anterior thmoidal artery; the posterior affords passage to the posterior ethmoidal artery d the small spheno-ethmoidal nerve of Luschka. External to the olfactory ove, the floor of the fossa, which here corresponds to the roof of the orbit, is ry thin, as may be seen by holding the skull up to the light; it is convex from le to side, and bears the impress of the convolutions of the under surface of the ntal lobes of the cerebrum which rest upon it. In front and at the side there e a number of vascular grooves for the branches of the anterior and middle eningeal arteries respectively.

The **middle fossa**, which in form may be compared to the wings of a bird nited by the body, is bounded in front by the curved thin posterior edge of the ser wings of the sphenoid; posteriorly, by the line of attachment of the tentorium rebelli, extending from the **posterior clinoid process** along the superior border of e petrous portion of the temporal bone. The median part of the fossa, which is arrow, corresponds to the **sella turcica** and the **olivary eminence** of the **sphenoid.** t is limited anteriorly by a line connecting the anterior margins of the two optic amina, and is overhung behind by the **dorsum sellæ.** In this area are lodged he structures which lie within the interpeduncular space on the base of the brain. The floor of the lateral parts of the fossa on each side is formed by the great wing f the sphenoid in front, the squamous part of the temporal bone to the outer side, nd the superior surface of the petrous temporal behind. In the hollows so formed he t-mporal lobes of the cerebrum are lodged. On either side of the olivary minence are seen the **optic foramina**; these pass into the orbital cavities and ransmit the optic nerves and ophthalmic arteries. Immediately behind these penings the anterior and middle clinoid processes are sometimes united, so as to nclose a foramen. Through this the internal carotid artery passes upwards. Leading backwards from this, along the side of the body of the sphenoid, is the **arotid groove**, which turns downwards near the apex of the petrous temporal, to become continuous with the carotid canal, which here opens on the posterior wall of an irregular aperture, placed between the side of the body of the sphenoid and the summit of the petrous temporal, called the **foramen lacerum medium.** Through the inner angle of this opening the carotid artery accompanied by its plexus of veins and sympathetic nerves passes upwards. Running through the fibrous tissue, which in life blocks up this opening, the large superficial petrosal nerve coming from the hiatus Fallopii passes downwards and forwards to reach the posterior orifice of the **Vidian canal**, which is placed on the anterior and inferior border of the foramen lacerum medium. A small meningeal branch of the ascending pharyngeal artery also passes upwards through this foramen. In front and to the outer side of the foramen lacerum, and separated from it by a narrow bar of bone, is the **foramen ovale**; through this pass both roots of the inferior maxillary nerve, the small meningeal artery, and some emissary veins. A little external and posterior to this is the **foramen spinosum** for the transmission of the middle meningeal vessels, together with a recurrent branch from the inferior maxillary nerve. Leading from the external extremity of the foramen lacerum there is a groove which passes outwards, backwards, and slightly upwards on the superior surface of the petrous temporal to end in the **hiatus Fallopii** (a cleft opening into

the **aquæductus Fallopii**), which gives passage to the large superficial petrosal b derived from the geniculate ganglion on the seventh nerve, together with the petrosal branch of the middle meningeal artery. Just external to the hiatus Fa there is another small foramen for the transmission of the lesser supe petrosal nerve. Overhung by the posterior border of the lesser wing of the sph is the **sphenoidal fissure**, the cleft which separates the lesser from the sphenoidal wings, and which opens anteriorly into the hollow of the orbit; thr this pass the third, fourth, ophthalmic division of the fifth, and sixth n together with the ophthalmic veins as well as the sympathetic filament to lenticular ganglion. Just below its inner extremity is the **foramen rotundu** the passage of the superior maxillary nerve to the spheno-maxillary fossa. B this, and between it and the foramen ovale, the **foramen Vesalii** may occasio be seen, through which a vein passes to reach the pterygoid plexus.

The lateral parts of the middle fossa are moulded in conformity with convolutions of the temporal lobes, but towards their inner sides the splitti the dura mater in the region of the cavernous sinus serves to separate the c base from the under surface of the cerebrum. As may be seen by transmitted the floor of the lateral parts of the fossa is thin as it overlies the te **zygomatic**, and **glenoid fossæ**. The grooves for the lodgment of the branches middle meningeal artery leading from the foramen spinosum are readily seen; coursing backwards a little below the line of the squamoso-parietal sutu specially well marked. Amongst other features may be noticed the depressio the lodgment of the **Gasserian ganglion** overlying the summit of the pe temporal; behind and to the outer side of the hiatus Fallopii, the a **eminence**, indicating the position of the superior semicircular canal; and immedi anterior and slightly to the outer side of this the **tegmen tympani**, which ro the cavity of the tympanum, the thinness of which can readily be demonst if light be allowed to fall through the external auditory meatus.

The **posterior fossa** is larger and deeper than the others. In front it is li by a line on either side leading backwards and outwards from each **posterior c process** along the superior border of the petrous part of the temporal bone, w externally and posteriorly it becomes confluent with the superior lip of transverse groove for the **lateral sinus**, ending posteriorly in the middle lin the **internal occipital protuberance**. Along the line thus indicated the proc dura mater called the **tentorium cerebelli**, which roofs in the posterior fos attached. The floor of the fossa, in which the cerebellar lobes, the pons, medulla are lodged, is formed by the petrous and mastoid portions of the temp bone, with part of the body of the sphenoid and the basilar portion of the occi bone wedged in between them. Above the mastoid temporal a small part of posterior inferior angle of the parietal enters into the constitution of the wall of the fossa. Behind and within these the lateral parts and lower portio the squamous occipital complete the floor. In the middle line the floor of the is pierced by the **foramen magnum**, in which lies the lower part of the med together with its membranes, and through which pass upwards the verte arteries and the spinal accessory nerves. On either side of the foramen magn and a little in front of a transverse line passing through its centre, is the ope of the **anterior condylic foramen** for the passage of the hypoglossal nerve, a m meningeal branch from the ascending pharyngeal artery and an emissary v Overhanging the opening of the anterior condylic foramen there is a thicke rounded bridge of bone, to the outer side of which is placed the irregular openin the **jugular foramen** (foramen lacerum posterius). The size of this is apt to vary the two sides, and the lumen is frequently subdivided by a spicule of bone wh runs across it; the posterior and external rounded part of the foramen is occup by the lateral sinus, which here joins the internal jugular vein. A mening branch from the ascending pharyngeal or occipital artery also enters the sk through this compartment. The fore and internal part of the foramen is conflu with the groove for the **inferior petrosal sinus**, which turns downwards in front the spicule above referred to. The interval between the portions of the foram occupied by the two veins allows the transmission of the glosso-pharyngeal, vag

spinal accessory nerves in order from before backwards. About a quarter of inch above and to the outer side of the fore part of the foramen jugulare the erior surface of the petrous portion of the temporal bone is pierced by the **rnal auditory meatus**, through which the facial and auditory nerves, together h the pars intermedia of Wrisberg, and the auditory branch of the basilar artery ve the cranial cavity. Behind the jugular foramen and close to the margin of foramen magnum the opening of the **posterior condylic foramen**, when pre- t, may be seen. This gives passage to a vein which joins the vertebral vein eriorly. The internal aperture of the **mastoid foramen** is noticed opening into groove for the lateral sinus, a little below the level of the superior border of the rous temporal. Through it passes an emissary vein which joins the occipital externally; the mastoid branch of the occipital artery also enters the cranial ity through this foramen.

The posterior fossa is divided into two halves posteriorly by the **internal occipital** , to which the falx cerebelli is attached, the floors of the hollows on either side hich are often exceedingly thin and are for the lodgment of the lateral lobes of cerebellum. The grooves for the following blood sinuses are usually distinct— **superior petrosal** running along the superior border of the petrous temporal, **inferior petrosal** lying along the line of suture between the petrous temporal basilar process of the occipital bone; the **occipital sinus** grooving the internal pital crest; and the **lateral sinus** curving forwards and outwards from the rnal occipital protuberance, across the internal surface of the squamous pital, to reach the posterior inferior angle of the parietal bone, in front of which rns downwards and inwards to reach the jugular foramen, describing a sigmoid re, and grooving deeply the inner surface of the mastoid and posterior aspect of petrous portions of the temporal bone. Before it terminates at the jugular men it again reaches the occipital bone and channels the upper surface of the ular process of that bone. Slight grooves for meningeal arteries are also seen— e pass upwards, whilst others turn downwards and are occupied by branches m the posterior offsets of the middle meningeal arteries.

Mesial Sagittal Section of the Skull.

Such a section should be made a little to one or other side of the mesial plane, as to pass through the nasal fossæ lateral to the septum; one-half will then splay the nasal septum in position, whilst in the other the outer wall of the sal fossa of that side will be exposed.

The form of the cranial cavity is, of course, subject to many variations dependent individual and racial peculiarities. The following details are, however, worthy note. The hinder border of the foramen magnum (**opisthion**), and consequently e floor of the posterior cranial fossa, occupies the same horizontal plane as the rd palate. The anterior border of the foramen magnum (**basion**) lies a little gher, so that the plane of the foramen is, in the higher races at least, oblique, and directed downwards and slightly forwards. From the basion a line passing wards and forwards to reach the suture between the sphenoid and ethmoid ses through the **basi-cranial axis** formed by the basi-occipital, the basi-sphenoid, d the presphenoid. The basi-cranial axis is wedge-shaped on section posteriorly, whilst anteriorly it is of considerable width, and has within it the large sphenoidal r sinus. Its upper surface leads upwards and forwards with a varying degree of bliquity from the basion to the overhanging edge of the dorsum sellæ, in front of which the **pituitary fossa**, the floor of which is quite thin, is well seen in the ection.

From the olivary eminence the floor of the anterior fossa follows a more or less horizontal direction, corresponding pretty closely to the level of the axis of the orbital cavity. The roof of the orbit is seen to bulge upwards to a considerable extent into the floor of the anterior fossa; whilst the floor of the middle fossa sinks to a level corresponding to that of the under surface of the basi-cranial axis, where it forms the roof of the posterior nares. The maximum length of the skull is measured from the **glabella** (a point between the superciliary ridges) to the occipital point posteriorly. It is noteworthy that the

maximum occipital point does not necessarily correspond to the external occipital tuberance (**inion**). The greatest vertical height usually corresponds to the distance the **basion** to the **bregma** (point of union of the sagittal with the coronal suture), th to this rule there are many exceptions. On looking into the posterior fossa the sut

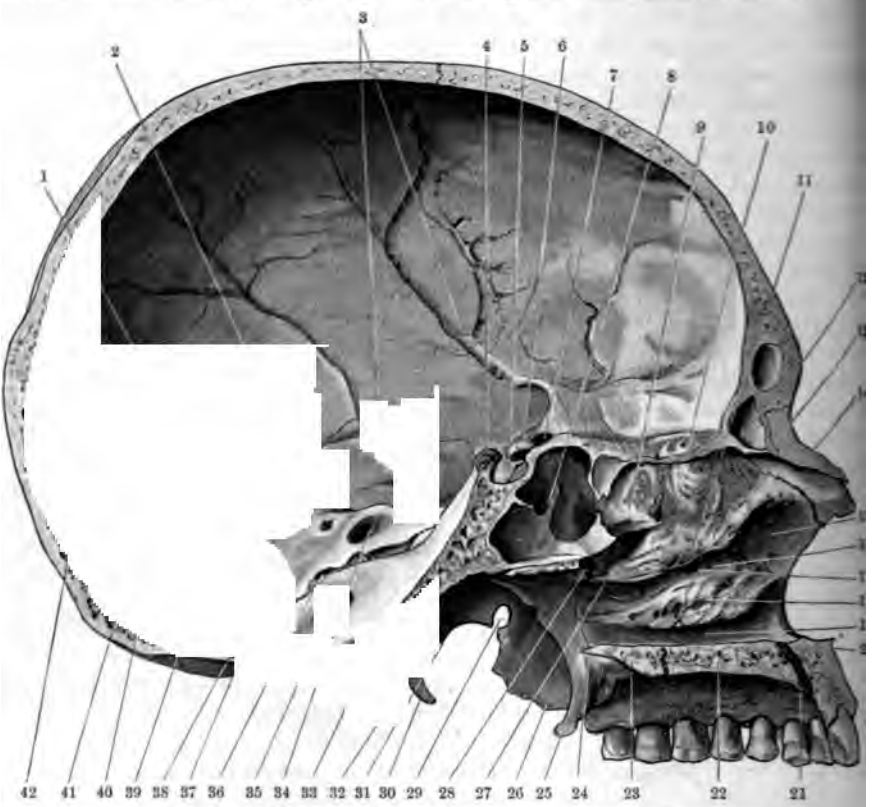


FIG. 123.—INNER ASPECT OF LEFT HALF OF SKULL SAGITTALLY DIVIDED.

1. Suture between parietal and temporal bones.
2. Remains of the subarcuate fossa.
3. Grooves for branches of the middle meningeal artery.
4. Dorsum sellæ.
5. Pituitary fossa.
6. Anterior clinoid fossa.
7. Optic foramen.
8. Sphenoidal sinus.
9. Nasal surface of superior turbinated bone.
10. Cribriform plate of ethmoid.
11. Nasal surface of middle turbinated bone.
12. Frontal sinus.
13. Nasal spine of frontal.
14. Nasal bone.
15. Nasal process of superior maxilla.
16. Middle meatus of nose.
17. Directed towards opening of antrum.
18. Nasal surface of inferior turbinated bone.
19. Inferior meatus of nose.
20. Anterior nasal spine.
21. Anterior palatine canal.
22. Palatal process of superior maxilla.
23. Palatal process of palate bone.
24. Posterior nasal spine.
25. Hamular process of internal pterygoid plat
26. External pterygoid plate.
27. Superior meatus of nose.
28. Spheno-palatine foramen.
29. Pterygo-spinous ligament almost com ossified to enclose a foramen.
30. Styloid process of temporal bone.
31. Alar spine of sphenoid.
32. Mastoid process.
33. Basion (mid-point of anterior border of f magnum).
34. Internal auditory meatus.
35. Anterior condylic foramen.
36. Leading into jugular foramen.
37. Opisthion (mid-point of posterior bor foramen magnum).
38. Groove for sigmoid sinus.
39. Opening of mastoid foramen.
40. For lateral sinus and attachment of ten cerebelli.
41. Fossa for lodgment of cerebellar hemisphe
42. Internal occipital protuberance.

condylic and jugular foramina and the internal auditory meatus are seen in line, sl from below upwards. The **internal auditory meatus** lies in a vertical plane, p through the basion. The grooves for the middle meningeal artery and its branch very obvious. The anterior groove curves forwards and outwards, and reaching the surface of the pterion, passes towards the vertex at a variable distance behind and or less parallel to the coronal suture. From this grooves pass forwards across the s

a the frontal bone. Another groove curves upwards and backwards a little below e of the parieto-squamosal suture. From this an upwardly-directed branch s on the inner surface of the parietal bone, in the region of the parietal eminence, a lower branch passes backwards some little distance above the lambdoid suture, res offsets which curve downwards and inwards over the inner surface of the us portion of the occipital bone.

sal Fossæ.—In the section through the **nasal fossa** the structures which form *r wall* can now be studied. These are—the nasal bone; the nasal process of erior maxilla; the lachrymal bone; the lateral mass of the ethmoid, compris- superior and middle turbinated bones; the vertical plate of the palate bone; erior turbinated bone; and the mesial surface of the internal pterygoid plate. *of* as seen in the section is formed by the nasal and frontal bones, the cribri- late of the ethmoid, the body of the sphenoid and the sphenoidal turbinals, henoidal process of the palate and the ala of the vomer. The *floor*, which is horizontal from before backwards, is formed by the palatal processes of the r maxilla and palate bones. On sagittal section the **nasal fossa** appears hat triangular in shape with the angles cut off; the base corresponds to the the anterior and posterior nares to the truncated anterior and posterior respectively; the superior angle is cut off by the cribriform plate; whilst the orrespond to the frontal and nasal bones anteriorly, and the sphenoidal ds, sphenoidal process of the palate, and the ala of the vomer posteriorly. rity is therefore deep towards its middle, but gradually becomes shallower in nd behind where the openings of the nares are situated. The opening of erior naris, which is of half-heart shape, is larger than that of the posterior nd is directed forwards and downwards; the opening of the posterior is hboidal form, and slopes backwards and downwards. The inferior meatus is nnel which is overhung by the inferior turbinated bone, and its floor is by the side-to-side concavity of the upper surface of the hard palate. g into it above, under cover of the fore part of the inferior turbinated bone, anal for the nasal duct; whilst its floor is pierced in front near the middle the anterior palatine canal. The middle meatus is the hollow between the and inferior turbinated bones; it slopes from above downwards and back- and is overhung by the free curved edge of the middle turbinal, beneath here is a passage called the infundibulum, leading upwards and forwards to periorly into the frontal sinus, as well as into some of the anterior ethmoidal Under cover of the centre of the middle turbinated bone there is an irregular leading into the maxillary sinus or antrum of Highmore, and there quently independent openings for the middle and some of the anterior dal cells. The superior meatus, about half the length of the middle meatus, ed between the superior and middle turbinated bones in the back and upper f the fossa; it receives the openings of the posterior ethmoidal cells. Near terior extremity the spheno-palatine foramen pierces its outer wall, and brings elation with the spheno-maxillary fossa. The sphenoidal sinus opens on the the nose, above the level of the superior turbinated bone, into a depression the spheno-ethmoidal recess.

sal Septum.—If the opposite half of the section in which the osseous nasal is retained be now studied, it will be seen to be formed by the crests of the r maxillary and palate bones below, on which rests the vomer, the posterior of which being free, forms the posterior edge of the nasal septum, which obliquely upwards and backwards towards the under surface of the body of henoid. Here the vomer articulates with the rostrum of the sphenoid. In f this the vomer articulates with the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid, n which anteriorly there is an angular recess into which the cartilaginous fits. Superiorly and anteriorly the osseous septum is completed by the ation of the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid with the nasal process of ntal, together with the nasal crest formed by the union of the nasal bones; posteriorly and superiorly the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid articulates he mesial ethmoidal crest of the sphenoid. In most instances the osseous is not perfectly vertical, but is deflected towards one or other side.

Air-sinuses in connexion with the Nasal Fossæ.—Connected with the n
fossæ are a number of air-sinuses. These are found within the body of
sphenoid, the lateral mas
the ethmoid, the orbital p
cess of the palate bone,
body of the superior max
and the superciliary arch
the frontal bone.

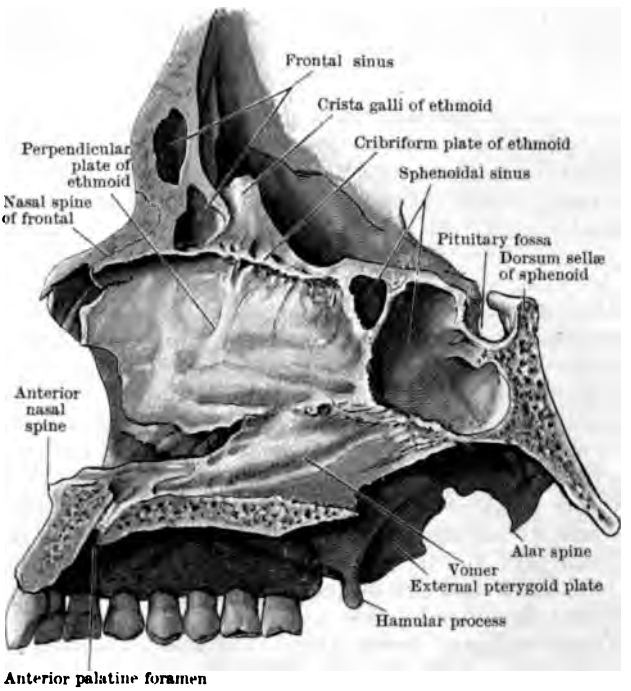


FIG. 124.—NASAL SEPTUM AS SEEN FROM THE LEFT SIDE.

The **sphenoidal sinus**,
variable size, occupies
interior of the body of
sphenoid. In some case
extends towards the roots
the pterygoid processes.
front it is formed in part
the absorption of the sph
oidal spongy bones, and
divided up into two cavi
by a sagittally-placed pa
tion, which, however, is
quently displaced to one
other side. It opens
teriorly into the roof of
nose in the region of
spheno-ethmoidal recess.

The **ethmoidal sinuses**
placed between the lat
aspects of the upper part
the nasal fossæ, and
cavities of the orbit, from which they are separated by thin and papery w
These air spaces are completed by the articulation of the ethmoid with the supe
maxilla, lachrymal, frontal sphenoid, and palate bones, and are divided into th
groups—an anterior, middle, and posterior. The latter communicates with
superior meatus; the anterior and middle open either independently or in conju
tion with the infundibulum into the middle meatus.

The **sinus** in the orbital process of the **palate bone** either communicates w
the sphenoidal sinus, or else assists in closing in some of the posterior ethmoi
cells. Its communication with the nasal fossa is through one or other of th
spaces.

The **maxillary sinus** or **antrum** of **Highmore** lies to the outer side of the n
fossæ, occupying the body of the superior maxilla. Its walls, which are relati
thin, are directed upwards to the orbit, forwards to the face, backwards to
zygomatic and spheno-maxillary fossa, and inwards to the nose. In the la
situation the vertical plate of the palate bone, the uncinate process of the eth
the maxillary process of the inferior turbinated bone, and a small part of the l
rymal bone assist in the formation of the thin osseous partition which separat
from the nasal fossa. The floor corresponds to the alveolar border of the jaw,
differs from the other walls in being stout and thick; it is, however, deeply pi
inferiorly by the alveoli for the teeth. The antrum opens by a narrow orifice i
the middle meatus.

The **frontal sinuses** lie, one on either side, between the inner and outer tabl
the frontal bone over the root of the nose, and extend outwards under the s
ciliary arches. The partition which separates them is usually central, thou
may be deflected to one or other side. They communicate with the nose thr
a passage called the **infundibulum**, which opens inferiorly into the fore-part of
middle meatus.

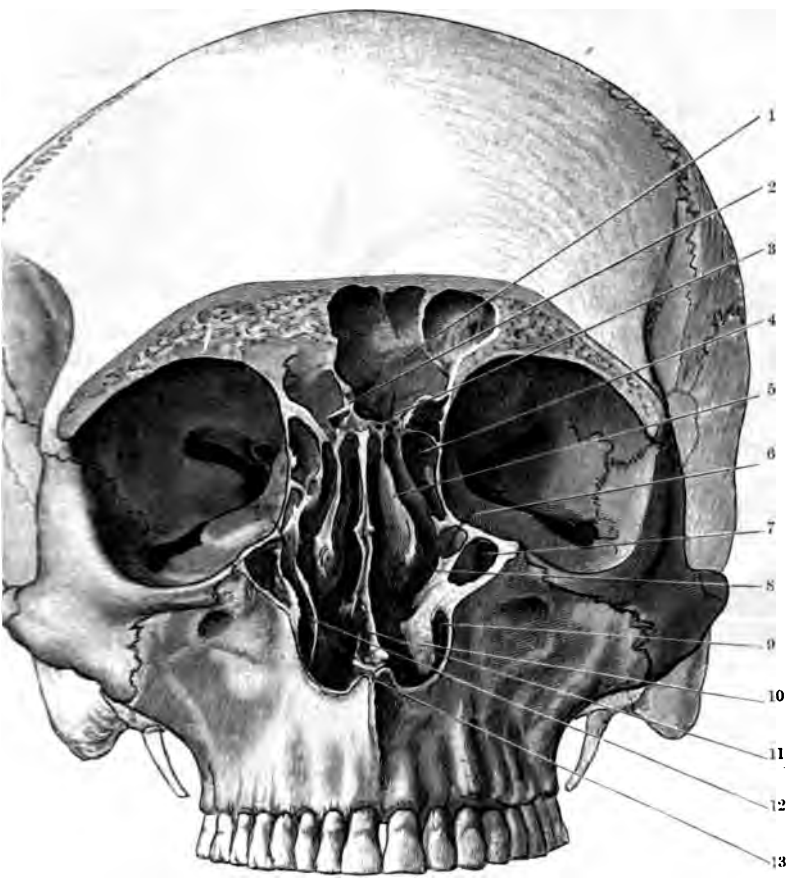
The fact should not be overlooked that the air spaces within the temp
bone, viz. the tympanic cavity and the mastoid air cells, are brought into c
munication with the naso-pharynx through the Eustachian tubes. For fur

ırding the air sinuses and the mode of their growth, consult the descrip- individual bones.

Coronal Sections.

tions of many parts of the cranium are well displayed in a series of coronal

ng off a thin slice from the front of the lower part of the frontal bone carrying the section downwards through the inner wall of the orbit and



—Part of the Frontal, Nasal, and Superior Maxillary Bones removed in order to display the Relation of the various Cavities exposed.

inus.
f frontal sinus deflected towards the right.
ılum leading from sinus to middle meatus.
ethmoidal air sinuses.
urbinated bone.
in upper part of osseous canal for nasal laid open throughout its entire length on ght side.
7. Cavity of antrum laid open.
8. Middle meatus of nose.
9. Inferior meatus of nose.
10. Inferior turbinated bone.
11. Nasal septum.
12. Canal for nasal duct laid open throughout its entire length.
13. Anterior nasal spine.

process of the superior maxilla, into the anterior nares below, a number of im- relations are revealed (see Fig. 125). In the frontal region the extent and ent of the **frontal sinuses** are displayed. The partition between the two sinuses, ed, is usually complete and central in position, though it may occasionally be d or oblique. The sinuses are hardly ever symmetrical, the right being he smaller of the two. (Logan Turner, *Edin. Med. Jour.* 1898.)

nfundibulum on either side, leading from the frontal sinus above to the middle elow, is seen with the middle turbinated bone internal to it, and the anterior l cells to its outer side above. If the section passes through the **canal** for the ict the continuity of that channel leading from the orbit above to the inferior

meatus of the nose below is clearly shown. Its inner wall above, by which it from the cavity of the nose, is formed by the thin lachrymal bone; below, it cover of the inferior turbinated bone to open into the fore part of the inferior

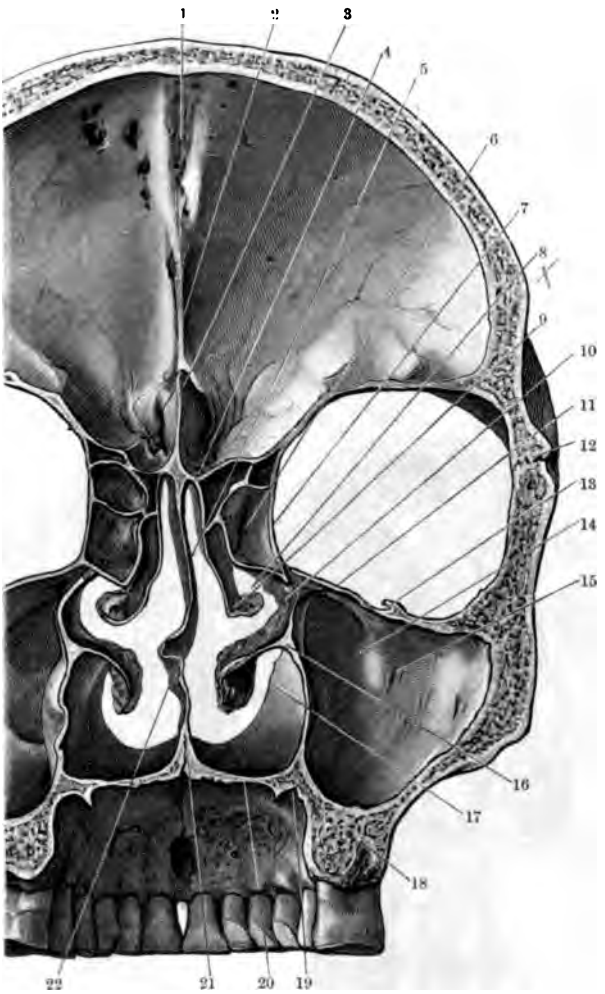


FIG. 126.—CORONAL SECTION PASSING INFERIORLY THROUGH INTERVAL BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND MOLAR TEETH.

1. Groove for superior longitudinal sinus.
2. Crest for attachment of falx cerebri.
3. Crista galli of ethmoid.
4. Cribriform plate of ethmoid.
5. Perpendicular plate of ethmoid, assisting in the formation of nasal septum.
6. Lateral mass of ethmoid consisting of the ethmoidal cells.
7. Os planum of ethmoid.
8. Middle meatus of nose.
9. Middle turbinated bone.
10. Opening from middle meatus into antrum.
11. Orbital plate of superior maxilla.
12. Fronto-malar suture.
13. Infraorbital groove.
14. Antrum or maxillary sinus.
15. Canal for the anterior dental nerve and vessels exposed.
16. Inferior turbinated bone.
17. Inferior meatus of nose.
18. Alveolar process of superior maxilla.
19. Groove for anterior palatine nerve and vessels.
20. Palatal process of superior maxilla.
21. Maxillary crest forming part of nasal septum.
22. Vomer forming part of nasal septum.

is separated from
externally by a thi
bone. The cavity of
is seen to extend u
forwards so as to p
outer side as well as
front of the canal f
duct.

The lower marg
middle turbinated
pretty nearly on a
the most dependent
orbital margins, whil
borders of the inferi
are placed a little
lower margin of t
nares on a level with
point of the mal
suture.

Such a section wil
deflection of the na
should it exist, and w
that but a narrow cle
the upper part of
on either side, from
surface of the superi

The next section
passes through the
the temporal fossa
the external angula
the frontal bone abov
it passes through t
process of the upper
interval between th
second molar teeth.
orbital, nasal, and
cavities are all expos
with the roof of the

The **anterior cr**
is deepest in its centr
floor is formed by th
plate of the ethmoid
sponds to the level o
malar suture exter
either side the floor
bulges upwards, ow
arching of the roof c
Of the orbital walls,
is the thickest and st
superior, internal, a
walls, which separat
from the cranial
ethmoidal cells, and
respectively, are all
cavity of the **maxi**
lying to the outer side

fossæ is well seen. Its roof, which separates it from the orbital cavity, traversed by the **infraorbital canal**. Its inner wall, with which the infer articulates, is very slender, and forms the outer walls of both the middle meatuses of the nose. Its outer wall is stouter where it arches up to

c or malar process. Its floor, which rests upon the upper surface of the
order of the upper jaw, sinks below the level of the hard palate. The fangs of
sometimes project into the floor of the cavity.
asal fossæ are narrow above, where they lie between the orbital cavities, from
ey are separated by the cells within the lateral mass of the ethmoid. The roof
rresponds to the cribriform plate is narrow, and lies between the septum mesially
lateral masses on either side.
ie level of the orbital floor the nasal fossæ expand laterally, the middle meatus
longitudinally in the angle formed by the lateral mass of the ethmoid with the
the superior maxilla, overhung by the middle turbinated bone. This channel is
ave the ethmoidal cells superior to it, the orbital cavity above and to the outer
antrum externally, whilst its floor is formed by the upper surface of the inferior
ed bone.
inferior meatus, much more roomy, runs along under cover of the inferior
ed bone. Externally it is related to the antrum, whilst its floor is formed by the
superior surface of the hard palate.
hard palate is arched below, whilst its superior surface is concave upwards on
de of the median crest which supports the nasal septum. The sides of the arch
rrespond to the inner surfaces of the alveolar processes and fall in line with the
lls of the nasal fossæ superiorly. The summit of the arch lies a quarter of an inch
ie level of the floor of the antrum.

SEXUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE SKULL.

lst it is a matter of difficulty, in all cases, to determine with certainty the sex of
the following points of difference are usually fairly characteristic. The female skull
rule, smaller than the male. In point of cranial capacity it averages about a tenth
n the male of corresponding race. It is lighter, smoother as regards the develop-
its muscular ridges, and possesses less prominent mastoid processes. In the frontal
the superciliary ridges are less pronounced, and this imparts a thinness and sharp-
the upper orbital margin, which is fairly characteristic, and can best be appre-
y running the finger along that edge of bone. For the same reason, the forehead
more vertical and the projections of the frontal eminences more outstanding, though
ted that the frontal and occipital regions are less capacious proportionately than in
e. The vertex in the female is said to be more flattened, and the height of the skull
ently somewhat reduced. In man the edge of the tympanic plate is generally
nd divides to form the sheath of the styloid process, whilst in the female the
nding border is described as being rounder and more tubercular.
ilst it is true that no one of these differences is sufficiently characteristic to enable
nounce with certainty on the matter of sex, it is the case that, taken together,
ually justify us in arriving at a conclusion which, as a rule, may be regarded as
ccurate. In some instances, however, it is impossible to express any definite

DIFFERENCES DUE TO AGE.

birth the face is proportionately small as compared with the cranium, constituting
one-eighth of the bulk of the latter. In the adult the face equals at least half the
n. About the age of puberty the development and expansion of some of the air-
, more particularly the frontal sinus, lead to characteristic differences in head and
rm.
e eruption of the teeth in early life and adolescence enables us to determine the
th fair accuracy. After the completion of the permanent dentition, the wear of the
nay assist us in hazarding an approximate statement. The condition of the sutures,
ay guide us, synostosis of the coronal and sagittal sutures not as a rule taking place
e in life. Complete obliteration of the synchondrosis between the occipital bone
phenoid may be regarded as an indication of maturity. In old age the skull
r becomes lighter and the cranial bones thinner. The alveolar borders of the
r and inferior maxillæ become absorbed owing to the loss of the teeth. This gives
a flattening of the vault of the hard palate and an alteration in the form of the
jaw, whereby the mandibular angle becomes more obtuse.

CRANIOLOGY.

The various groups of mankind display in their physical attributes certain features whi more or less characteristic of the stock to which they belong. Craniology deals with differences so far as they affect the skull. The method whereby these differences are re involves the accurate measurement of the skull in most of its details. Such procedure is in under the term craniometry. Here only the outlines of the subject are briefly refer for such as desire fuller information on the subject, the works of Broca, Topinard, Flow Turner may be consulted.

The races of man display great variations in regard to the size of the skull. Apart alto from individual differences and the proportion of head-size to body-height, it may be ge assumed that the size of the skull in the more highly civilised races is much in excess of displayed in lower types. The size of the head is intimately correlated with the de ment of the brain. By measuring the capacity of that part of the skull occupied b encephalon, we are enabled to form some estimate of the size of the brain. The **cranial c** is determined by filling the cranial cavity with some suitable material and then taki cubage of its contents. Various methods are employed, each of which has its advantage. T of fluids, which of course would be the most accurate, is rendered impracticable, without precautions, owing to the fact that the macerated skull is pierced by so many foramina matter of practice, it is found that leaden shot, glass beads, or seeds of various sorts are th serviceable. The results obtained display a considerable range of variation. For purp classification and comparison, skulls are grouped according to their **cranial capacity** in following varieties:—

Microcephalic skulls are those with a capacity below 1350 c.c., and include such well-k races as Andamanese, Veddahs, Australians, Bushmen, Tasmanians, etc.
Mesocephalic skulls range from 1350 c.c. to 1450 c.c., and embrace examples of the follo varieties: American Indians, Chinese, some African Negroes.
Megacephalic skulls are those with a capacity over 1450 c.c., and are most commonly with in the more highly civilised races: Mixed Europeans, Japanese, Eskimo, e

Apart from its size, the form of the cranium has been regarded as an important factor i classification of skulls; though whether these differences in shape have not been unduly phasised in the past is open to question.

The relation of the breadth to the length of the skull is expressed by means of the c **index** which records the proportion of the maximum breadth to the maximum length skull, assuming the latter equal 100, or—

$$\frac{\text{Max. breadth} \times 100}{\text{Max. length}} = \textbf{Cephalic index.}$$

The results are classified into three groups:—

1. **Dolichocephalic,** with an index below 75: Australians, Kaffirs, Zulus, Eskimo, Fi
2. **Mesaticephalic,** ranging from 75 to 80: Europeans (mixed), Chinese, Polynesians (m
3. **Brachycephalic,** with an index over 80: Malays, Burmese, American Indians, A manese.

In order to provide for uniformity in the results of different observers, some system is n sary by which the various points from which the measurements are taken must corres Whilst there is much difference in the value of the measurements insisted on by indivi anatomists, all agree in endeavouring to select such points on the skull as may be readily d mined, and which have a fairly fixed anatomical position. The more important of these " points" are included in the subjoined table:—

Nasion.—The middle of the naso-frontal suture.
Glabella.—A point midway between the two superciliary ridges.
Ophryon.—The central point of the narrowest transverse diameter of the forehead, measu from one temporal line to the other.
Inion.—The external occipital protuberance.
Maximum Occipital Point.—The point on the occipital squama in the sagittal plane m distant from the glabella.
Opisthion.—The middle of the posterior margin of the foramen magnum.
Basion.—The middle of the anterior margin of the foramen magnum.
Bregma.—The point of junction of the coronal and sagittal sutures.
Alveolar Point.—The centre of the anterior margin of the upper alveolar margin.
Subnasal Point.—The middle of the inferior border of the anterior nasal aperture at t centre of the nasal spine.
Vertex.—The summit of the cranial vault.
Obelion.—A point over the sagittal suture, on a line with the parietal foramina.
Lambda.—The meeting-point of the sagittal and lambdoid sutures.
Pterion.—The region of the antero-lateral fontanelle where the angles of the front parietal, squamous temporal, and alisphenoid lie in relation to one another. A

rule, the sutures are arranged like the letter H, the parietal and alisphenoid separating the frontal from the squamous temporal. In other cases the form of the suture is like an X; whilst in a third variety the frontal and squamous temporal articulate with each other, thus separating the alisphenoid from the parietal.

Asterion is the region of the postero-lateral fontanelle where the lambdoid, parieto-mastoid, and occipito-mastoid sutures meet.

Stephanion.—The point where the coronal suture crosses the temporal crest.

Dacryon.—The point where the vertical lachrymo-maxillary suture meets the fronto-nasal suture at the inner angle of the orbit.

Jugal Point.—Corresponds to the angle between the vertical border and the margin of the zygomatic process of the malar bone.

Gonion.—The outer side of the angle of the inferior maxilla.

ıe **measurements** of the length of the skull may be taken between a variety of points—the a, **glabella**, or ophryon in front, and the inion or maximum occipital point behind. Or the mum **length** alone may be taken without reference to any fixed points. In all cases it is r to **state** precisely where the measurement is taken. The maximum breadth of the head is **variable as regards** its position; it is advisable to note whether it occurs above or below the to-squamosal suture. The inter-relation of these measurements as expressed by the cephalic ı has been already referred to. The width of the head may also be measured from one asterion e other, **biasterionic width**, or by taking the **bistephanic diameter**.

he **height** of the cranium is usually ascertained by measuring the distance from the basion ıe bregma. The relation of the height to the length may be expressed by the **height** or ical **index**, thus—

$$\frac{\text{Height} \times 100}{\text{Length}} = \textbf{Vertical index.}$$

Skulls are classified in accordance with the relations of length and height as follows:—

Tapeinocephalic index below 72.		**Chamæcephalic** index up to 70.
Metriocephalic index between 72 and 77.	or	**Orthocephalic** index from 70·1 to 75.
Akrocephalic index above 77 (Turner).		**Hypsicephalic** index 75·1 and upwards (Kollmann, Ranke, and Virchow).

The horizontal circumference of the cranium, which ranges from 450 mm. to 550 mm., is sured around a plane cutting the glabella or ophryon anteriorly, and the maximum occipital int posteriorly. The **longitudinal arc** is measured from the nasion in front to the opisthion hind; if to this be added the basi-nasal length and the distance between the basion and the isthion, we have a record of the vertico-mesial circumference of the cranium. This may further ı divided by measuring the lengths of the frontal, parietal, and occipital portions of the perior longitudinal arc. In this way the relative proportions of these bones may be pressed.

The measurements of the skeleton of the face are more complex, but, on the whole, of greater lue than the measurements of the cranium. It is in the face that the characteristic features of ce are best observed, and it is here that osseous structure most accurately records the form and roportions of the living.

The form of the face varies like that of the cranium in the relative proportions of its length id breadth. Generally speaking, a dolichocephalic cranium is associated with a long face, whilst he brachycephalic type of head is correlated with a rounder and shorter face. This rule, how-ver, is not universal, and there are many exceptions to it.

The determination of the facial index varies according to whether the measurements are made ith or without the mandible in position. In the former case the length is measured from the phryon or nasion above to the mental tubercle below, and compared with the maximum ygomatic width. This is referred to as the **total facial index**, and is obtained by the rmula—

$$\frac{\text{Ophryo-mental length} \times 100}{\text{Bizygomatic width}} = \textbf{Total facial index.}$$

More usually, however, owing to the loss of the lower jaw, the proportions of the face are xpressed by the **superior facial index**. This is determined by comparing the ophryo-alveolar or aso-alveolar length with the bizygomatic width, thus—

$$\frac{\text{Ophryo-alveolar length} \times 100}{\text{Bizygomatic width}} = \textbf{Superior facial index.}$$

The terms **dolichofacial** or **leptoprosope** and **brachyfacial** or **chamœprosope** have been mployed to express the differences thus recorded.

Uniformity in these measurements, however, is far from complete since many anthropologists ompare the width with the length = 100.

The proportion of the face-width to the width of the calvaria is roughly expressed by the use of he terms **cryptozygous** and **phænozygous** as applied to the skull. In the former case the ygomatic arches are concealed, when the skull is viewed from above, by the overhanging and

projection of the sides of the cranial box; in the latter instance, owing to the narrowne calvaria, the zygomatic arches are clearly visible.

The projection of the face, so characteristic of certain races (Negroes for example) estimated on the living by measuring the angle formed by two straight lines, the one pass the middle of the external auditory meatus to the lower margin of the septum of the n other drawn from the most prominent part of the forehead above to touch the inci below. The angle formed by the intersection of these two lines is called the **faci** (Camper), and ranges from 62° to 85°. The smaller angle is characteristic of a mu projection of the lower part of the face. The larger angle is the concomitant of a more profile. The degree of projection of the upper jaw in the macerated cranium is most ac expressed by employing the **gnathic** or **alveolar index** of Flower. This records the proportions of the basi-alveolar and basi-nasal lengths, the latter being regarded thus—

$$\frac{\text{Basi-alveolar length} \times 100}{\text{Basi-nasal length}} = \textbf{Gnathic index.}$$

The results are conveniently grouped into three classes:—

Orthognathous, index below 98: including mixed Europeans, ancient Egyptians,
Mesognathous, index from 98 to 103: Chinese, Japanese, Eskimo, Polynesians (m
Prognathous, index above 103: Tasmanians, Australians, Melanesians, various Negroes.

Unfortunately, however, little reliance can be placed on the results obtained by this since it takes no account of the proportion of the third or facial side of the gnathic For a further discussion of this matter see Thomson and MacIver, *Races of the Thebaid* Clarendon Press, 1905).

The form of the nasal aperture in the macerated skull is of much value from a standpoint, as it is so intimately associated with the shape of the nose in the livi greatest width of the nasal aperture is compared with the nasal height (measured from t to the lower border of the nasal aperture) and the **nasal index** is thus determined:—

$$\frac{\text{Nasal width} \times 100}{\text{Nasal height}} = \textbf{Nasal index.}$$

Skulls are—

Leptorhine, with a nasal index below 48: as in mixed Europeans, ancient E American Indians, etc.
Mesorhine, with an index ranging from 48 to 53: as in Chinese, Japanese, Malay
Platyrhine, with an index above 53: as in Australians, Negroes, Kaffirs, Zulus, e

The form of the orbit varies considerably in different races, but is of much less value standpoint of classification. The **orbital index** expresses the proportion of the orbital the orbital width, and is obtained by the following formula:—

$$\frac{\text{Orbital height} \times 100}{\text{Orbital width}} = \textbf{Orbital index.}$$

The orbital height is the distance between the upper and lower margins of the orbi middle; whilst the orbital width is measured from a point where the ridge which f posterior boundary of the lachrymal groove meets the fronto-lachrymal suture (Fl from the dacryon (Broca) to the most distant point from these on the anterior edge of t border of the orbit.

The form of the orbital aperture is referred to as—

Megaseme, if the index be over 89;
Mesoseme, if the index be between 89 and 84;
Microseme, if the index be below 84.

The variations met with in the form of the palate and dentary arcade may be expr the **palato-maxillary index** of Flower. The length is measured from the alveolar pc line drawn across the hinder borders of the superior maxillary bones, whilst the width between the outer borders of the alveolar arch immediately above the middle of th molar tooth. To obtain the index, the following formula is employed:—

$$\frac{\text{Palato-maxillary width} \times 100}{\text{Palato-maxillary length}} = \textbf{Palato-maxillary index.}$$

For purposes of classification Turner has introduced the following terms:—

Dolichuranic, index below 110.
Mesuranic, index between 110 and 115.
Brachyuranic, index above 115.

As is elsewhere stated (p. 183), the size of the teeth has an important influenc architecture of the skull. Considered from a racial standpoint, the relative size of the

ngth of the cranio-facial axis has been found by Flower to be a character of much value.
ental length is taken by measuring the distance between the anterior surface of the first pre-
: and the posterior surface of the third molar of the upper jaw.
o obtain the **dental index** the following formula is used :—

$$\frac{\text{Dental length} \times 100}{\text{Basi-nasal length}} = \textbf{Dental index.}$$

ollowing the convenient method of division adopted with other indices, the dental indices be divided into three series, called respectively—

Microdont, index below 42 : including the so-called Caucasian or white races.
Mesodont, index between 42 and 44 : including the Mongolian or yellow races.
Megadont, index above 44 : comprising the black races, including the Australians.

Many complicated instruments have been devised to take the various measurements required, for all practical purposes the calipers designed by Flower or the *compas glissière* of Broca are cient.

s an aid to calculating the indices, the tables published in the *Osteological Catalogue of the al College of Surgeons of England*, Part I., Man. ; *Index-Tabellen zum Anthropometrischen uche*, C. M. Furst, Jena, 1902 ; or the index calculator invented by Dr. Waterston will be d of much service in saving time.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHONDRO-CRANIUM AND MORPHOLOGY OF THE SKULL.

As has been already stated (p. 24), the chorda dorsalis extends forwards to a point ediately beneath the anterior end of the mid-brain. In front of this the head takes end so that the large fore-brain overlaps the anterior extremity of the notochord. At stage of development the cerebral vesicles are enclosed in a membranous covering ived from the mesenchyme surrounding the notochord ; this differentiated mesodermal er is called the primordial membranous cranium. From it the meninges which invest brain are derived. In lower vertebrates this membranous capsule becomes converted o a thick-walled cartilaginous envelope, the primordial cartilaginous cranium. In mmals, however, only the basal part of this capsule becomes chondrified, the roof and t of the sides remaining membranous. In considering the chondrification of the skull mammals, it must be noted that part only of the base is traversed by the notochord, . that portion which extends from the foramen magnum to the dorsum sellæ of the enoid. It is, therefore, conveniently divided into two parts—one posterior, surrounding : notochord, and hence called **chordal**, and one in front, into which the notochord does t extend, and hence termed **prechordal**. These correspond respectively to the vertebral d evertebral regions of Gegenbauer. In the chordal region a pair of elongated cartilages, lled the **parachordal cartilages**, appear one on either side of the notochord ; these soon but completely envelop the chorda, and expand so as to form the basilar or occipital ate, which ossifies later to form the basilar process of the occipital bone, and the dorsum lle of the sphenoid. By backward extension from the occipital plate on either side and ound the foramen magnum the cartilaginous ex-occipitals and supra-occipitals are also rmed. In the prechordal region two curved strips of cartilage, the **trabeculæ cranii** of sthke, arise and pass forwards from the anterior extremity of the notochord, one on ther side of the cranio-pharyngeal canal. In front these trabeculæ spread out and timately fuse to form the **ethmoidal plate**, which constitutes the fore part of the ndro-cranium. Posteriorly the trabeculæ unite with the basilar plate and thus surround e cranio-pharyngeal canal, the lumen of which is subsequently closed to form the floor ! the pituitary fossa, in which rests the hypophysis cerebri. Owing to the presence of e nasal capsules, the fore-part of the ethmoidal plate becomes differentiated into an **sino-vomerine region**, from which the nasal septum and its associated cartilages are rived, whilst the remainder of the ethmoidal plate by expansion and subsequent ossifica-on develops to form the pre-sphenoid, the orbito-sphenoids, and the ali-sphenoids, which ter assist in completing the orbital cavity for the lodgment of the eyeball. The membranous ear capsules which lie lateral to the parachordal cartilages become chondrified nd form the **cartilaginous ear capsules**. These soon unite with the lateral aspects of e basilar plate, but are separated in front from the cartilaginous alisphenoid of the thmoidal plate by a membranous interval, which is subsequently occupied by the quamosal, a bone of dermic origin. This disappearance of the cartilage under the squa-mosal was regarded by Parker as the diagnostic mark of the mammalian chondro-cranium.

From the ventral surface of this cartilaginous *platform*—formed, as described, by the

union of the trabeculæ, parachordal cartilages, and cartilaginous ear capsules—is su the cartilaginous framework of the visceral arches, which play so important a pa development of the face, an account of which is elsewhere given (p. 36).

A consideration of the facts of comparative anatomy and embryology appears to the assumption that the mammalian skull is of two-fold origin—that, in fa composed of two envelopes, an outer and an inner, primarily distinct, but whicl process of evolution have become intimately fused together. The inner, cal primordial skull, is that which has just been described, and consists of the c cranium and the branchial skeleton. The outer, which is of dermic origin, inclu bones of the cranial vault and face which are developed in membrane. This se skull, which first appears in higher fishes as ossified dermal plates overlying the skull, acquires a great importance in the mammalia, as owing to the expansion

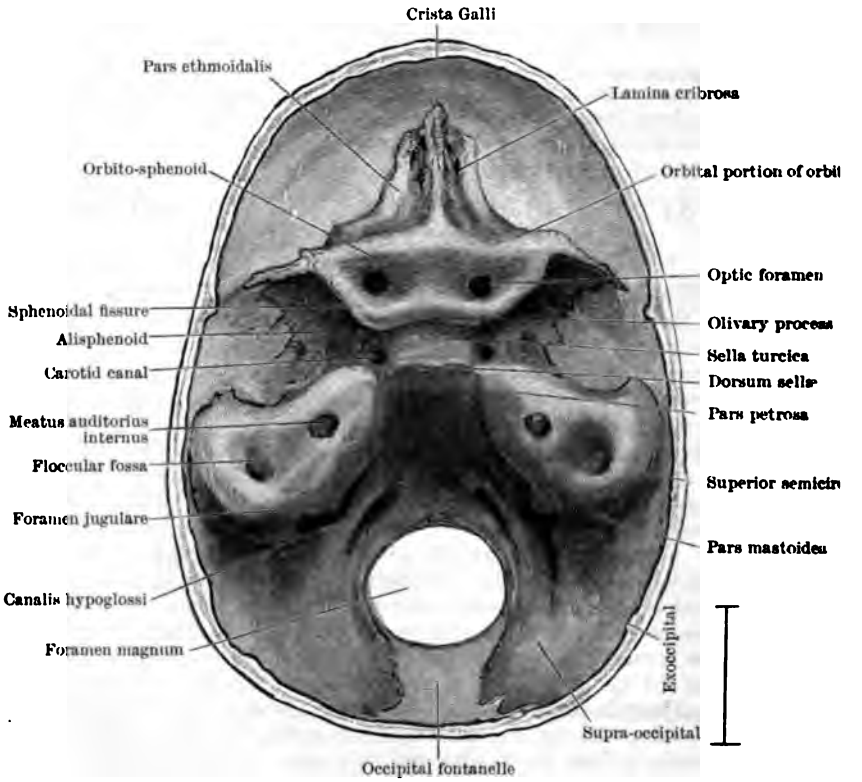


FIG. 127.—VIEW OF THE CHONDRO-CRANIUM OF A HUMAN FŒTUS 5 CM. IN LENGTH FROM V. COCCYX (about the middle of the third month); the cartilage is coloured blue. The line to of the drawing shows the actual size.

brain and the progressive reduction of the chondro-cranium, these dermal bones engrafted on and incorporated with the primordial skull, and act as covering bone cavities of the cranium and face; for it may be well to point out that these de membrane bones are not necessarily external in position, as over the cranial va also develop in the tissues underlying the mucous membrane of the cavities of the

Advantage is taken of this difference in the mode of development of the bone skull to classify them according to their origin into **cartilage** or **primordial bo membrane** or **secondary bones**. These differences in the growth of the bone must too much insisted on in determining the homologies of the bones of the skull, as it generally recognised that all bone is of membranous origin, and that whilst i cases cartilage may become calcified, it never undergoes conversion into true bone replaced by ossific deposit derived from a membranous source. In the subsequent of the skull parts of the cartilaginous cranium persist as the septal and alar carti the nose, whilst for a considerable period the basi-sphenoid and basi-occipital a united by cartilage. The cartilage also which blocks the foramen lacerum medi be regarded as a remnant of the chondro-cranium.

Till two years after birth there are membranous intervals between the ed

jes of the bones of the cranial vault. These are termed the **fontanelles**. Normally y are six in number, and correspond in the adult to the position of the bregma and bda in the middle line and the pterion and asterion on either side. The **anterior** or matic **fontanelle** is diamond-shaped, and corresponds to the converging angles of the etals and two halves of the frontal bone. The **posterior fontanelle** is triangular in n, and lies between the two parietals and the summit of the occipital squama. The ero-lateral **fontanelle** lies between the contiguous margins of the frontal, parietal, amous temporal, and great wing of the sphenoid, whilst the **postero-lateral fontanelle** ituated between the adjacent borders of the parietal, occipital, and mastoid portion of temporal. The term occipital fontanelle is applied to a membranous interval which urs in the fœtal condition posterior to the foramen magnum, and between the lateral ves of the cartilaginous supra-occipital. Its persistence accounts for the occasional urrence of a cerebral meningocele.[1]

Whilst in many instances the primordial and secondary bones remain distinct in the ly-developed condition, they sometimes fuse to form complex bones, such as the temporal l sphenoid (see pp. 120 and 127).

Various theories have been advanced to account for the mode of formation of the ull. The earliest of these was called the vertebrate theory, which assumed that the nium was built up of a series of modified vertebræ, the centra of which corresponded to basi-cranial axis, whilst the neural arches were represented by the covering bones of cranium. In view of the more recent researches regarding the composite origin of the ull above referred to, this theory was necessarily abandoned. It gave way to the ggestion of Gegenbauer that the primordial cranium has arisen by the fusion of several gments equivalent to vertebræ, the number of which he determined by noting the tameric arrangement of the cranial nerves, of which he concluded there were nine pairs, anged much like spinal nerves, both as to their origin and distribution. The olfactory d optic nerves, though frequently referred to as cranial nerves, are excluded, since from e nature of their development they are to be regarded as metamorphosed parts of the ain itself. Gegenbauer therefore assumed that that portion of the cranial base which is aversed by the nine pairs of segmentally arranged cranial nerves must be formed by the sion of nine vertebral segments; and as the region where the nerves escape corresponds the part of the chondro-cranium traversed by the notochord, he calls it the vertebral rtion of the cranial base, in contradistinction to the trabecular or non-vertebral part hich lies in front. This latter he regards as a new formation adapted to receive the reatly-developed brain and afford protection to the organs of sight and smell.

As has been pointed out by Hertwig, there is an essential difference between the evelopment of the axial cartilaginous skeleton of the trunk and head. The former becomes gmented into distinct vertebræ alternating with intervertebral ligaments; whilst the tter, in order to attain the rigidity necessary in this part of the skeleton, is never so ivided. It follows from this that the original segmentation of the head is only expressed three ways, viz. in the appearance of several primitive segments (myotomes), in the rrangement of the cranial nerves, and in the fundament of the visceral skeleton (visceral rches). According to Froriep the mammalian occipital corresponds to the fusion of four ertebræ, and there is some reason for supposing that in some classes of vertebrates the ccipital region of the primordial cranium is increased by fusion with the higher cervical egments.

The form of skull characteristic of man is dependent on the large proportionate evelopment of the cranial part, which contains the brain, and the reduction in size of the isceral part (face), which protects the organs of special sense. This leads to a decrease in the mass and projection of the jaws, as well as a reduction in the size of the teeth. Associated with the smaller mandible there is a feebler musculature, with a reduced area of attachment to the sides of the skull. In this way the disappearance of the muscular crests and fossæ, so characteristic of lower forms, is accounted for. At the same time the fact that the skull is poised on the summit of a vertical column, leads to important modifications in its structure. The disposition of parts is such that the occipito-vertebral articulation is so placed that the fore and hind parts of the head nearly balance each other, thus obviating the necessity for a powerful muscular and ligamentous mechanism to hold the head erect.

Another noticeable feature in connexion with man's skeleton is the prolonged period during which growth may occur before maturity is reached; this is associated with a more complete consolidation of the skull, since bones, which in lower forms remain throughout

[1] For further information regarding anomalous conditions of the fontanelles and the occurrence of Wormian r sutural ossicles, see F. Frassetto, *Ann. des Sci. Nat. Zool.* 8e sér. xviii. 1903.

life distinct, are in man fused with each other, as exemplified in the case of the presph and postsphenoid, the occipital and the interparietal, to mention one or two inst among many. It is noteworthy, however, that during ontogeny the morphological s cance of these bones is clearly demonstrated by their independent ossification.

The points of exit of the various cranial nerves remain remarkably constant, a their primitive condition serve to suggest the segmental arrangement of the cartilag chondro-cranium already referred to. Owing to the very great modifications whic mammalian skull has undergone in the process of its evolution, it may be pointed out the passage of the nerves through the dura mater—a derivative, the readers m reminded, of the primordial membranous cranium (see *ante*)—alone represents the pri disposition of the nerves. Their subsequent escape through the bony base is a late secondary development. In some cases the two, membranous or primary and the o or secondary foramina, correspond. In other instances the exit of the nerves throug dura mater does not coincide with the passage through the bone.

Of interest in this connexion it may be pointed out that the foramina and which traverse the skull are either situated in the line of suture between adjacent or in the line of fusion of the constituent parts of which the bone pierced is ma For example, the sphenoidal fissure is situated between the orbito and alisphenoids anterior condylic between the basi and exoccipitals; the jugular between the pe basi, and exoccipital; the optic between the orbito-sphenoid and the presphenoid Vidian between the alisphenoid, internal pterygoid plate, and the lingula.

THE BONES OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The Clavicle.

The **clavicle** (clavicula), or collar bone, one of the elements in the form of the shoulder girdle, consists of a curved shaft, the extremities of whic enlarged. The inner end, since it articulates with the sternum, is calle sternal end: the outer extremity, from its union with the acromion process o scapula, is known as the acromial end.

The **sternal end** (extremitas sternalis) is enlarged, and rests upon the me

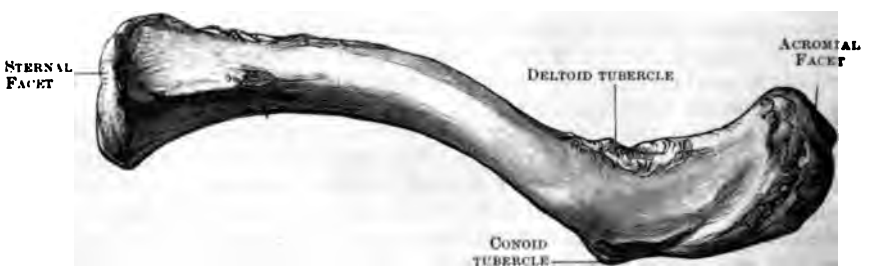


Fig. 128.—Right Clavicle as seen from Above.

of fibro-cartilage which is interposed between it and the clavicular facet o upper and external angle of the manubrium sterni. It is also supported by a part of the inner end of the cartilage of the first rib. Its *articular surface*, w broader from above downwards than from side to side, displays an antero-pos convexity, whilst tending to be slightly concave in a vertical direction. The around the articular area which serves for the attachment of the capsule o sterno-clavicular articulation is sharp and well defined, except below where rounded.

The **shaft** is so curved that its anterior outline is convex in its inner two-t whilst concave in the outer third of its length. Rounded or prismatic in towards its sternal extremity, the shaft becomes compressed and flattened to its outer end. Its *superior surface*, which is smooth and subcutaneous throu its whole length, is directed upwards and forwards; the *inferior surface* is in downwards and backwards. The *anterior border*, which separates the upper the under surface in front, is rough and tubercular towards its inner end fo attachment of the clavicular fibres of the pectoralis major, whilst exter

it becomes continuous with the anterior margin of the acromial end, it is defined, and bears the imprint of the origin of the fibres of the deltoid ; here, not uncommonly, a projecting spur of bone, called the **deltoid le**, may be seen. The *posterior border* is broad internally, where it is lipped

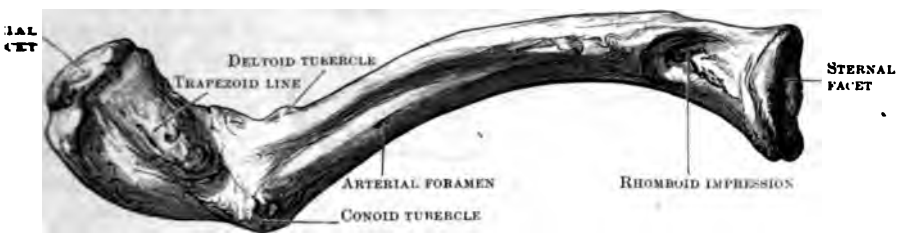


Fig. 129.—Right Clavicle as seen from Below.

iorly to furnish an attachment for the clavicular fibres of the sterno-id muscle; behind and below this the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid es are attached to the bone. Externally, the posterior border becomes more ed, and is confluent with the posterior edge of the acromial end at a point there is a marked outgrowth of bone from its under surface, **the conoid le** (tuberositas coracoidea). Into the outer third of this border are inserted pper and anterior fibres of the trapezius muscle. The *inferior surface* of the close to the sternal end is marked by an irregular elongated impression rositas costalis), often deeply pitted, for the attachment of the rhomboid ent, which unites it to the cartilage of the first rib. External to this the is channelled by a groove which terminates close to the conoid tubercle; into groove the subclavius muscle is inserted.

he **acromial end** of the bone is flattened and compressed from above down-, and expanded from before backwards; its anterior edge is sharp and well d, and gives attachment to the deltoid muscle, which also spreads over part upper surface. Its posterior margin is rougher and more tubercular, and les a surface for the insertion of the trapezius. The area between these two ular attachments is smooth and subcutaneous. The outer edge of this rd-turned part of the bone is provided with an oval facet (facies articularis ialis) for articulation with the acromion process of the scapula; the margins d this articular area serve for the attachment of the capsule of the joint. inferior surface of the acromial end of the bone is traversed obliquely from d forwards and outwards by a rough ridge or line called the **trapezoid** or e ridge. The posterior extremity of this ridge, as it abuts on the posterior r of the bone, forms a prominent process, the **conoid tubercle** (tuberositas oidea); to each of these, respectively, are attached the trapezoid and conoid ons of the coraco-clavicular ligament.

trient Foramina.—The foramina for the larger nutrient vessels, of which there may be two directed outwards, are usually found about the middle of the posterior border, or it e opening into the floor of the groove for the subclavius muscle.

chitecture.—The shaft consists of an outer layer of compact bone, thickest towards the , but gradually thinning towards the extremities, the investing envelope of which consists of a thin shell. Within the shaft the cancellous tissue displays a longitudinal striation, internally assumes a more cellular appearance. At the acromial end the general arrange-of the fibres resembles the appearance of the sides of a Gothic arch. The curves of the impart an elasticity to it, which is of much service in reducing the effects of the shocks to it is so frequently subjected.

ariations.—The clavicles of women are more slender, less curved, and shorter than those of In the latter the bone is so inclined that its outer end lies slightly higher or on the same with the sternal end. In women the bone usually slopes a little downward and outward. more pronounced curves of some bones are probably associated with a more powerful pment of the pectoral and deltoid muscles, a circumstance which also affords an explana-f the differences usually seen between the right and left bones, the habitual use of the right limb reacting on the form of the bone of that side. The influence of muscular action, er, does not wholly account for the production of the curves of the bone, since the bone en shown to display its characteristic features in cases where there has been defective

development or absence of the upper limb (Reynault). Partial or complete absence clavicle has been recorded. W. S. Taylor exhibited an interesting case of this kind Clinical Society of London, October 25, 1901.

Ossification.—Phylogenetically of dermic origin, the clavicle in man is remark commencing to ossify any other bone in the this occurs as early fifth or sixth week of life. The **primitive** from which the shaf outer extremity are dev appears prior to the tion of any cartila matrix; and it is not later stage that cartilage plays a part in the development of the bone by assisting growth of its extremities.

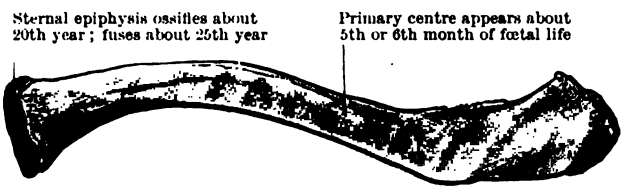

Sternal epiphysis ossifies about 20th year; fuses about 25th year
Primary centre appears about 5th or 6th month of fœtal life

FIG. 130.—OSSIFICATION OF THE CLAVICLE.

A **secondary centre** or **epiphysis** appears at the sternal end about the age of t or later, and fusion rapidly occurring between it and the shaft, ossification is com at the age of twenty-five or thereabouts.

THE SCAPULA.

The **scapula** (scapula), shoulder blade or blade bone, is of triangular shap flattened form. It has two surfaces, ventral and dorsal. From the latter springs a triangular process called the **spine**, which ends externally in the **acro** whilst from its superior border there arises a beak-like projection calle **coracoid** process.

The **body** of the bone, which is thin and translucent, except along its ma and where the spine springs from it, has three borders and three angles. Of borders the *internal* or *vertebral* (margo vertebralis) is the longest; it stre from the superior angle above to the inferior angle below. Of curved or some irregular outline, it affords a narrow surface for the insertion of the levator a scapulæ, rhomboideus minor, and rhomboideus major muscles.

The *superior border* (margo superior), which is thin and sharp, is the short the three. It runs from the superior angle towards the root of the coracoid pr before reaching which, however, it is interrupted by the **suprascapular notc** cisura scapulæ), which lies immediately to the inner side of the base of that pr This notch, which is converted into a foramen by a ligament, or occasionally spicule of bone, transmits the suprascapular nerve. Attached to the su border, close to the notch, is the posterior belly of the omo-hyoid. The *exter axillary border* (margo axillaris), so called from its relation to the hollow o armpit (axilla), is much stouter than either of the others; it extends fro external angle above to the inferior angle below. The upper inch or so o border, which lies immediately below the glenoid articular surface, is roug tubercular (tuberositas infraglenoidalis), and affords attachment to the long of the triceps. Below this it is usually crossed by a groove which mark position of the dorsal artery of the scapula. The *superior angle* (angulus me is sharp and more or less rectangular; the *inferior angle* (angulus inferi blunter and more acute; whilst the *external angle* (angulus lateralis) corres to that part of the bone which is sometimes called the **head**, and which su the **glenoid surface** and the **coracoid process**.

The **glenoid surface** is a pyriform articular area, slightly concave from above d wards and from side to side; its border is but slightly raised above the general s and affords attachment in the recent condition to the glenoid ligament, which to deepen the socket in which the head of the humerus rests. Below, the m of the glenoid fossa is confluent with the **infraglenoid impression** (tuberositas glenoidalis), whilst above it blends with a tubercle (tuberositas supraglenoi to which the long head of the biceps muscle is attached. Springing fro upper part of the head, in line with the superior border, is the **coracoid p** (processus coracoideus). The base of this is limited externally by the g

ilst internally it is separated from the superior border by the supra-
notch. Rising upwards for a short space, it bends on itself at nearly a
gle, and ends in a process which is directed outwards and slightly forwards,
ing the glenoid fossa above and in front. Compressed from above down-
has attached to its upper surface near its angle the conoid ligament, wide
there is a rough area for the trapezoid ligament. Attached to its
border is the coraco-acromial ligament, whilst at its extremity and
the front of its anterior border, is the combined origin of the biceps and
achialis, together with the insertion of the pectoralis minor. The **neck**

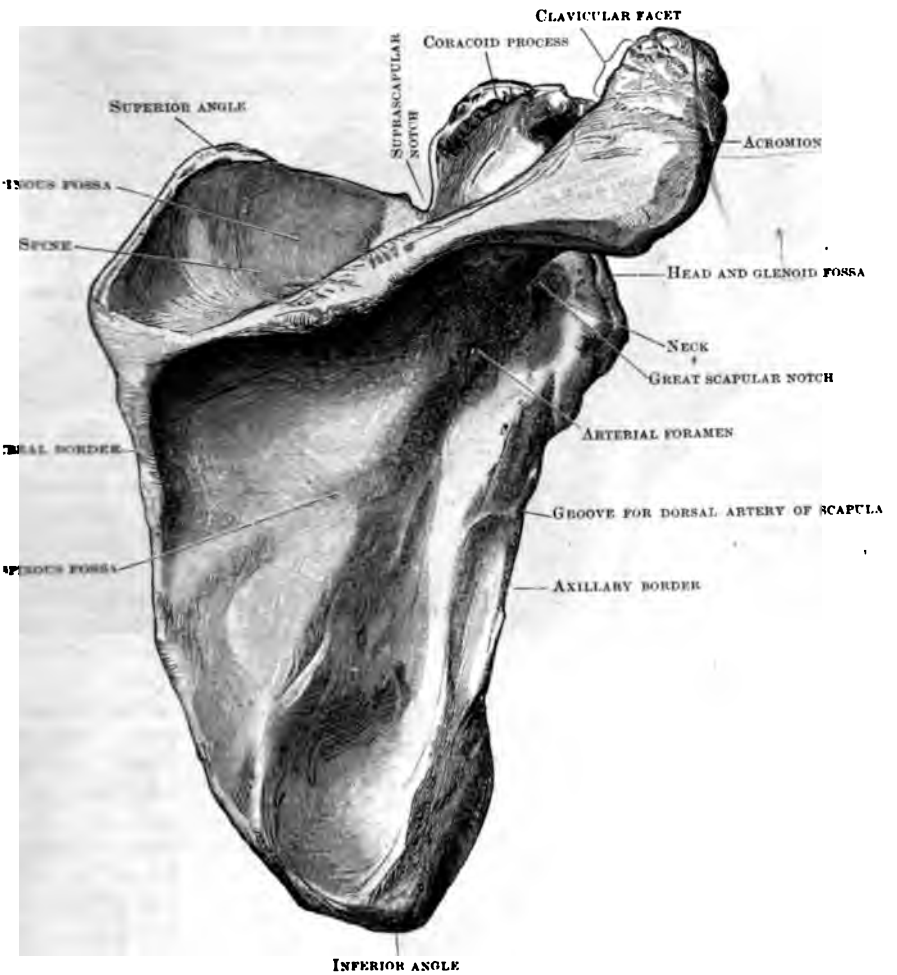


FIG. 131.—THE RIGHT SCAPULA AS SEEN FROM BEHIND.

scapulæ) is that somewhat constricted part of the bone which supports the
t corresponds in front and behind to a line drawn from the suprascapular
o the infraglenoid tubercle.

body of the bone has two surfaces, a **dorsal** (facies dorsalis) and a **ventral**
costalis). The former is divided into two fossæ by an outstanding process
gular form, called the **spine** (spina scapulæ). The attached border of this
the back of the body obliquely in a direction outwards and slightly
s, extending from the vertebral border near the lower limit of its upper
towards the centre of the posterior glenoid edge, from which, however, it
ated by the **great scapular notch**, which here corresponds to the posterior
of the neck. The surfaces of the spine, which are directed upwards and
rds, are concave, the upper entering into the formation of the **supraspinous**
hich lies above it, the lower forming the upper wall of the **infraspinous fossa**,

which lies below it. The two fossæ are in communication with each oth the free external concave border of the spine, where that curves over t scapular notch. The posterior free border of the spine is subcutaneous thr its entire length. Its upper and lower edges are strongly lipped, and se superior, for the attachment of the trapezius; the inferior, for the origi deltoid. The intervening surface varies in width—broad and triangular becomes confluent with the vertebral border, it displays a smooth surf which the tendinous fibres of the trapezius play; narrowing rapidly, it surface of varying width which blends externally with a flattened process,

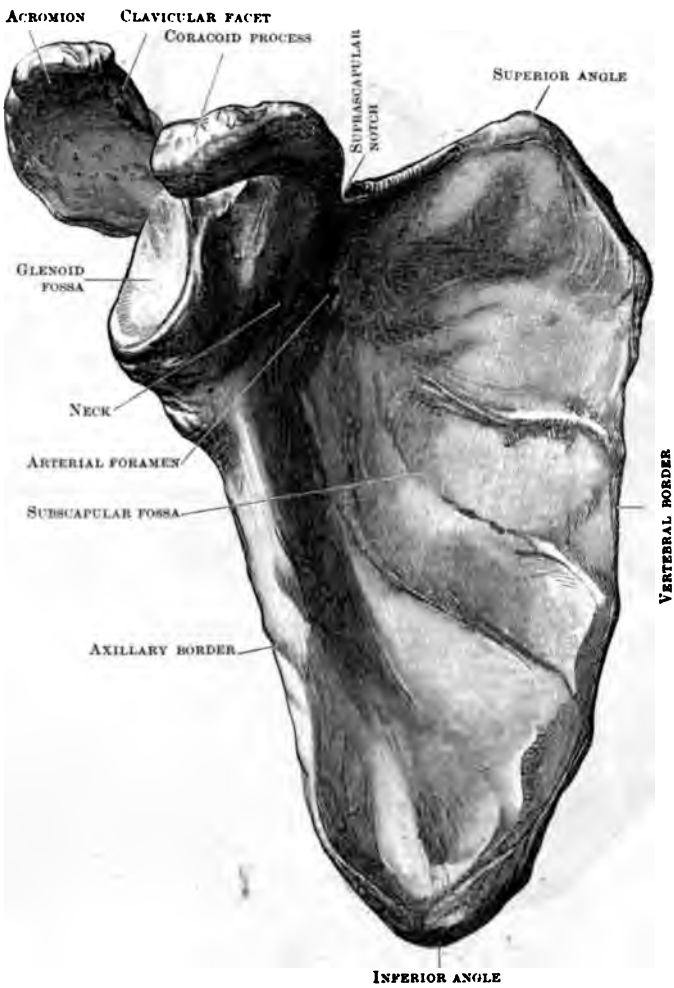


Fig. 132.—The Right Scapula as seen from the Front.

forming a co plate of bon arches acr scapular notc and behind, a curves forwa wards, and out overhang the fossa. The border of thi is continuous upper margi spine, and i curved. The border, more than the in which it is u front, is conflu the inferior the spine, wi it forms an bend, term acrómial ang bone included these two b called the acro cess. Of co form, it m sembles the end of the with which i lates by mea facet (facies a acromii) w placed on its border near it extremity.

perior surfac acromion, which is broad and expanded, is subcutaneous, and is directed upw backwards, and in the normal position of the bone outwards as well. Its inte where not in contact with the clavicle, has attached to it the fibres of the t whilst its external margin affords origin to the central part of the deltoid. anterior extremity it is connected with the coracoid process by means of th acromial ligament. Its under surface is smooth and overhangs the should

The **supraspinous fossa**, of much less extent than the infraspinous, i above the spine, the upper surface of which assists in forming its curved it is lodged the supraspinatus muscle. The suprascapular notch opens into whilst below and externally it communicates with the infraspinous foss great scapular notch, through which the suprascapular artery and nerve reach the infraspinous fossa.

The infraspinous fossa, overhung by the spine above, is of triangular form. The illary border of the bone limits it in front, whilst the vertebral margin bounds it ind; the greater part of this surface affords origin to the infraspinatus muscle, epting a well-defined area which skirts the axillary border and inferior angle of bone, and which affords an attachment to the fibres of origin, of the teres minor. muscle extends along the posterior surface of the axillary border in its upper -thirds, reaching nearly as high as the glenoid edge; whilst a crescentic surface, ich occupies the lower third of the axillary border and curves backward round posterior aspect of the inferior angle, furnishes an origin for the teres major cle. Here also, near the inferior angle, are occasionally attached some of the es of the latissimus dorsi muscle.

The ventral aspect (facies costalis) of the body is hollow from above downwards d from side to side, the greatest depth being in correspondence with the spring of the e from the dorsal surface. Its inner boundary, which is formed by the anterior ed edge of the vertebral border, affords attachment to the fibres of insertion of serratus magnus along the greater part of its extent. The area of insertion of muscle is, however, considerably increased over the anterior aspects of the erior and inferior angles respectively. Running down from the head and neck ve to the inferior angle below, there is a stout rounded ridge of bone, which arts a fulness to the anterior aspect of the axillary border and increases the th of the ventral hollow; to this, as well as to the floor of the fossa, the sub-pularis muscle is attached. The tendinous intersections of this muscle leave r imprint on this surface of the bone in a series of three or four rough lines ich converge towards the neck.

Nutrient Foramina.—Foramina for the passage of nutrient vessels are seen in different parts the bone; the most constant in position is one which opens into the infraspinous fossa, about an or so from the scapular notch. Others are met with on the upper and under surfaces of the e, on the ventral aspect near its deepest part, and also around the glenoid margin.

Connexions.—The scapula is not directly connected with the trunk, but articulates with the r end of the clavicle, in union with which it forms the shoulder girdle supporting the erus on its glenoid surface. Placed on the upper and back part of the thorax, it covers the from the second to the seventh inclusive. Possessed of a wide range of movement, it alters position according to the attitude of the limb, rising or falling, being drawn inwards or wards, or being rotated upon itself according as the arm is moved in various directions. These anges in position can easily be determined by recognising the altered relations of the subcutaneous d bony prominences, more especially the former, which include the spine, the acromion process, the lower half of the vertebral border.

Architecture.—For so light and thin a bone, the scapula possesses a remarkable rigidity. This owing to the arrangement of its parts. Stout and thick where it supports the glenoid surface d coracoid process, the rest of the bone is thin, except along the axillary border; but strength is parted to the body by the manner in which the spine is fused at right angles to its posterior surface.

Variations.—The most common variation met with is a separated acromion process. In e cases there has been failure in the ossific union between the spine and acromion, the ion between the two being effected by a layer of cartilage or an articulation possessing a nt cavity. The condition is usually symmetrical on both sides, though instances are recorded ere this arrangement is unilateral. Very much rarer is the condition in which the coracoid ess is separable from the rest of the bone. The size and form of the suprascapular notch ies. In certain cases the superior border of the bone describes a uniform curve reaching the e of the coracoid without any indication of a notch. In some scapulæ, more particularly in e of very old people, the floor of the subscapular fossa is deficient owing to the absorption of thin bone, the periosteal layers alone filling up the gap. Congenital elevation of the scapula e to defective development of the muscles connected with it.

At birth the vertical length of the bone is less in proportion to its width than in the adult.

Ossification.—Ossification begins in the body of the cartilaginous scapula about the end of the second month of fœtal life. At birth the head, neck, body, spine, and base of the coracoid process are well defined; the vertebral border, inferior angle, glenoid fossa, acromion and coracoid processes, are still cartilaginous. The centre for the upper and part of the coracoid appears in the first year, and fusion along an oblique line leading the upper edge of the glenoid fossa to the conoid tubercle is complete about the enth year. A separate centre (subcoracoid), which ultimately includes the upper part glenoid fossa and external part of the coracoid process, makes its appearance about enth year, and fuses with the surrounding bone about sixteen or seventeen. Up till ge of puberty the acromion remains cartilaginous; centres, two or more in number,

then make their appearance, which coalesce and ultimately unite with the spin the twenty-fift Failure of unio however, persistt out life (see *ant* tions).

Ossificatio mences in the c in the inferio about puberty, dependently and later, along the v margin, fusion w body occurring twenty to twe years.

Small scal epiphyses mak appearance on th surface and at tremity of the c and are complete the twentieth y thin epiphysial p velops over the part of the fossa about six

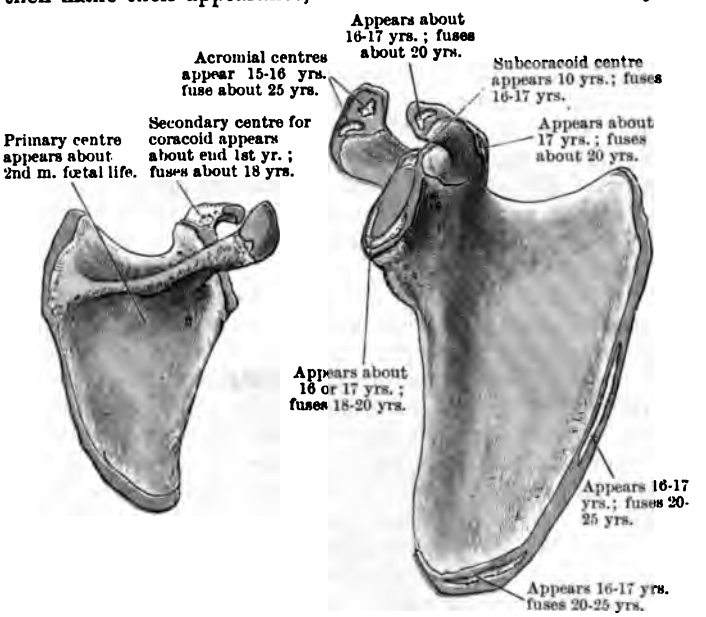

Primary centre appears about 2nd m. fœtal life.
Secondary centre for coracoid appears about end 1st yr.; fuses about 18 yrs.
Acromial centres appear 15-16 yrs. fuse about 25 yrs.
Appears about 16-17 yrs.; fuses about 20 yrs.
Subcoracoid centre appears 10 yrs.; fuses 16-17 yrs.
Appears about 17 yrs.; fuses about 20 yrs.
Appears about 16 or 17 yrs.; fuses 18-20 yrs.
Appears 16-17 yrs.; fuses 20-25 yrs.
Appears 16-17 yrs. fuses 20-25 yrs.
Scapula at end of First Year.
Scapula about the Age of Puberty.

FIG. 133.—OSSIFICATION OF THE SCAPULA.

seventeen, fusion being complete about eighteen or twenty years of age.

THE HUMERUS.

The **humerus**, or bone of the upper arm, articulates with the scapula abc with the bones of the forearm, the radius and ulna, below. Its upper en prises the **head** and **great** and **small tuberosities**; its **shaft**, which is longer th of the other bones of the upper extremity, is cylindrical above and flattened At the inferior extremity, which is expanded to form the **condyles** on eith it supports the **trochlear** and **capitellar** articular surfaces for the ulna and respectively.

The **superior extremity** is the thickest and stoutest part of the bone **head** (caput humeri), which forms about one-third of a spheroid and is cov articular cartilage, is directed upwards, inwards, and slightly backwards, and the glenoid fossa of the scapula; the convexity of its surface is most pronou its posterior half. Separating the head from the tuberosities externally is a groove, which fades away on the surface of the bone which supports the a part inferiorly. This is named the **anatomical neck** (collum anatomicu serves for the attachment of the capsule of the shoulder joint. The articular the groove opposite the small tuberosity is usually notched for the attachmen superior gleno-humeral ligament. The **great tuberosity** (tuberculum maju on the outer side of the head and becomes continuous with the shaft belo upper surface forms a quadrant, which is subdivided into three more or less areas of unequal size. Of these the highest and anterior is for the insertio supraspinatus muscle, the middle for the infraspinatus, whilst the low posterior serves for the insertion of the teres minor muscle. The outer su this tuberosity, which bulges beyond the line of the shaft, is rough and pie numerous foramina. Anteriorly the great tuberosity is separated from th **tuberosity** (tuberculum minus) by a well-defined furrow, called the **bicipital** (sulcus intertubercularis), from the circumstance that the tendon of origin long head of the biceps muscle is lodged within it. The **small tuberosity** front of the outer half of the head; it forms a pronounced elevation, whic into the shaft below. The surface of this tuberosity is faceted above and for the insertion of the sub-scapularis muscle, whilst externally it for

nner lip of the bicipital groove. Below the head and tuberosities the
e bone rapidly contracts, and is here named the **surgical neck** (collum
i) owing to its
fracture at this

aft, or body (corpus
cylindrical in its
On it the **bicipital**
be traced downwards
y inwards, along its
rface. The edges of
, which are termed
re confluent above
great and small
s respectively. Here
rominent, and form
f the great and small
s (cristæ tuberculi
minoris). Inferiorly
the bicipital groove
fade away, the inner
dly than the outer,
ter may usually be
vn to a rough eleva-
d on the outer side
ft about its middle
e **deltoid eminence.**
outer lip of the
groove are inserted
s of the pectoralis
scle; hence it is some-
cribed as the pectoral
the floor of the groove
mus dorsi is attached;
e teres major muscle
d into the inner lip.
eltoid eminence (tuber-
ltoidea), to which the
deltoid muscle is at-
is a rough, slightly
V-shaped surface,
the outer side of the
out its middle. The
limb of the V is par-
the axis of the
d is continuous with
r lip of the bicipital
bove, whilst the pos-
nb of the V winds ob-
ound the outer side of
towards the posterior
where it becomes con-
with a slightly elevated
asionally rough ridge
eads up the back of
e towards the great
y superiorly; from

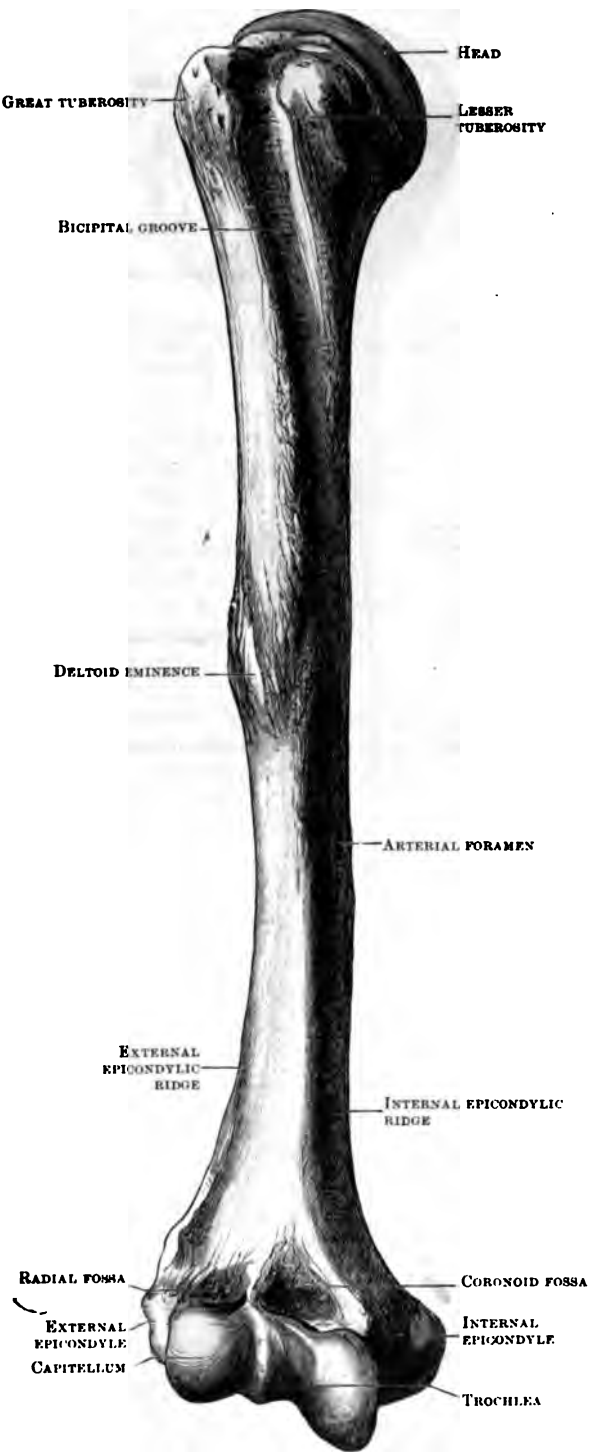


FIG. 134.—ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE RIGHT HUMERUS.

er ridge the outer head of the triceps muscle arises.

inner surface of the shaft about its middle inclines to form a rounded

border, on which there is often a rough linear impression marking the ins
the coraco-brachialis muscle. Below this the shaft becomes compressed
panded laterally, ending i
on either side in the **condyl**
surfaces are now anterior
terior, being separated fr
other by two clearly defined
the **epicondylic ridges**. Of t
internal, **margo medialis**, is
curved and less prominent
continuous above with the s
which the coraco-brachiali
tached, whilst inferiorly it
blending with the internal
The external epicondylic rid
lateralis, is straighter and n
jecting; its edge is usually d
lipped. Confluent with the
condyle inferiorly, it may b
upwards to near the delto
ence, where it turns **backwa**
or less parallel to the **posteric**
border of that impression, t
on the posterior surface of t
The interval between this b
the deltoid eminence is t
verted into a shallow obliqu
which winds round the outc
of the bone just below its
this constitutes the **musc**
groove (sulcus radialis) alo
the musculo-spiral nerve,
with the superior profund
passes from the back to r
front of the arm. To the ep
ridges are attached the inter
septa, whilst the external in
two-thirds furnishes a surfa
origin of the brachio-radiali
ator-longus), and in its lov
for the extensor carpi radial
muscle.

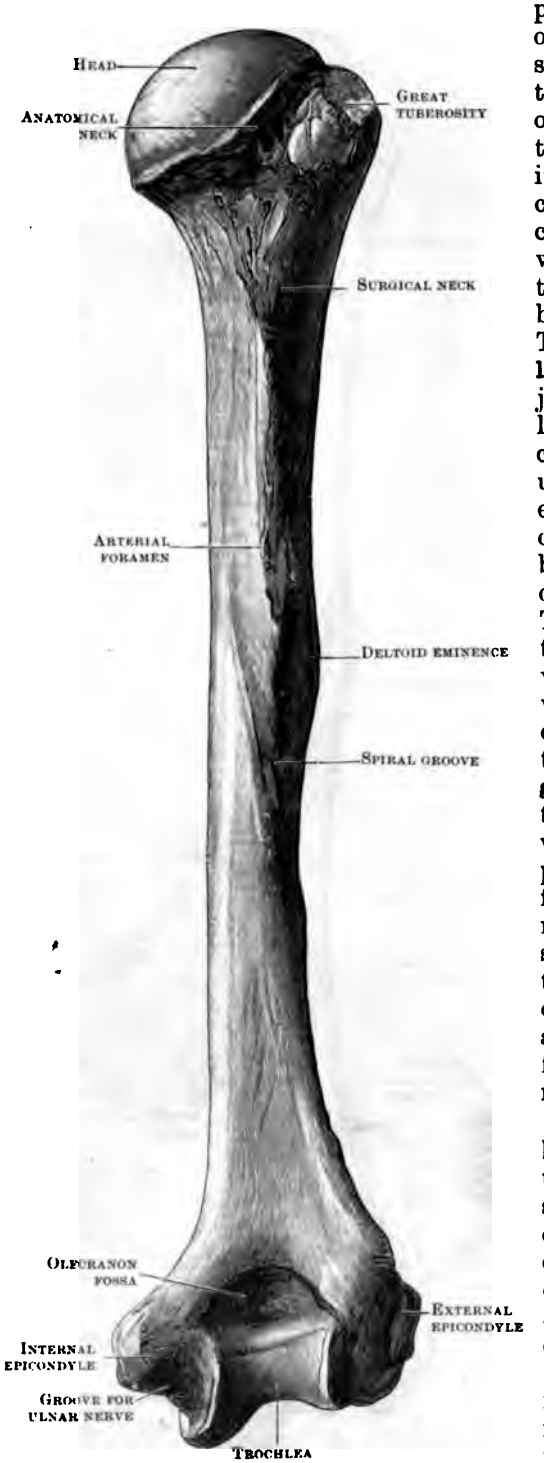


FIG. 135.—POSTERIOR VIEW OF THE RIGHT HUMERUS.

The anterior surface of
half of the shaft is of
triangular form, the bas
sponding to the inferior e
of the bone. Running d
centre of this is a broad,
elevated ridge, most pr
above, where it joins th
eminence, and sloping on e
towards the epicondylic rid
into the outer of these slope
musculo-spiral groove flo
feriorly the elevated surfac
out, and becomes confluent
condyles, more correctly te
epicondyles. The **internal epicondyle** (epicondylus medialis) is the more p
of the two, and furnishes a surface for the origin of the **pronator radii t**

ial flexor muscles of the forearm. The **external epicondyle** (epicondylus unted and but little projecting, serves for the attachment of the common rigin of the extensor The brachialis anticus an extensive origin nterior surface of the f the shaft, including upper slips the inser- deltoid.

sterior surface of the of the shaft is smooth d from side to side; flattened below, where shaft tends to incline t becomes continuous ide with the posterior the epicondyles, the hich is grooved for the passage of the ulnar nerve, whilst the external supplies an origin for the anconeus muscle. The inner head of the triceps muscle has an extensive origin from the posterior surface of the lower two-thirds of the shaft, internal to and below the musculo-spiral groove.

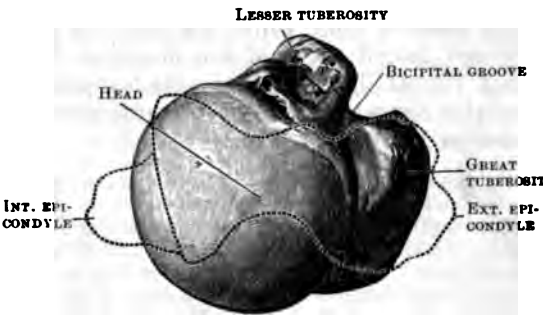
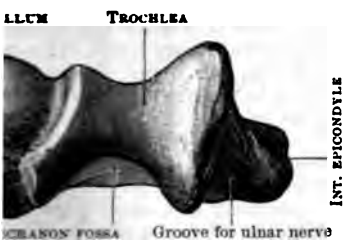


FIG. 136.—THE HEAD OF THE RIGHT HUMERUS AS SEEN FROM ABOVE (with the outline of the lower extremity in relation thereto shown in dotted line).



—THE LOWER EXTREMITY OF THE HUMERUS AS SEEN FROM BELOW.

The **lower extremity** of the humerus is furnished with two articular surfaces (the condyles proper), the outer of which, called the **capitellum** (capitulum), for articulation with the upper surface of the head of the radius, is a rounded eminence, the anterior surface and lower border, but not extending upwards sterior surface of the inferior end of the ove it, in front, there is a shallow de- ossa radialis), into which the margin of of the radius sinks when the elbow is lexed. A shallow groove separates the internally from the **trochlea**, which is a rticular surface, with prominent edges pirally round the lower extremity of the e spiral curves from behind forwards and nd its axis is slightly oblique to the long shaft. The inner lip is the more salient o, and forms a sharp and well-defined the articular area; its cartilage-covered slightly convex. The outer lip, much inent, is rounded off into the articular hich separates it from the capitellum, to which, however, it is carried up as a ss definite crest. It is by means of the hat the humerus articulates with the oid cavity of the ulna. On the anterior the bone, immediately above the trochlea, sion—the **coronoid fossa** (fossa coronoidea), n the coronoid process of the ulna slips in the joint, whilst in a corresponding position ack of the lower end of the shaft there , called the **olecranon fossa** (fossa olecrani), e the trochlea posteriorly. Into this the process sinks when the elbow is extended. The two fossæ are separated

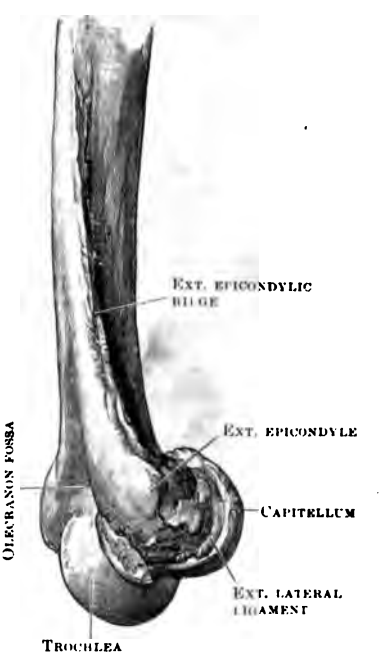


FIG. 138.—THE LOWER END OF THE RIGHT HUMERUS AS SEEN FROM THE OUTER SIDE.

by a thin translucent layer of bone which may be deficient, thus leading to the formation of a foramen between the two hollows in the macerated bone. The anterior of the capsule of the elbow-joint is attached to the superior margins of the radial coronoid fossæ in front, whilst the posterior ligament is connected with the border and lateral edges of the olecranon fossa behind. The strong internal external lateral ligaments are attached superiorly to the internal and external epicondyles respectively. The proportionate length of the humerus to the height is as 1 is to 4·93–5·25.

Nutrient foramina are usually to be seen, one at or near the surface for the insertion of coraco-brachialis, the other usually close to the hinder border of the deltoid eminence; have a downward direction. Numerous vascular foramina are scattered along the line of anatomical neck, the larger ones being situated near the upper end of the bicipital groove.

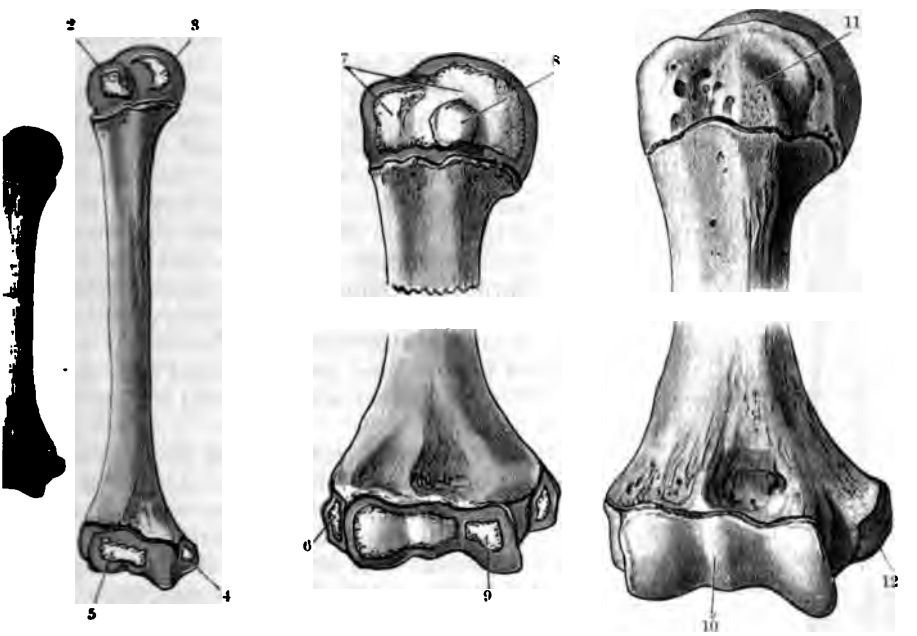
Connexions.—The humerus articulates with the scapula above, and radius and ulna Embedded as the humerus is in the substance of the upper arm, its shaft and head are surrounded on all sides. It is only at its lower part that it comes into direct relation with the surface internal epicondyle forming a characteristic projection on the inner side of the elbow; while external epicondyle, less prominent, and the external epicondylic ridge can best be recognised when the elbow is bent.

Architecture.—The shaft consists of a layer of compact bone surrounding a long medullary canal. The outer shell, thickest in the lower third of the bone, gradually thins until it reaches the superior epiphysial line, where it forms a layer no thicker than stout paper. Inferiorly the external shell is thicker and stouter than above, until it reaches the epicondyles, on which the articular surfaces are formed of a layer of compact spongy bone. The upper end of the medullary canal is surrounded by loose spongy tissue, the fibres of which arch inwards from the inner surface of the compact outer layer, whilst inferiorly the cancellous tissue which springs from the outer shell sweeps downwards in a radiating fashion on either side of the olecranon fossa towards the epicondyles. Above the olecranon fossa there are a number of laminæ of dense bone which arch across from one side to the other, the convexity of the arches being directed downwards. The superior epiphysis, formed of spongy bone, is united to the shaft by a wavy line, concave externally and convex internally, which from the base of the great tuberosity on the outer side to the inferior articular edge on the inner side. The mass above this includes the head and two tuberosities. The spongy tissue of the head is fine, and is arranged generally in lines radial to its surface; that of the great tuberosity is more open, and often displays large spaces towards its interior, which in old bones communicate freely with the medullary cavity of the shaft. The general direction of the fibres parallel to the outer surface of the tuberosity. The lower articular end is formed of fine spongy tissue, more compact towards the surface, and arranged in lines more or less at right angles to the articular planes. In the adult the principal nutrient canal, viz. that which opens on the surface near the insertion of the coraco-brachialis, traverses the outer compact wall of the shaft obliquely downwards for a distance of two and a quarter inches before it opens into the medullary cavity.

Variations.—As has been already stated, the olecranon and coronoid fossæ may communicate with each other in the macerated bone. The resulting supratrochlear foramen is commonly met with in the lower races of man, as well as in the anthropoid apes, and some other mammals. The occurrence of a hook-like spine, called the epicondylic process, which projects in front of the internal epicondylic ridge, is not uncommon. Its extremity connected with the internal epicondyle by means of a fibrous band, underneath which the ulnar nerve, accompanied by the brachial artery, or one of its large branches, may pass, or in some instances, the nerve alone, or the artery unaccompanied by the nerve. This process is the analogue in a rudimentary form of a canal present in many animals, notably in the carnivora and marsupials. In addition to the broad musculo-spiral groove already described, and which is no doubt produced by the twisting or torsion of the shaft, there is occasionally a distinct narrow groove posterior to it, which marks precisely the course of the musculo-spiral nerve as it winds round the outer side of the shaft of the bone.

Ossification.—At birth the shaft of the humerus is usually the only part of the bone ossified, if we except the occasional presence (22 per cent) of an ossific centre in the head. (H. R. Spencer, *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.* vol. xxv. p. 552.) The centre for the **shaft** makes its appearance early in the second month of intrauterine life. Within the first six months after birth a centre usually appears for the **head**; this is succeeded by one for the **great tuberosity** during the second or third year. These soon coalesce; a third centre for the **small tuberosity** begins to appear about the end of the third year, or may be delayed till the fourth or fifth year. These three centres are all blended by the seventh year, and form an **epiphysis**, which ultimately unites with the shaft at the age of twenty-five. It may be noticed that the superior end of the diaphysis is conical and pointed in the centre, over which the epiphysis fits as a cap, an arrangement which thus tends to prevent its displacement before union has occurred. The first centre to appear in the *lower extremity* is that for the **capitellum** about the second or

This extends inwards, and forms the outer half of the **trochlear surface**, the for the inner half not making its appearance till the eleventh or twelfth year. ste centres are developed in connexion with the **epicondyles**; that for the external rs about the twelfth year, and rapidly coalescing with the centres for the capitellum rochlea forms an **epiphysis**, which unites with the shaft about the sixteenth or eenth year. The centre for the **internal epicondyle** appears about the fifth year; ms a separate **epiphysis**, which unites with the shaft about eighteen or nineteen. two epiphyses at the lower end of the bone are separated by a down-growth of the



birth. About 5 years. About 12 years. About 16 years.

FIG. 139.—OSSIFICATION OF THE HUMERUS.

are early in 2nd month fœtal life.
uberosity, appears 2 to 3 years.
ead, appears within first 6 months.
ternal condyle, appears about 5 years.
apitellum, appears 2 to 3 years.
are about 12 years.
es for head and great tuberosity, coalesce about
ears.
8. Centre for small tuberosity fuses with other centres about 7 years.
9. Appears about 11 or 12 years.
10. Inferior epiphysis fuses with shaft about 16 to 17 years.
11. Superior epiphysis fuses with shaft about 25 years.
12. Fuses with shaft about 17 to 18 years.

which lies between the internal epicondyle and the trochlea, and forms part of the nd inner side of the latter process.

he epicondylic process when present is developed from the diaphysis, and has been ed to be already well ossified by the third year. ("Proc. Anat Soc." *Journ. Anat. Physiol.* 1898.)

THE ULNA.

f the two bones of the forearm, the **ulna**, which is placed internally, is the r. It consists of a large superior extremity supporting the **olecranon** and oid processes; a shaft tapering from above downwards; and a small rounded ior end called the **head**.

Superior Extremity.—The **olecranon process** (olecranon) lies in line with the . Its posterior surface, more or less triangular in form, is smooth and utaneous and covered by a bursa. Its superior aspect, which forms with the rior surface a nearly rectangular projection—the tip of the elbow—furnishes rface for the insertion of the tendon of the triceps muscle, together with a th area which is overlain by the same tendon, but separated from it by a al sac. To the anterior crescentic border of this process are attached the fibres he posterior part of the capsule and portion of the internal lateral ligament of elbow-joint. The anterior surface is articular, and enters into the formation of **great sigmoid cavity**.

The **coronoid process** (processus coronoideus) is a bracket-like process, wh forwards from the fore and upper part of the shaft, and is fused with the ol process superiorly. By its upper surface i into the formation of the great sigmoid whilst its anterior aspect, which is separat its upper side by a sharp irregular margin downwards and backwards to become cc with the anterior surface of the shaft. angular shape, this area, which is rou tubercular, terminates inferiorly in an oval e tubercle (tuberositas ulnæ), into which the of the brachialis anticus muscle is inserted. lateral margins of the coronoid process, th is usually the better defined. Above, w joins the superior border, there is gene salient tubercle, to which one of the h origin of the flexor sublimis digitorum m attached, whilst below this point the inner furnishes origins for the pronator radii te occasionally for the flexor longus pollicis i from above downwards. The smooth inner of the coronoid process merges with the ol behind, and with the internal surface of th below.

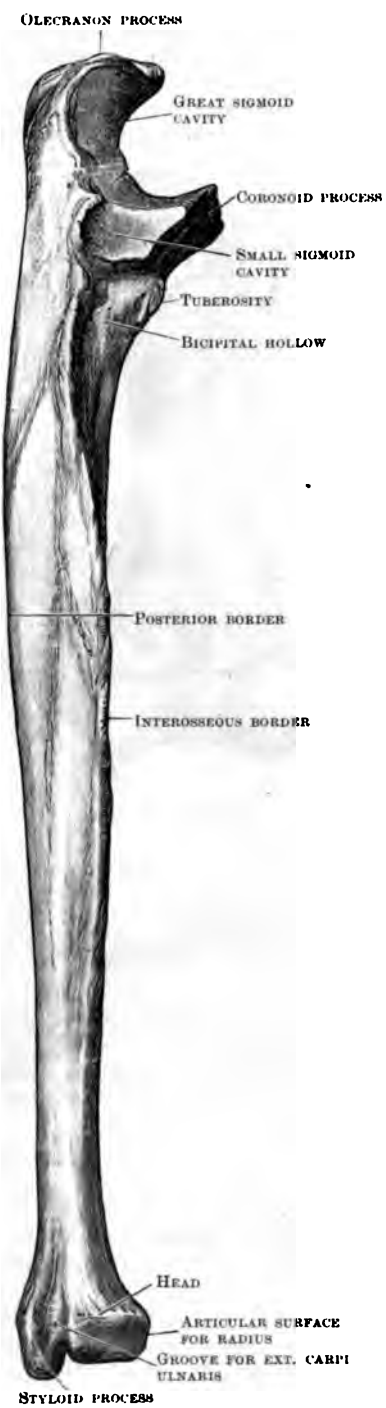


Fig. 140.—The Right Ulna as viewed from the Outer Side.

The **great sigmoid cavity** (incisura semil for articulation with the trochlea of the h is a semicircular notch, the upper part o is formed by the anterior surface of the ol whilst below it is completed by the upper of the coronoid process. Constricted tow deepest part by the notching of its lateral the articular surface is occasionally cro a narrow impression which serves to de olecranon process above from the coronoic The articular area is divided into an inner slightly concave transversely, and an out transversely convex to a slight degree, by tudinal smooth ridge which extends from t prominent part of the border of the ol above to the most outstanding point of the c process below. The margins of the great cavity are sharp and well defined, and ser the exception of the area occupied by th sigmoid cavity, for the attachment of the of the elbow-joint.

The **small sigmoid cavity**, placed on th side of the coronoid process, is an oblong s surface for the reception of the head of th It encroaches on the lower and outer the great sigmoid notch, so as to narrow siderably. Separated from it by a rec curved edge, it displays a surface which from above downwards, and concave fro backwards. Its anterior extremity is r and more pointed than its posterior, and confluent with the anterior edge of the process, at which point the orbicular ligament, which retains the head radius in position, is attached in front. Its posterior border, wider a outstanding, lies in line, and is continuous with the interosseous

shaft. Behind this border, the orbicular ligament is attached pos-

shaft of the ulna (corpus ulnæ), which is nearly straight, or but slightly
is stout and thick above, gradually tapering towards its lower extremity.
be divided into two surfaces, a flexor and an extensor, by two well-defined
, an **external** or **interosseous** (crista interossea), and a **posterior** (margo
), which latter is subcutaneous throughout its whole length.
outer, or **interosseous border** (crista interossea), is crisp and sharp in the
three-fourths of the shaft, but becomes faint and ill-defined in the lower
To this, with the exception only of the part which forms the posterior
ry of the bicipital hollow, is attached the interosseous membrane which
s the two bones of the forearm. The **posterior border** (margo dorsalis), of
outline, curving outwards above, and slightly inwards below, is continuous
rly with the triangular subcutaneous area on the back of the olecranon,
formed by the confluence of the borders which bound that surface; well
above, it becomes faint and more rounded below, but may be traced down-
o the posterior surface of the base of the styloid process. To this border is
d an aponeurosis common to the flexor carpi ulnaris, extensor carpi ulnaris,
tor profundus digitorum muscles. A noteworthy feature in connexion with
rt of the shaft is the fact that it is subcutaneous, and can easily be felt
the skin throughout its whole length.
flexor surface corresponds to the front and inner side of the shaft. It is
tly described as consisting of two surfaces, an anterior and an internal,
re separated by a rounded anterior border (margo volaris), which extends
e tubercle above towards the styloid process below. The prominence of
lge varies in different bones, being well marked in bones of a pronounced
t corresponding merely to the rounding of the surfaces in poorly developed
na. The flexor aspect of the bone affords an extensive origin to the flexor
lus digitorum muscle, which clothes its anterior and inner sides in its upper
rths, reaching as far back as the posterior border, and extending upwards
as the inner side of the coronoid process. Immediately below the small
l cavity there is a hollow triangular area, limited behind by the upper part
interosseous crest, and defined in front by an oblique line which extends
ards and backwards from the outer margin of the coronoid process. In this
the bicipital tubercle of the radius rests when the forearm is in the prone
n, and to its floor are attached the fibres of origin of the supinator radii brevis
. The lower fourth of the shaft is crossed by the fibres of the pronator
tus muscle, which derives its origin from a more or less well-defined crest,
winds spirally downwards and backwards towards the front of the root of the
l process, and is continuous above with the so-called anterior border.
e **extensor aspect** of the shaft lies posteriorly between the posterior border
e interosseous crest. At its upper part it is placed behind the great and
igmoid cavities, extending on to the outer side of the olecranon. Here an
orresponding to the upper third of the length of the bone is marked off
rly by an oblique ridge which leaves the interosseous crest about an inch or
below the hinder edge of the small sigmoid cavity. Into this somewhat
ular surface the fibres of the anconeus are inserted. Below this the
ior surface is subdivided by a faint longitudinal ridge, the bone between
and the interosseous crest furnishes origins for the extensor ossis metacarpi
s, extensor longus pollicis, and extensor indicis muscles, in order from above
wards. The surface of bone between the posterior border and the afore-men-
l longitudinal line is smooth and overlain by the extensor carpi ulnaris muscle.
he **inferior extremity** of the ulna presents a rounded head (capitulum ulnæ),
which, on its inner and posterior aspect, there projects downwards a cylindrical
ed process called the **styloid process** (processus styloideus). To the extremity
is latter is attached the internal lateral ligament, whilst in front it has con-
d with it the antero-internal portion of the capsule of the wrist-joint. The
o-external half of the circumference of the head is furnished with a smooth
w convex articular surface, which fits into the sigmoid cavity of the radius.

Its inferior surface, flat and semilunar in shape, and separated from the root ‹ styloid process by a well-marked groove, rests on the upper surface of the triai fibro-cartilage of the wris apex of which is attached groove just mentioned. margins of the head in fro behind the radial articulars have attached to them th terior and posterior in radio-ulnar ligaments. hinder and outer surface ‹ styloid process is channelle groove which separates it the posterior surface of the and extends some little w the posterior aspect of the end of the shaft. In this is l the tendon of the extenso ulnaris muscle. The propo ate length of the ulna to th height is as 1 is to 6·26–6·

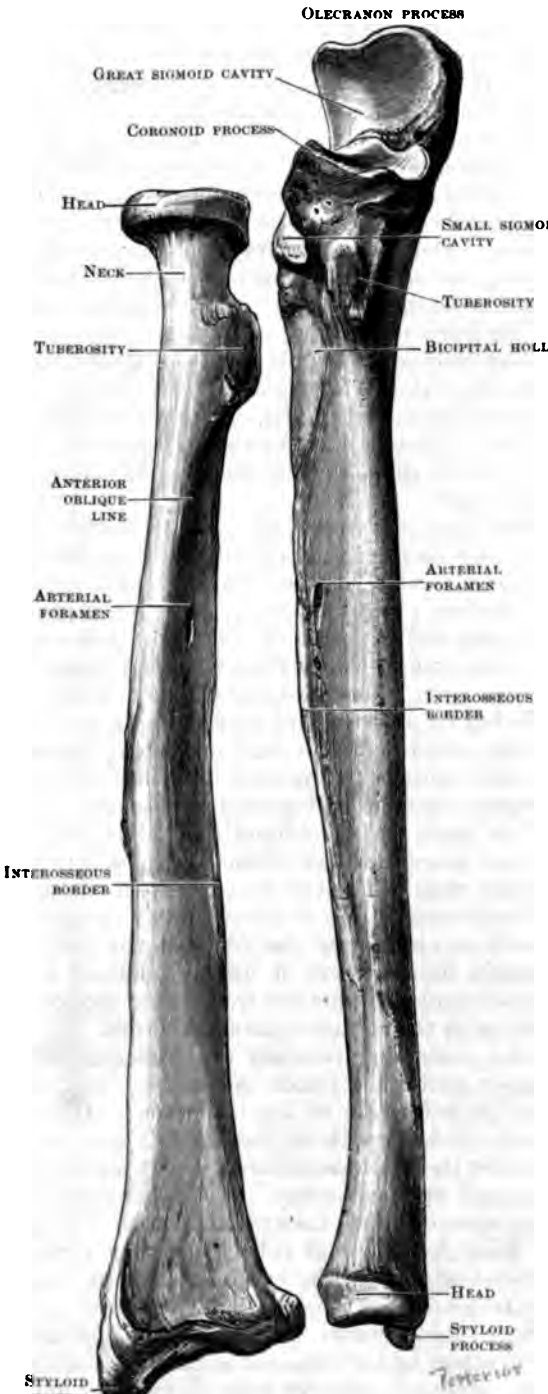


FIG. 141.—THE RADIUS AND ULNA AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

Nutrient Foramina. — A men, having an upward direct the nutrient artery of the shaft on the anterior surface of th from two to three inches bel tuberosity. Vascular canals o size are seen above and behi small sigmoid cavity, just post the notched external border great sigmoid cavity. At the end of the bone similar openi seen in the groove between the process and the inferior articul face of the head.

Connexions. — The ulna lates above with the trochlea humerus. On the outer side contact with the radius abo below, the superior radio-ul ticulation being formed by th of the radius and the small s cavity of the ulna, the inferio ulnar joint comprising the h the ulna, which fits into the s cavity of the radius. Betwee two joints the shafts of the bo united by the interosseous mer The inferior surface of the h the ulna does not articulate w carpus, but rests on the upper of the interposed triangular cartilage. The ulna is sup throughout its entire extent periorly the olecranon process readily recognised, particularl the elbow is bent, as in this p the olecranon is withdrawn fr olecranon fossa of the humc which it rests when the joint tended. Below this the subcu triangular area on the back olecranon can be easily dete

and from it the posterior border of the bone can readily be traced along the line of the furrow" to the styloid process below. With the hand supine this latter process can be fel inner side and slightly behind the wrist. When the hand is pronated, the lower end radius rolls round the lower extremity of the ulna, and the antero-external surface of the

r bone now forms a well-marked projection on the back of the wrist in line with the ween the little and ring fingers.

itecture.—The weakest parts of the bone are the constricted portion of the great cavity, and the shaft in its lower third, the bone being most liable to fracture at these On section the medullary cavity is seen to extend upwards as high as the base of the process; inferiorly it reaches as low as the upper end of the lower fifth of the bone. The the **shaft**, which are formed of dense bone, are much thicker posteriorly than anteriorly. ney are continuous with the front of the coronoid process and the back of the olecranon, ne are composed of layers of looser texture, which, however, gradually become thinner as its of these processes are reached. Inferiorly they gradually taper until the head and rocess are reached, round which they form a thin shell, considerably thickened, however, egion of the groove for the extensor carpi ulnaris muscle. The bulk of the upper y is formed of loose cellular bone, arranged in a series of arcades, stretching from the to the posterior wall over the upper end of the medullary canal. Above the constricted the great sigmoid cavity the bone displays a different structure; here it is formed of one, of closer texture, arranged generally in lines radial to the articular surface. At the constriction of the great sigmoid cavity the layer immediately subjacent is much denser e compact.

lower fifth of the bone is formed of loose spongy bone, the fibres of which have a general inal arrangement; towards its extremity the meshes become smaller.

ations.—Cases of partial or complete absence of the ulna through congenital defect have orded. Rosenmüller has described a case in which the olecranon was separated from the d of the bone, resembling thus in some respects the patella. In powerfully developed ere is a tendency to the formation of a sharp projecting crest corresponding to the inser- he triceps.

ification.—The ulna is ossified from one primary and two or more secondary The centre for the shaft appears the second month of fœtal life. h the shaft and a considerable part upper extremity, including the l process, are ossified, as well as part lower extremity. The olecranon and the inferior surface of the head styloid process are cartilaginous. en years of age a secondary centre in the cartilage at the upper end bone, and forms an epiphysis nites with the shaft about sixteen. like centre appears in the cartilage head about the sixth year, from he under surface of that part of the developed, and by the extension of he styloid process is also ossified; physis does not unite with the shaft twentieth or twenty-third year. dent centres for the styloid process the extreme edge of the olecranon so been described. The student re be warned that the epiphysial ween the shaft and superior or n epiphysis does not correspond constricted part of the great sigmoid cavity, but lies considerably above it.

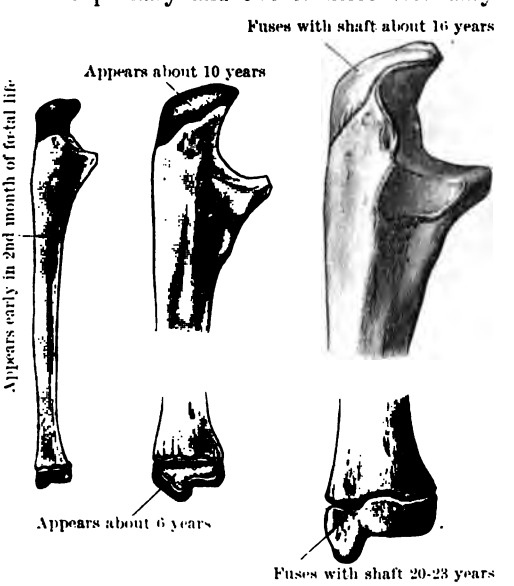

Fuses with shaft about 16 years
Appears about 10 years
Appears early in 2nd month of fœtal life
Appears about 6 years
Fuses with shaft 20-23 years
At Birth.
About 12 years.
About 16 years.

FIG. 142.—THE OSSIFICATION OF THE ULNA.

THE RADIUS.

radius, or outer bone of the forearm, is shorter than the ulna, with which nited on the inner side. Superiorly it articulates with the humerus, and supports the carpus. It consists of a **head**, a **neck**, a **tubercle**, a **shaft**, expanded **lower extremity**. The shaft is narrow above, but increases in all meters below.

per Extremity.—The **head** (capitulum) is disc-shaped and provided with ow concave surface (fovea capituli radii) superiorly for articulation with the um of the humerus. The circumference of the head (circumferentia articu- smooth and is embraced by the orbicular ligament. On the inner side it lly much broader, and displays an articular surface, plane from above down-

wards, which rolls within the small sigmoid cavity of the ulna in the mov of pronation and supination. The character of the outer half of the circum

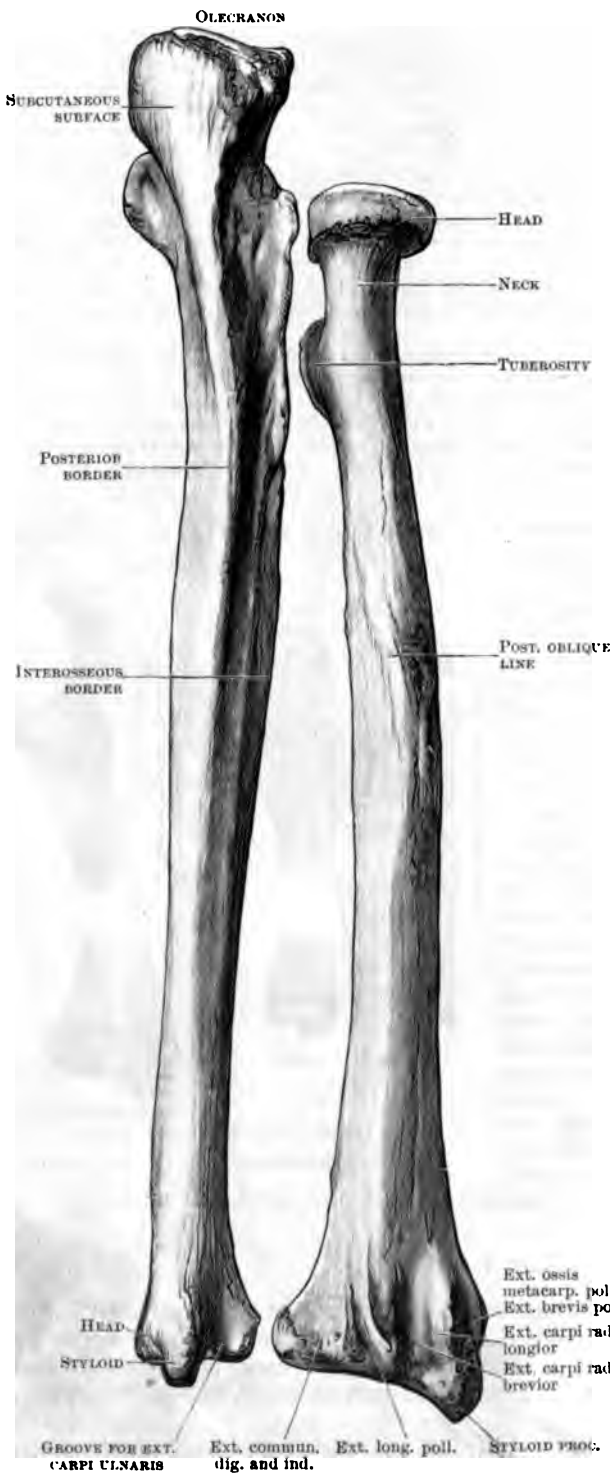


Fig. 143.—The Radius and Ulna as seen from Behind.

differs from the ir being narrower, and r from above downwa

The **neck** (collun is the constricted the shaft which supp head, the overhang latter being greatest the outer and poster Below the neck, on th side, there is an outs oval prominence, t **cipital tuberosity** ositas radii). The p part of this is rou the insertion of the tendon, whilst the a half is smooth and by a bursa which int between it and the

The **shaft** (corpu which has an outwar and is narrow abo broad below, is wedge on section. The edg wedge forms the sha interosseous margin bone (crista int whilst its base corr to the thick and r outer border over wh anterior or flexor becomes confluent w posterior or extensor

The **internal** or **seous border**, faint where it lies in li the posterior border bicipital tubercle, l sharp and prominen middle third of th Below this it splits i faint lines, which either side of the cavity on the lower the bone, thus ir between them a triangular area int the deeper fibres pronator radii qu muscle are insert this border, as wel the posterior of t divergent lines, the seous membrane is a

The **external border** (oftentimes described as the external surface) is th rounded above, but becomes thinner and more prominent below, where it

the base of the **styloid process**. About its middle the anterior and posterior
ue lines become confluent with it, and here, placed between them, is a rough
ated impression which marks the insertion of the pronator radii teres muscle.
e this, and on the outer surface of the neck, the supinator radii brevis muscle
rted, whilst inferiorly this border is overlain by the tendons of the brachio-
s and the extensor carpi radialis longior and brevior muscles.

e **anterior or flexor surface** (facies volaris) is crossed obliquely by a line which
rom the bicipital tubercle above, downwards, and outwards towards the
of the outer border of the shaft. This, oftentimes called the **anterior oblique**
rves for the attachment of the radial head of origin of the flexor sublimis
im muscle. Above it, the front of the bone has the fibres of the supinator
revis muscle inserted into it, whilst below and internal to it, extending
lown as the inferior limit of the middle third of the bone, is an extensive
for the origin of the flexor longus pollicis muscle. In the lower fourth
bone, where the shaft is broad and flat in front, there is a surface for the
n of the pronator quadratus muscle which also extends back to the inter-
ridge.

extensor or **posterior surface** (facies dorsalis) is also crossed by an oblique
s distinct than the anterior. This serves to define the superior limit of the
f the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis muscle. Above this, the back of the
d upper part of the shaft is overlain by the fibres of the supinator radii brevis,
ecome attached to this surface of the bone in its outer half. Below the
r oblique line the posterior surface in the upper part of its inner half gives
o the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis, and the extensor brevis pollicis
in order from above downwards.

lower extremity, which tends to be turned slightly forward when viewed
low, has a somewhat triangular form. Its inferior **carpal articular surface**,
from before backwards, and slightly so from side to side, is divided into two
y a slight antero-posterior ridge, best marked at its extremities where the
and posterior margins are notched; the external of these areas, of tri-
shape, is for articulation with the scaphoid, whilst the inner, quadrilateral in
for the semilunar bone. The anterior border, prominent and turned forward,
at its edge, where it serves for the attachment of the anterior part of the
of the wrist joint. The posterior border is rough, rounded, and tubercular,
rooved by many tendons: of these grooves the best marked is one which passes
y across its posterior surface. This is for the tendon of the extensor longus
muscle. The outer lip of this groove is often very prominent, and forms
anding tubercle. To the ulnar side of this oblique groove there is a broad
furrow in which the tendons of the extensor communis digitorum and
indicis muscles are lodged, whilst to its outer side and between it and the
process, there is another broad groove, subdivided by a faint ridge into two,
assage of the tendons of the extensor carpi radialis brevior and the extensor
lialis longior in that order from within outwards. The **styloid process** (pro-
tyloideus) lies to the outer side of the inferior extremity; broad at its base,
es narrow and pointed below where by its inner cartilage-covered surface
the summit of the inferior triangular articular area. The outer surface of
ess is crossed obliquely from above downwards and forwards by a shallow
he anterior lip of which is sharp and well marked, and serves to separate it
anterior surface of the bone, whilst the posterior lip is often emphasised
all tubercle above. The tendon of the brachio-radialis muscle is inserted
upper part of either lip, and also spreads out on to the floor of the groove,
e tendons of the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis and the extensor brevis
muscles lie within the groove. To the tip of the styloid process is attached
rnal lateral ligament of the wrist. On the inner side of the lower extremity
the **sigmoid cavity** (incisura ulnaris) for the reception of the head of the
concave from before backwards, and plane from above downwards, it forms
nferior margin a rectangular edge which separates it from the inferior
rface. To this edge the base of the triangular fibro-cartilage is attached,
re which serves to separate the inferior articular surface of the head of

the ulna from the carpus. The anterior and posterior edges of the sigmoid cavit more or less prominent, serve for the attachment of ligaments.

The proportionate length of the radius to the body height is as 1 is t 6·70–7·11.

Nutrient Foramina.—The openings of several small nutrient canals may be seen in th region of the neck. That for the shaft, which has an upward direction, is usually placed on th front of the bone, internal to the anterior oblique line, and from an inch and a half to two inch below the bicipital tubercle. The back of the lower extremity of the bone is pierced by mar small foramina.

Connexions.—The radius articulates with the capitellum of the humerus in the flex position of the elbow, with the ulna to its inner side by the superior and inferior radio-uln joints, and with the scaphoid and semilunar bones of the carpus below. Above, the head of t bone can be felt in the intermuscular depression on the outer side of the back of the elbow; he the bone is only covered by the skin, superficial fascia, and the thin common tendinous origin the extensor muscles, as well as the ligaments which support it. Its position can best be asc tained by pronating and supinating the bones of the forearm, when the head will be felt rotati beneath the finger. The lower end of the bone is overlain in front and behind by the flexor a extensor tendons, but its general form can be readily made out. The styloid process lying to t outer side of the wrist in line with the extended thumb can easily be recognised; note that reaches a lower level than the corresponding process of the ulna. The outer border of the low third of the shaft can be distinctly felt, as here the bone is only overlain by tendons.

Architecture.—The neck is the narrowest part of the bone; here fracture may occur, thou not commonly. The point at which the bone is usually broken is about one inch above t lower extremity. This is accounted for by the fact that the radius supports the hand at t radio-carpal articulation, and the shocks to which the latter is subjected, as in endeavouring save oneself from falling, are naturally transmitted to the radius. On section, the medulla canal is seen to extend as high as the neck; below, it reaches to the level of the inferior fifth the bone. Its walls are thick as compared with the diameters of the bone, particularly along t interosseous border, thus imparting rigidity to the curve of the shaft; these walls thin o above and below. Superiorly, the surface of the bicipital tubercle is formed of a th shell of bone, which, however, thickens again where it passes on to the neck. The upp extremity is formed of spongy bone arranged in the form of arcades, reaching below the lev of the bicipital tubercle internally, but not extending below the level of the neck e ternally. Beneath the capitellar articular surface there is a dense layer, thickest in t centre, and thinning towards the circumference; this is overlain by a very thin layer less compact bone.

The inferior fifth of the shaft and lower extremity are formed of loose spongy bo arranged more or less longitudinally. Im mediately subjacent to the carpal articul surface the tissue is more compact, and di plays a striation parallel to the articular pla The nutrient canal of the shaft pierces t anterior wall of the upper part of the medu lary cavity obliquely from below upwards i the space of half an inch.

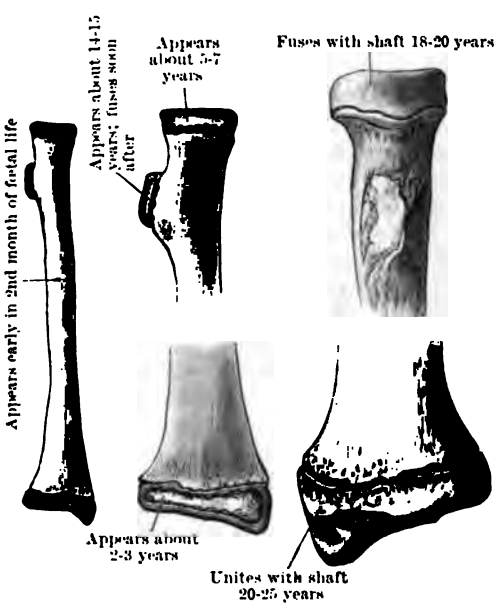

Appears early in 2nd month of fœtal life
Appears about 14-15 years; fuses soon after
Appears about 5-7 years
Fuses with shaft 18-20 years
Appears about 2-3 years
Unites with shaft 20-25 years
At Birth.
About 12 years.
About 16 years.

Fig. 144.—The Ossification of the Radius.

Variations.—Cases of congenital absen of the radius are recorded; in these the thum is not infrequently wanting as well.

Ossification.—The centre for the sha makes its appearance early in the seco month of intrauterine life. At birth t shaft is well formed; its upper and low extremities are capped with cartilage, a the bicipital tubercle is beginning to appe A secondary centre appears in the cartila of the lower extremity about the second third year; this does not unite with t shaft until the twentieth or twenty-fif year, somewhat earlier in the female. Fr this the carpal and ulnar articular surfac are formed. The centre for the he appears from the fifth to the seventh ye and fuses with the neck about the age eighteen or twenty. It forms the capitell articular surface and combines with the neck to form the area for articulation with t small sigmoid cavity of the ulna. A scale-like epiphysis capping the summit of t bicipital tubercle has been described; this appears about the fourteenth or fifteenth ye and rapidly fuses with that process.

THE BONES OF THE HAND.

ıe bones of the hand, twenty-seven in number, may be conveniently divided ıree groups :—

The bones of the wrist or carpus—*eight* in number.
The bones of the palm or metacarpus—*five* in number.
The bones of the fingers and thumb or phalanges—*fourteen* in number.

The Carpus.

: **carpal bones** (ossa carpi) are arranged in two rows: the first, or proximal mprises from t inwards, **caphoid** (os are), **semi-** os lunatum), **m** (os tri- n), and **pisi-** s pisiforme); ond or distal ıcludes the **m** (os mul- ım majus), **d** (os mul- ım minus), **ıum** (os capi- and **unciform** ıatum). Ir- ly six-sided, these bones es non-ar- palmar and ıurfaces. In ı, the mar- ones are non- ır along their and radial according as rm the inner er members eries.

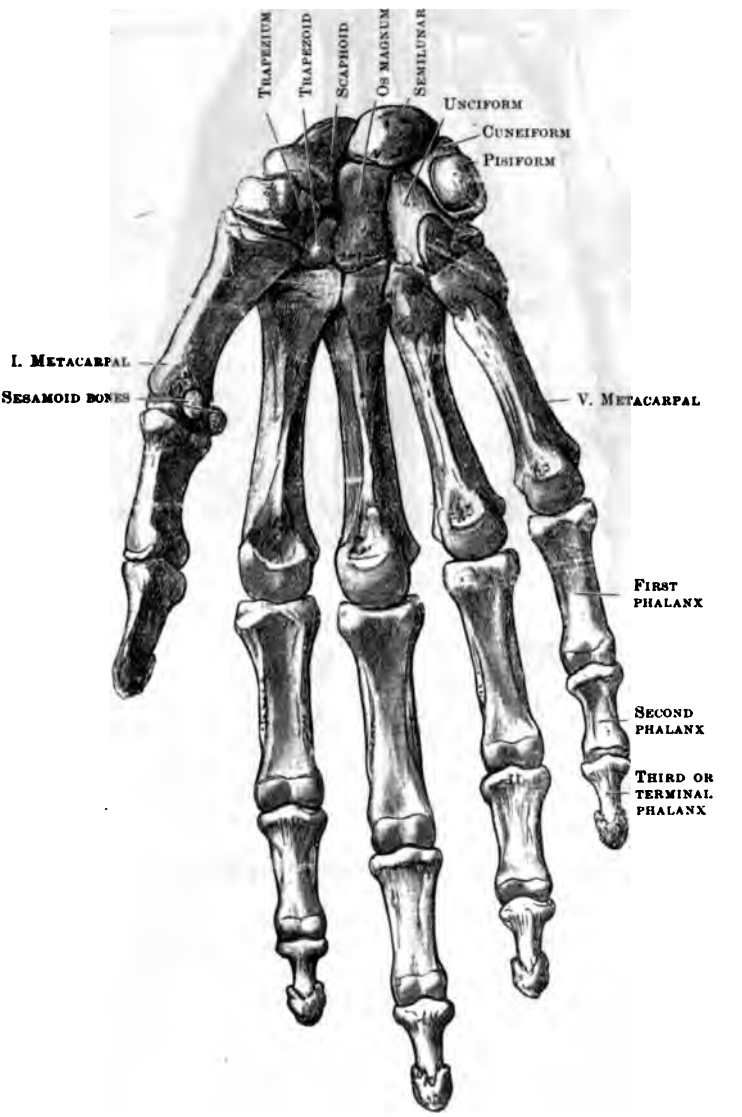


FIG. 145.—THE BONES OF THE RIGHT WRIST AND HAND AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

phoid Bone (os naviculare).—This is the largest as well as the outermost the first row. Its *palmar surface*, rough for the attachment of ligaments, ularly triangular. The inferior external angle forms a projection called

the **tuberosity**; this can be felt at the base of the root of the thumb. Its *s* *surface* is convex from side to side and before backwards for articulation wi radius. This area extends considerably over the posterior surface of the Its *inferior surface* is convex from before backwards, and extends on to the aspect of the bone, slightly convex from side to side; it is divisible into two the outer for articulation with the trapezium, the inner for the trapezoid.

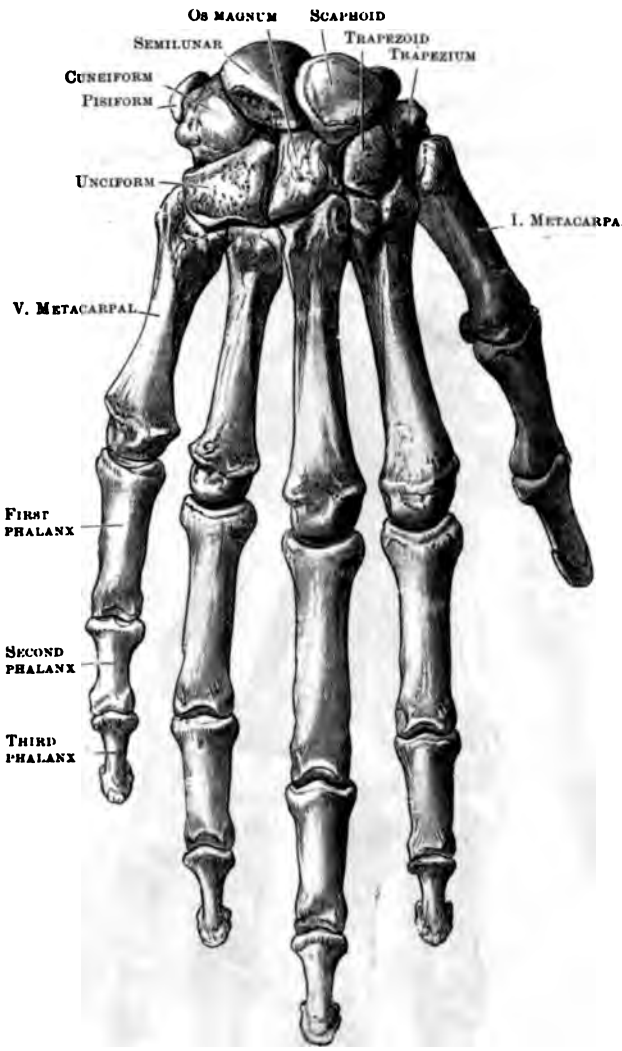


Fig. 146.—The Bones of the Right Wrist and Hand as seen from Behind.

outer surface is r and rounded and a non-articular l which extends fro radial articular s above to the tub below. The *inner s* is hollowed out in for articulation wit head of the os ma Above this it disp small semilunar-s facet for the sem bone. The *dorsal articular surface* li tween the radial ar surface above an surface for the tra and trapezoid belo is obliquely groov the attachment c posterior ligaments wrist. The scaphoi ulates with five b the radius, the sem the os magnum, the zoid, and the trape

Semilunar Bo lunatum).—So calle its deeply excavate the semilunar bon between the scaph the outer side an cuneiform on the Its *palmar surfa* rhombic form and siderable size, is rou the attachment o ments; its *superio face*, convex from to side and from backwards, articulates with the radius and in part with the under s of the triangular fibro-cartilage of the wrist. Its *inferior aspect*, deeply ho from before backwards, is divided into two articular areas, of which the is the larger; this is for the head of the os magnum; the inner, narrow side to side, articulates with the unciform. Its *external surface*, crescen shape, serves for articulation with the scaphoid, and also for the attachment interosseous ligaments which connect it with that bone. Its *inner surf* quadrilateral form, is cartilage-covered for articulation with the cuneiform the edge which separates this from the superior surface has attached to interosseous ligament which unites these two bones. The rough *dorsa articular surface* is much smaller than the palmar; by this means the and back of the bone can readily be determined. The semilunar artic

ve bones—the scaphoid, the radius, the cuneiform, the unciform, and the os
m.

neiform or Pyramidal Bone quetrum).—This bone may ognised by the small oval ular facet on its anterior for the pisiform. This ed towards the lower part *palmar surface*, which is ere rough for ligaments. one is placed obliquely, so ts surfaces cannot be ac- ly described as inferior, or, etc.; but for convenience cription, the method already d is adhered to. The *superior* e has a convex rhombic sur- r articulation with the under e of the triangular fibro- ge in adduction of the hand, h ordinarily it does not ap- o be in contact with that ure. To the ulnar side of t is rough for ligaments. *nferior surface* is elongated oncavo-convex from without ds; here the bone articulates with the unciform. The *external surface*, broader nt than behind, articulates with the semilunar. The *inner surface*, rounded ough, is confluent above and behind with the superior and dorsal aspects of the bone. The *dorsal surface*, rounded and smooth externally, is ridged and grooved internally for the attachment of ligaments. The cuneiform articulates with three bones, viz. the pisiform, the unciform, and the semilunar.

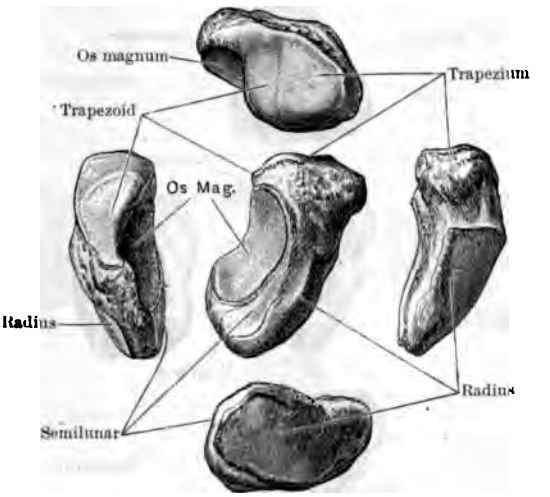


FIG. 147.—THE RIGHT SCAPHOID BONE.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. The views on either side, and above and below, represent respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

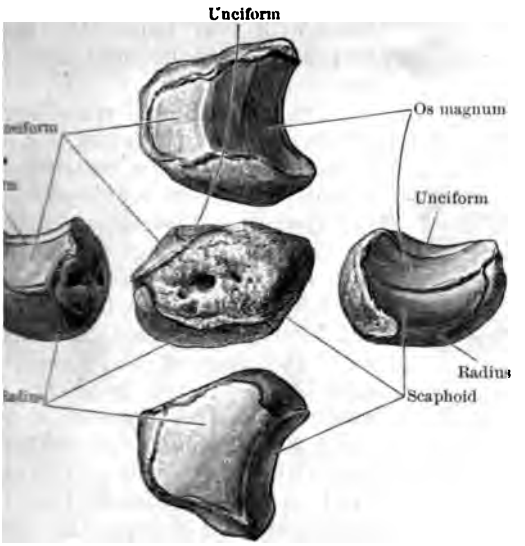


FIG. 148.—THE RIGHT SEMILUNAR BONE.

—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the sition which it occupies in the hand viewed from the ont. The views on either side, and above and below, present respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone rned towards the spectator.

Pisiform bone (os pisiforme).—About the size and shape of a large pea, the pisiform bone rests on the anterior surface of the fore end of the cuneiform, with which it articulates by an oval or circular facet on its dorsal aspect. The rounded mass of the rest of the bone is non-articular, and inclines downwards and outwards so as to overhang the articular facet in front and externally. The mass of the bone is usually separated from the articular surface by a small but distinct groove. Into the summit of the bone the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris muscle is inserted, and here also the anterior annular ligament is attached.

rapezium (os multangulum majus).—The trapezium is the outermost bone of the d row of the carpus. It may be readily recognised by the oval saddle-shaped on its inferior surface for articulation with the metacarpal bone of the thumb.

From its *palmar aspect* there rises a prominent **ridge**, within which is a groov which the tendon of the flexc radialis muscle passes. The rid nishes an attachment for the a annular ligament, as well as fc of the short muscles of the The *superior surface* has a ha facet for the scaphoid, external t it is rough, and becomes cont with the non-articular *external* which serves for the attachm ligaments. On its *inner surfac* are two facets; the upper is oval, concave from above dow and very slightly convex from backwards, and is for articulation with the trapezoid. The lower, small and circular, and not always present, is for articulation with the outer side of the base of the second metacarpal bone. The *dorsal surface*, of irregular outline, is rough for the atta of ligaments. The trapezium lates with four bones, the sc trapezoid, and the first and metacarpal bones.

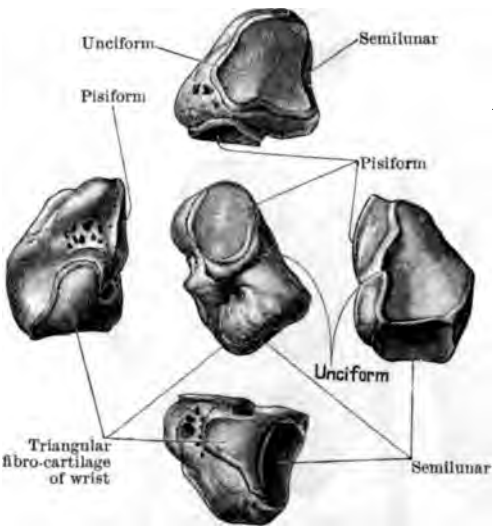


FIG. 149.—THE RIGHT CUNEIFORM BONE.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. The views on either side, and above and below, represent respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

FIG. 150.—THE RIGHT I BONE.

NOTE.—The figure to th presents the palmar vi bone; that to the r dorsal view.

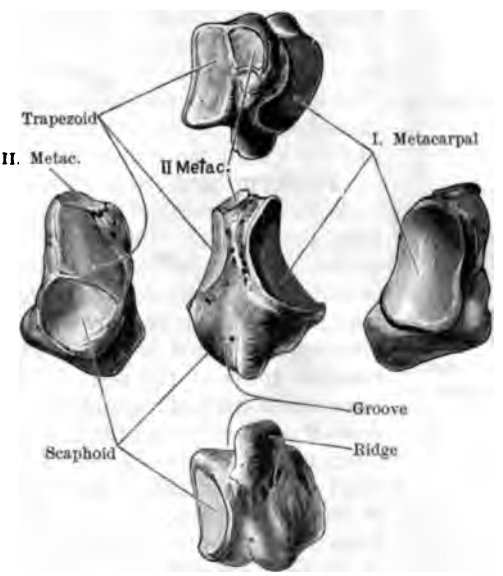


FIG. 151.—THE RIGHT TRAPEZIUM.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. The views on either side, and above and below, represent respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

Trapezoid Bone (os multa minus).—With the exception pisiform, this is the smallest carpal bones. Its rough *palm face* is small and pentagonal in By a small oblong surface *superior aspect* it articulates w scaphoid. *Inferiorly*, by a sor saddle-shaped surface, it arti with the base of the second carpal. Separated from this rough V-shaped impression, surface on the *outer side* for a tion with the trapezium; this as if obliquely grooved from backwards and downwards. *ternal facet* for articulation w os magnum is narrow from downwards, and deeply curve before backwards. The *dorsal* of the bone, which is rough a articular, is much larger th palmar aspect. The mass bone, dorsally, is directed downwards and towards the ulnar side. The tr articulates with four bones—the trapezium, scaphoid, os magnum, and the metacarpal.

lagnum (os capitatum).—This is the largest of the carpal bones. Its *palmar* s rough and rounded. The *portion* of the bone forms l, and is furnished with rticular facets which fit hollows on the inferior of the scaphoid and semi- hat for the latter is in- and separated by a slight m the scaphoid articular ie *inferior surface*, narrow its palmar border and rsally, is subdivided usu- three facets by two ridges owards the radial side is ase of the second meta- he middle facet is for the tacarpal; whilst the in- facet of the three, not resent, very small and ear the dorsal side of the or the fourth metacarpal. *side* of the body has an surface for the trapezoid, equently separated from hoid surface on the head ugh line, to which the interosseous ligament connecting it with the scaphoid is attached. The *inner side* of the body has an elongated articular surface, usually deeply notched in front, or it may be divided anteriorly into a small circular area near the dorsal edge; and a larger posterior part. This latter articulates either singly or doubly with the unciform, the interosseous ligament which unites the two bones being attached either to the notch or to the surface separating the two articular facets. The *dorsal surface* is rough for ligaments; it is somewhat constricted below the head, the articular surface of which sweeps round its upper border.

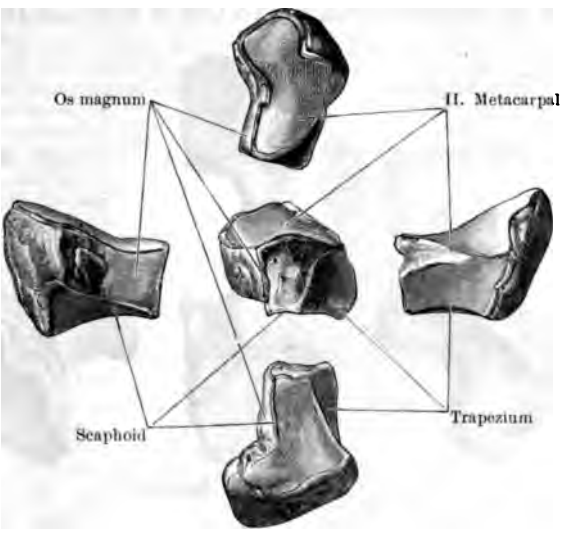


FIG. 152.—THE RIGHT TRAPEZOID.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. The views on either side, and above and below, represent respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

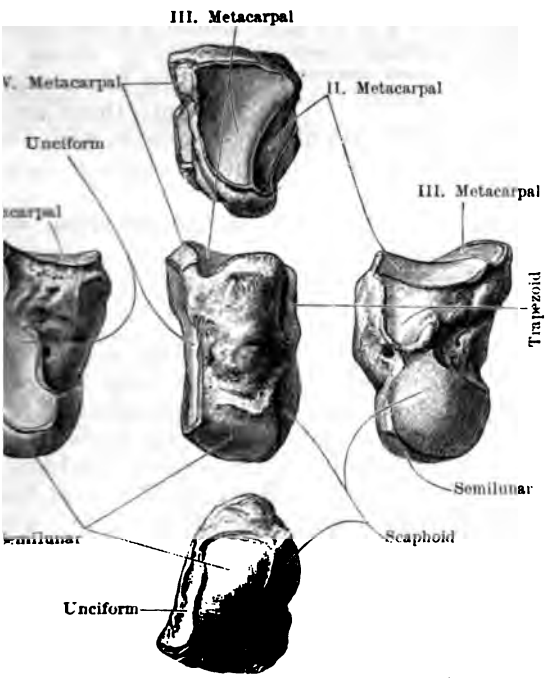


FIG. 153.—THE RIGHT OS MAGNUM.

ie bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the on which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. iews on either side, and above and below, represent respectively orresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the ator.

The os magnum articulates with seven bones—the unciform, the semilunar, the scaphoid, the trapezoid, and the second, third, and fourth metacarpal bones; occasionally the fourth metacarpal does not articulate with the magnum.

iform Bone (os hamatum).—The unciform can be readily distinguished by

the **hook-like process** (hamulus) which projects from the lower and inner asp
of its anterior surface. To this is attached the anterior annular ligament as w
as some of the fibres of ori
of the short muscles of
little finger. The *ulnar*
of the unciform proce
sometimes grooved by
deep branch of the u
nerve (Anderson, W., "R
Anat. Soc." *Journ. A*
and Physiol. vol. xxvii
11). The *palmar surf*
rough for ligaments, is s
what triangular in sh
Superiorly and *interna*
there is an elongated
ticular surface for the cu
form, convex above
concave below. The
aspect of the bone is
vided with a plane elong
facet, occasionally divi
into two (see above) for
ticulation with the os m
num. Where the supe
and external surfaces m
the angle is blunt, and
a narrow facet which
ticulates with the semilu
Inferiorly there are t
articular facets separated
a ridge; these are sligh

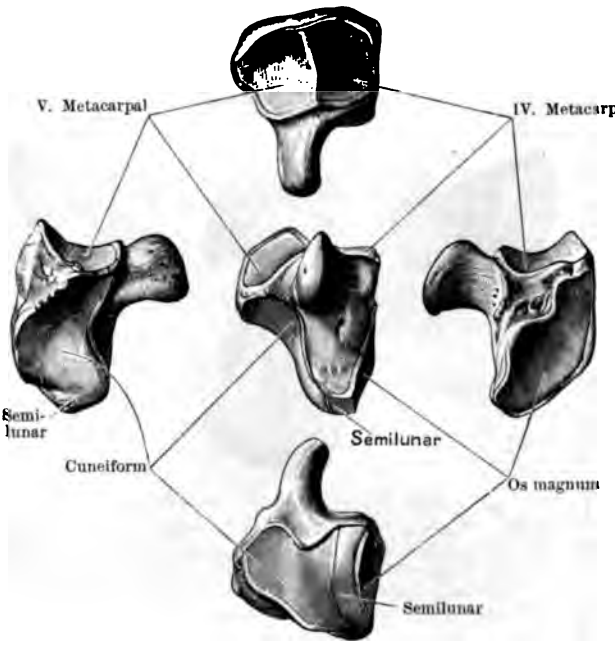


FIG. 154.—THE RIGHT UNCIFORM BONE.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. The views on either side, and above and below, represent respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

concave from before backwards, and are for articulation, the outer with the fou
and the inner with the fifth metacarpal bone. The *dorsal surface*, more or l
triangular in shape, is rough for ligaments.

The unciform articulates with five bones—viz. the os magnum, semilun
cuneiform, and the fourth and fifth metacarpals.

THE CARPUS AS A WHOLE.

When the carpal bones are articulated together they form a bony mass, t
dorsal surface of which is convex from side to side. Anteriorly they present
grooved appearance, concave from side to side. This arrangement is furth
emphasised by the forward projection, on the inner side, of the pisiform and ho
of the unciform, whilst externally the tuberosity of the scaphoid and the ridge
the trapezium help to deepen the furrow by their elevation. To these four poi
the anterior annular ligament of the wrist is attached, which stretches across fr
side to side, and thus converts the furrow into a canal through which the fle
tendons pass to reach the fingers.

Architecture.—The bones are formed of fairly compact spongy tissue, surrounded by a th
shell of denser bone. They are very vascular, and their non-articular surfaces are pierced
many foramina.

Variations.—Increase in the number of the carpal elements is occasionally met with, a
these have been ascribed to division of the scaphoid, semilunar, cuneiform, os magnum, tra
zoid, and unciform. In the last-mentioned case the hook-like process persists as a sepa
ossicle; but the researches of Thilenius (*Morph. Arbeiten*, Bd. v. Heft 3, S. 462), together with
observations of Pfitzner, prove that all these supernumerary bones are but the persistence of in
pendent cartilaginous elements which are met with in the hand of the human embryo betw
the second and fourth months, and which either disappear or become fused with adjac
elements. Of these the most interesting is the os centrale, first described by Rosenberg, a
subsequently investigated by Henke, Leboucq, and others. This is met with almost invaria

ıdependent cartilaginous element during the earlier months of fœtal life, and occasionally
s developed into a distinct ossicle placed on the back of the carpus between the scaphoid
magnum and the trapezoid. Its significance depends on the fact that it is an im-
component of the carpus in most mammals, and is met with normally in the orang
st monkeys. Ordinarily in man, as was pointed out by Leboucq, it becomes fused with the
d, where its presence is often indicated by
l tubercle, a condition which maintains
chimpanzee, the gorilla, and the gibbons.
has recently described a case in which
ras an os subcapitulum in both hands.
icle lay between the base of the middle
pal bone and the os magnum with the
id to its radial side. (*Anat. Anz.* vol. xxiv.)
addition to the number of the carpal
s may be due to the separation of the
process of the third metacarpal bone and
stence as a separate ossicle.
ıction in the number of the carpus has
ıet with, but this is probably due to
gical causes. Morestin (*Bull. Soc. Anat.*
, tome 71, p. 651), who has investigated
ject, finds that ankylosis occurs most fre-
between the bases of the second and
ıetacarpal bones and the carpus, seldom
between the carpus and the first meta-
or between the pisiform and cuneiform.
t Smith has recorded an instance of com-
ion between the semilunar and cuneiform
both wrists of a Soudanese negro. There
evidence of any pathological change.
nz. vol. xxiii. 1903.)

FIG. 155.—RADIOGRAPH OF THE HAND AT BIRTH.

It will be noticed that whilst the primary centres for the metacarpus and phalanges are well ossified, the carpus is still entirely cartilaginous.

Compare this with Fig. 197, in which the tarsus is shown in part already ossified.

ification.—At birth the carpus is
cartilaginous. An exceptional case
ed by Lambertz, in which the centres
os magnum and unciform were
present. The same authority states
is not uncommon to meet with these centres in the second month after birth.
ng to Debierre (*Journ. de l'Anat. et de la Physiol.* vol. xxii. 1886, p. 285),
on takes place approximately as follows:—

Os magnum	11 to 12 months.
Unciform	12 to 14 months.
Cuneiform	3 years.
Semilunar	5 to 6 years.
Trapezium	6 years.
Scaphoid	6 years.
Trapezoid	6 to 7 years.
Pisiform	10 to 12 years.

same observer failed to note the appearance of a separate centre for the apophysis
neiform, and records the occurrence of two centres for the pisiform.

THE METACARPUS.

metacarpal bones form the skeleton of the palm, articulating proximally
e carpus, whilst by their distal extremities or **heads** they support the bones
fingers. Five in number, one for each digit, they lie side by side and
divergent from each other, being separated by intervals, termed interosseous
Distinguished numerically from without inwards, they all display certain
n characters; each possesses a **body** or shaft, a **base** or carpal extremity, and a
phalangeal end.

shafts, which are *slightly curved towards the* palmar aspect, are narrowest
their middle. Their dorsal surface is marked by two divergent lines

which pass forward from the back of the base to tubercles on either side head. The surface included between the two lines is smooth and of elo triangular form. On either side of these lines two shallow grooves wind spirally forward on to the surface, where they are separated in front by a sharp which is continuous with a somewhat triangular which corresponds to the palmar aspect of the base grooved surfaces on either side of the shaft furnish orig the interossei muscles. Close to the palmar crest opening of the nutrient canal, which is directed towa carpal extremity, except in the case of the first meta bone.

FIG. 156.—FIRST RIGHT METACARPAL BONE.

The head (capitulum) is provided with a surfa articulation with the proximal phalanx. This area farther over its palmar than its dorsal aspect. Conve before backwards and from side to side, it is wider ant than posteriorly; notched on its palmar aspect, its edge two prominent tubercles, which are sometimes grooved small sesamoid bones which may occasionally be found anterior surface of the joint. On either side of the head bone there is a deep pit, behind which is a prominent tul to these are attached the lateral ligaments of the metacarpo-phalangeal joints.

The bases (basis), all more or less wedge-shaped in form, articulate with the carpus; they differ in size and shape according to their articulation.

Of the five metacarpal bones, the **first**, viz. that of the thumb, is the shortest and stoutest, the **second** is the longest, whilst the **third**, **fourth**, and **fifth** display a gradual reduction in length.

The four inner bones articulate by their bases with each other, and are united at their distal extremities by ligaments. They are so arranged as to conform to the hollow of the palm, being concave from side to side anteriorly, and convex posteriorly. The first metacarpal differs from the others in being free at its distal extremity, whilst its proximal end possesses only a carpal articular facet.

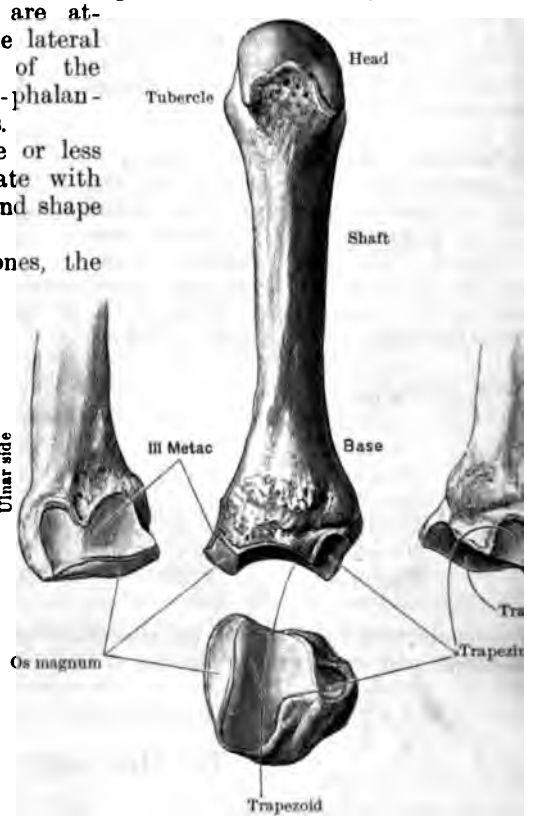


FIG. 157.—SECOND METACARPAL BONE.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figu position which it occupies in the hand viewed from t The views on either side, and below, represent re the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned tow spectator.

The first metacarpal bone is the shortest and stoutest of the series. Its shaft is compressed from before backwards. Its head, of large size, is but slightly convex from side to side, and is grooved in front for the sesamoid The base is provided with a saddle-shaped surface for articulation with the trap as no lateral facets. Externally there is a slight tubercle to whic

tor longus pollicis or extensor ossis mala-
pollicis muscle is attached. The canal for
ıtrient artery is directed towards the head of
ne.

ıe **second metacarpal bone** is recognised
s length and its broad and deeply-notched
for articulation with the trapezoid. It has
ll half-oval facet for the trapezium on the
side of its base,
; on its ulnar aspect
ents a narrow vertical
for the os magnum,
nt of which there are
alf-oval surfaces for
ird metacarpal. To
rsal aspect of the base
ched the tendon of
tensor carpi radialis
r muscle, whilst the
carpi radialis is in-
in front.

e **third metacarpal**
an usually be recog-
y the pointed **styloid**
s which springs from
ck of its base, and is
d radial-wards. Su-
ly there is a facet on
se for the os magnum.

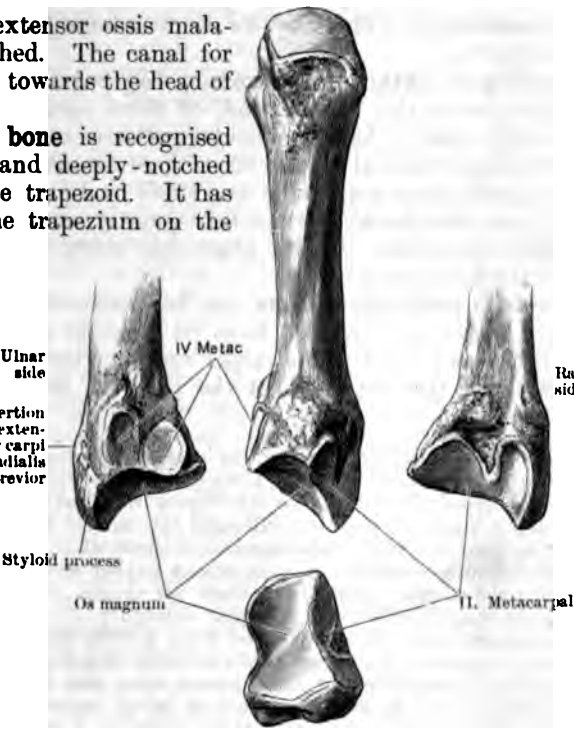


FIG. 158.—THIRD METACARPAL BONE.

NOTE.—The bone is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the hand viewed from the front. The views on either side, and below, represent respectively the corresponding surfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

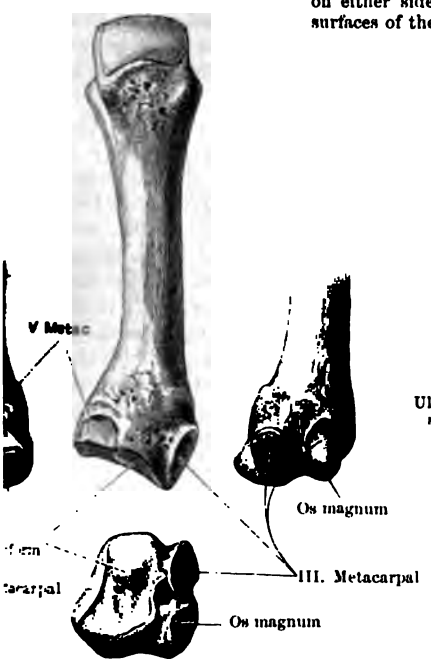


FIG. 159.—FOURTH METACARPAL BONE.

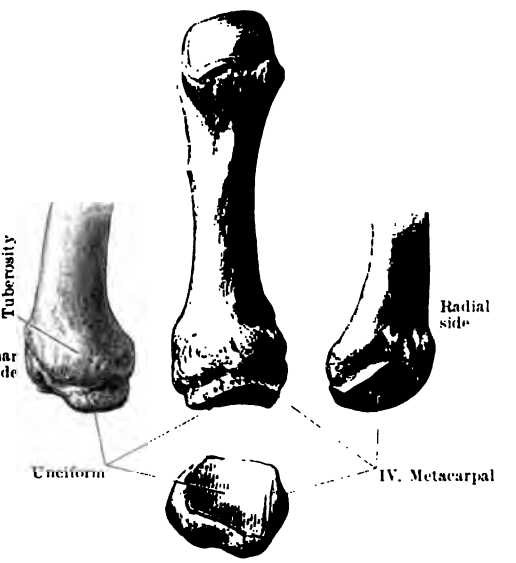


FIG. 160. FIFTH METACARPAL BONE.

—The bone in each figure is represented in the centre of the figure in the position which it occupies in the
d viewed from the front. The views on either side, and below, represent respectively the corresponding
rfaces of the bone turned towards the spectator.

ıe radial side there are two half-oval facets for the second metacarpal. To
ılnar side there are usually two small oval or nearly circular facets for the

fourth metacarpal. The extensor carpi radialis brevior muscle is inserted into back of the base.

The **fourth metacarpal bone** may be recognised by a method of exclusion. is unlike either the first, second, or third, and differs from the fifth, whi resembles in size, by having articular surfaces on both sides of its base. Super there is a quadrilateral surface on its base for articulation with the unciform. its radial side there are usually two small oval facets for the third metacarpal. these facets the dorsal one not infrequently has a narrow surface for articul with the os magnum. On the ulnar side there is a narrow articular strip for base of the fifth metacarpal.

The **fifth metacarpal bone** can be recognised by its size and the fact tha has only one lateral articular facet on its base, namely, that on its radial side the fourth metacarpal. The carpal articular surface is saddle-shaped, and the a **tubercle** on the ulnar side of the base for the insertion of the extensor c ulnaris muscle.

As has been already pointed out, the openings of the arterial canals are usually seen on palmar surfaces of the metacarpals, those of the four inner bones being directed upwards tow the base or carpal end, differing in this respect from that of the first metacarpal, which is dir downwards towards the head or phalangeal extremity. The opening of the latter canal us lies to the ulnar side of the palmar aspect of the shaft.

Architecture.—Similar in arrangement to that of long bones generally, though it ma noted that the compact walls of the shaft are thicker in proportion to the length of the than in the other long bones of the upper extremity.

Variations.—As previously stated (*ante*, p. 209), the styloid apophysis of the third m carpal bone appears as a separate ossicle in about 1·8 per cent of cases examined ("Fourth An Report of the Committee of Collect. Invest. Anat. Soc. Gt. Brit. and Ireland," *Journ. Anat. Physiol.* vol. xxviii. p. 64). In place of being united to the third metacarpal, the st apophysis may be fused with either the os magnum or the trapezoid, under which condition base of the third metacarpal bone is without this characteristic process.

Ossification.—The metacarpal bones are developed from primary and secon centres; but there is a remarkable difference between the mode of growth of the first the remaining four inner metacarpals, for whilst the **shaft** and **head** of the first metac are developed from the primary ossific centre, and its *base* from a secondary epiphys the case of the second, third, fourth, and fifth metacarpals, the **shafts** and **bases** are veloped from the primary centres, the *heads* in these instances being derived from secondary epiphyses. In this respect, therefore, as will be seen hereafter, the metac bone of the thumb resembles the phalanges in the manner of its growth, a circumst which has given rise to considerable discussion as to whether the thumb is to be reg as possessing three phalanges and no metacarpal, or one metacarpal and two phala The primary centres for the shafts and bases of the second, third, fourth, and fifth m carpals appear in that order during the ninth or tenth week of intrauterine life, a little time after the terminal phalanges have begun to ossify, that for the shaft and b of the metacarpal bone of the thumb a little later. At birth the shafts of the bones well formed. The secondary centres from which the heads of the second, third, fou and fifth metacarpals and the base of the first are developed, appear about the third y and usually completely fuse with the shafts about the age of twenty. There may b independent centre for the styloid process of the third metacarpal, and there is usual scale-like epiphysis on the head of the first metacarpal which makes its appearance ab eight or ten, and rapidly unites with the head.

The Phalanges.

The **phalanges** or finger bones (phalanges digitorum manus) are fourteen number—three for each finger, and two for the thumb.

Named numerically in order from the proximal toward the distal ends of t fingers, the **first phalanx** (phalanx prima), the longest and stoutest of the three, ha semi-cylindrical shaft which is curved slightly forwards. The palmar surface is and bounded on either side by two sharp borders to which the sheath of the fle tendons is attached. The dorsal surface, convex from side to side, is overlain the extensor tendons. The proximal end, considerably enlarged, has a simple ov concave surface, which rests on the head of its corresponding metacarpal bone. O either side of this the bone is tubercular, and affords attachment to the late

ıts of the metacarpo-phalangeal joint, and also to the interossei muscle. The nd is much smaller than the proximal; the convex ır surface is divided into two condyles by a central running from before backward. The **second phalanx** ıx secunda) resembles the first in general form, but maller size. It differs, however, in the form of its al articular surface, which is not a simple oval con- but is an oval area divided into two small, nearly : concavities by a central ridge passing from before ırds; these articulate with the condyloid surfaces of ɔximal phalanx. Into the margins of its palmar near the proximal end are inserted the split s of the tendon of the flexor sublimis digitorum, on the dorsal aspect of the proximal end the central the extensor communis digitorum muscle is at-

The **third, terminal** or **ungual phalanx** (phalanx is the smallest of the three; it is easily recognised spatula-shaped surface on its distal extremity which :s the nail. The articular surface on its proximal sembles that on the proximal end of the second x, but is smaller. On the palmar aspect of this end bone there is a rough surface for the insertion of don of the flexor profundus digitorum muscle. The surface of the same extremity has attached to it the al portions of the tendon of the extensor communis um muscle. The phalanges of the thumb resemble arrangement of their parts the first and third ges of the fingers.

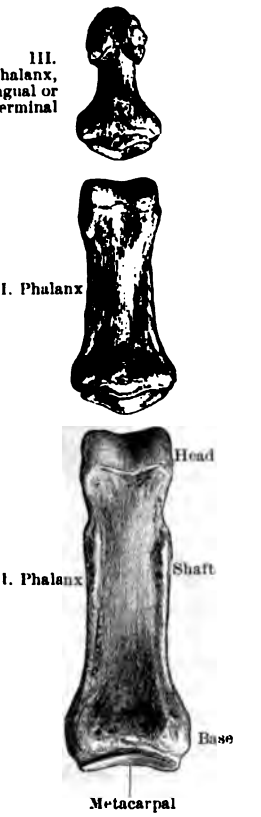


FIG. 161.—THE PHALANGES OF THE FINGERS (palmar aspect).

arterial canals, usually two in number, placed on either the palmar aspect and nearer the distal than the proximal he bone, are directed towards the finger-tips.

itecture.—Each phalanx has a medullary cavity, the walls shaft being formed of dense compact bone, especially thick ıe dorsal aspect. The extremities are made up of spongy bone within a thin dense shell.

iations.—Several instances have been recorded of cases in which there were three phalanges ıumb. Bifurcation of the terminal phalanges has occasionally been met with, and examples ression of a phalangeal segment or its absorption by another phalanx have also been de- (Hasselwander, *Zeits. F. Morph. u. Anthr.*, vol. vi. 1903).

sification.—The phalanges are ossified from primary and secondary centres. From the former, which appear as early as the ninth week of fœtal life, the shaft and distal extremities are developed; whilst the latter, which begin to appear about the third year, form the proximal epiphyses which unite with the shafts from eighteen to twenty. Dixey (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, xxx. and xxxi.) has pointed out that the primary centre in the ungual phalanges commences to ossify in the distal part of the bone rather than towards the centre of the shaft. This observation has been confirmed by Lambertz, who further demonstrates the fact that ossification commences earlier in the distal phalanges than in any of the other bones of the hand. Of the other phalanges, those of the first row, beginning with that of the third finger, next ossify, subt to the appearance of ossific centres in the shafts of the metacarpal bones, whilst

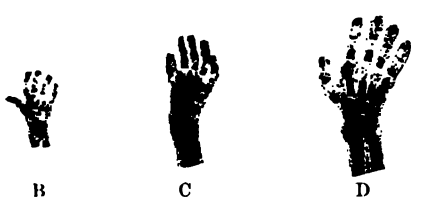


FIG. 162. -RADIOGRAPHS OF FŒTAL HANDS.

it 10 weeks. Here the ossific nuclei of the terminal ıanges and the four inner metacarpal bones are seen.
tle later. The centre for the metacarpal bone of the ımb is now appearing, and the centres for the first ılanges of the index and middle fingers are clearly seen.
it the beginning of the third month. The centres for all first row of phalanges are now distinct, and the centres the second phalanges of the index, middle, and ring fingers e made their appearance.
ween the third and fourth month. The primary centres all the phalanges and metacarpus are now well eloped.

the second or intermediate row of the phalanges is the last to ossify about the end third month.

Sesamoid Bones.

Two little oval nodules (ossa sesamoidea), which play in grooves on the p aspect of the articular surface of the head of the first metacarpal bone, are consi met with in the tendons and ligaments of that metacarpo-phalangeal articul Similar nodules, though of smaller size, are sometimes formed in the correspo joints of the other fingers, more particularly the index and little finger; as Thil has pointed out (*Morph. Arbeiten*, vol. v.), these are but the persistence of cartilag elements which have a phylogenetic interest.

THE LOWER LIMB.

THE PELVIC GIRDLE AND THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

The **pelvic girdle** is formed by the articulation of the two haunch bones the sacrum behind, and their union with each other in front, at the joint calle symphysis pubis.

The Innominate Bone.

The **innominate** or haunch bone (os coxæ) is the largest of the flat bones skeleton. It consists of three parts—the **ilium**, the **ischium**, and the **pu** primarily distinct, but fused together in the process of growth to form one irregular bone. The coalescence of these elements takes place in and aroun **acetabulum**, a large circular articular hollow which is placed on the outer side bone. The expanded wing-like part above this is the ilium; the stout V-sh portion below and behind it constitutes the ischium; while the >-shaped pa the inner side, and in front and below, forms the pubis. The two latter porti the bone enclose between them a large aperture of irregular outline, calle **thyroid** or **obturator** foramen (foramen obturatorum), which is placed in fron below, and to the inner side of the acetabulum.

The **ilium**, almost a quadrant in form, consists of an expanded plate of having a curved superior border, the **iliac crest** (crista iliaca). Viewed fron side, this forms a curve corresponding to the circumference of the circle of the bone is the quadrant; viewed from above, however, it will be seen to di a double bend—convex anteriorly and externally, and concave posteriorly externally. The iliac crest is stout and thick, and for descriptive purpo divided into an outer lip (labium externum), an inner lip (labium internum) an intermediate surface (linea intermedia) which is broad behind, narrowest its middle, and wider again in front. About 2½ inches from the anterior extr of the crest the outer lip is usually markedly prominent and forms a proje tubercle, which can readily be felt in the living. Attached to these surface lips anteriorly are the muscles of the flank, whilst from them posteriorly latissimus dorsi, quadratus lumborum, and erector spinæ muscles derive origins. The crest ends in front in a pointed process, the **anterior superior iliac** (spina iliaca anterior superior). To this the outer extremity of Poupart's liga is attached, as well as the sartorius muscle, which also arises from the edge of immediately below it, whilst from the same process and from the anterior ex the outer lip of the iliac crest externally the tensor fasciæ femoris muscle origin.

The **anterior border** of the ilium stretches from the anterior superior iliac to the margin of the acetabulum below. Above, it is thin; but below, it for thick tubercular process, the **anterior inferior iliac spine** (spina iliaca anterio ferior). From this the rectus femoris muscle arises, whilst the stout fibres o ilio-femoral ligament of the hip-joint are attached to it immediately above acetabular margin. Posteriorly, the crest terminates in the **posterior superior spine** (spina iliaca posterior superior). Below this, the posterior border of the is sharp and irregularly notched terminating in a prominent angle, the post

erior iliac spine (spina iliaca posterior inferior), in front of which the edge of the ne becomes thick and rounded, and forms a wide notch which sweeps forwards d downwards to join the mass of bone behind the acetabulum, where it becomes ed with the ischium; this is called the **ilio-sciatic** or **great sciatic notch** (incisura hiadica major).

The ilium has two surfaces, an inner and an outer. The *external surface* is

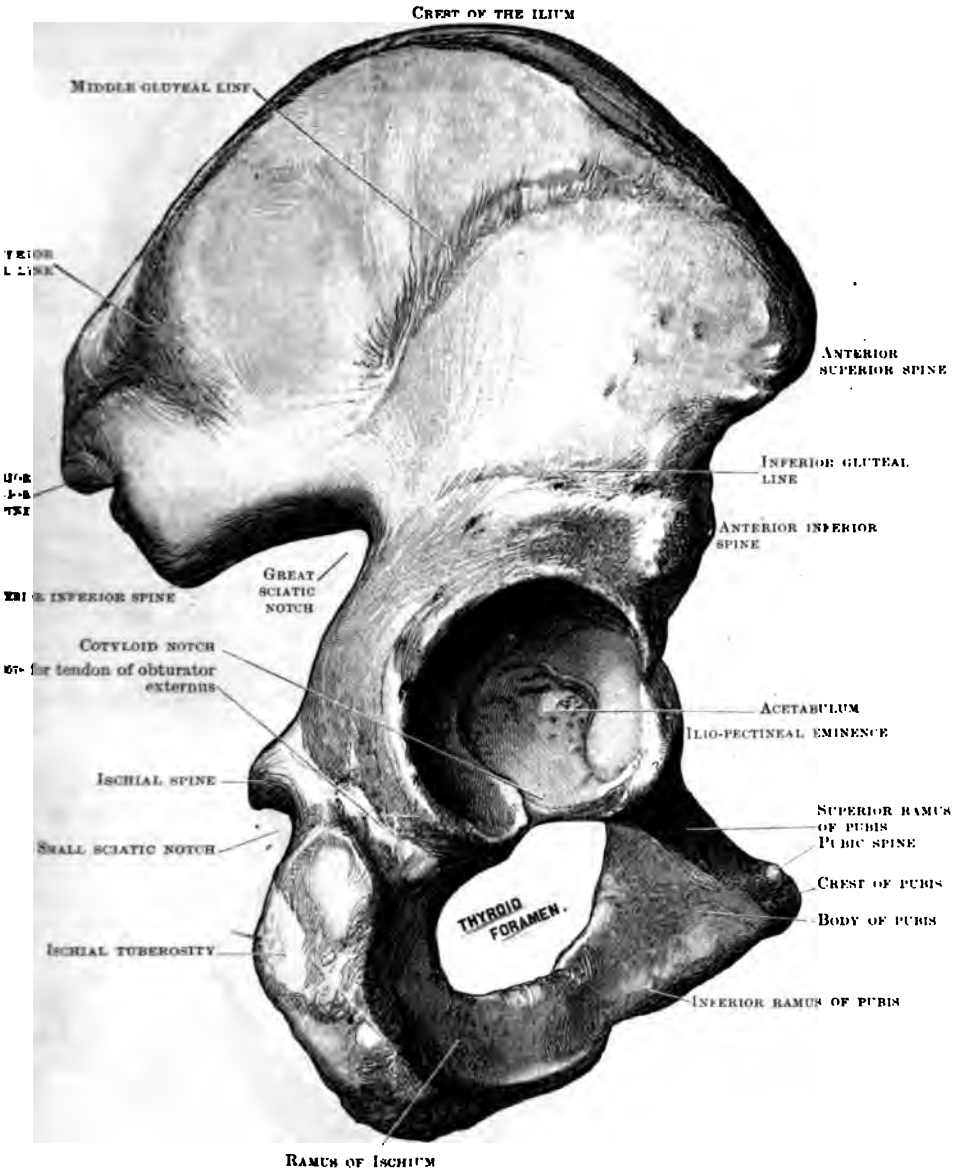


Fig. 163.—The Right Innominate Bone as seen from the Outer Side.

ided into two parts, viz. a lower acetabular, and an upper gluteal part. The er forms a little less than the upper two-fifths of the acetabular hollow, and is arated from the larger gluteal surface above by the upper prominent margin of e articular cavity. The **gluteal surface**, broad and expanded, is concavo-convex m behind forward. It is traversed by **three** rough **curved lines**, well seen in ngly developed bones, but often faint and indistinct in feebly marked specimens. Of these the **inferior curved line** (linea glutæa inferior) curves backwards m a point immediately above the anterior inferior spine towards the ilio-sciatic

notch posteriorly; the bone between this and the acetabular margin is mar
a rough shallow groove, from which the reflected head of the rectus femoris
arises. The **middle curved line** (linea glutæa anterior) commences at the c
the ilium, about one inch and a half behind the anterior superior iliac spi

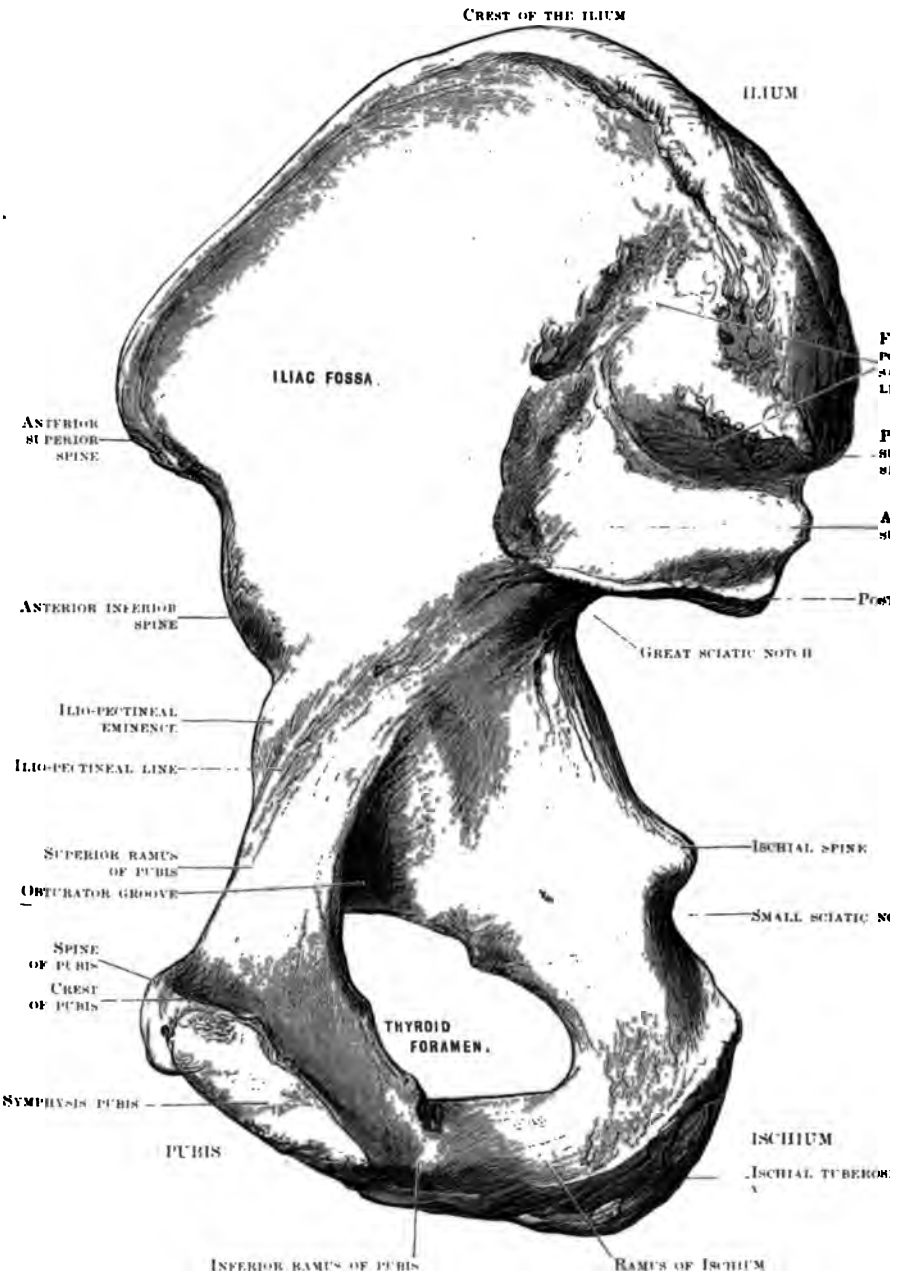


FIG. 164.—THE RIGHT INNOMINATE BONE (Inner Aspect).

sweeps backwards and downwards towards the upper and posterior part of t
sciatic notch. The surface between this line and the preceding furnishes an
sive origin for the gluteus minimus muscle. The **posterior** or **superior curv**
(linea glutæa posterior) leaves the iliac crest about two and a half inches i
of the posterior superior iliac spine, and bends downwards and slightly forw
a direction anterior to the posterior inferior spine. The area between this a
middle curved line is for the origin of the gluteus medius muscle, whilst th

rface immediately above and behind it is for some of the fibres of origin of the luteus maximus muscle.

The *inner surface* of the ilium is divided into two areas which present very haracteristic differences. The **posterior** or **sacral part**, which is rough, displays in ont a somewhat smooth, auricular surface (facies auricularis) which is cartilage-ated in the recent condition, and articulates with the sacrum. Above and behind his there is an elevated irregular area, the **tuberosity** (tuberositas iliaca), which is ere and there deeply pitted for the attachment of the strong posterior sacro-iliac gaments. Above this the bone becomes confluent with the inner lip of the iliac rest, and here it affords an origin to the erector spinæ and multifidus spinæ uscles. The anterior part of the inner aspect of the bone is smooth and exten-ive; it is subdivided by an oblique ridge, called the **ilio-pectineal line** (linea cuata), which passes forwards and downwards from the most prominent point of he auricular surface towards the inner side of the ilio-pectineal eminence which placed just above and in front of the acetabulum, and marks the fusion of the ium with the pubis. Above this the bone forms the shallow **iliac fossa** (fossa iaca), from the floor of which the iliacus muscle arises, whilst leading from the ssa, below and in front, there is a shallow furrow, passing over the superior etabular margin, between the anterior inferior iliac spine on the outer side and e ilio-pectineal eminence internally, for the lodgment of the tendinous and fleshy rt of the **ilio-psoas** muscle. If held up to the light the floor of the deepest part f the iliac fossa will be seen to be formed of but a thin layer of bone. A nutrient ramen of large size is seen piercing the bone towards the hinder part of the ssa. Below and behind the ilio-pectineal line the inner surface of the ilium rms a small portion of the wall of the true pelvis; the bone here is smooth, and nded off posteriorly into the ilio-sciatic notch, where it becomes confluent with e inner aspect of the ischium. Just anterior to the ilio-sciatic notch there are sually the openings of one or two large vascular foramina. From this surface ise some of the posterior fibres of the obturator internus muscle.

The **ischium** constitutes the lower and hinder part of the innominate bone. periorly its **body** (corpus) forms somewhat more than the inferior two-fifths of e acetabulum together with the bone supporting it behind and within. Below is, the **superior ramus** passes downwards and backwards as a stout three-sided ece of bone, from the inferior extremity of which a compressed bar of bone, called e **inferior ramus**, extends forwards at an acute angle. This latter unites in front nd above with the descending ramus of the pubis, and encloses the aperture called e obturator foramen.

Superiorly, and on the outer aspect of the ischium, the acetabular surface is parated from the bone below by a sharp and prominent margin, which is, owever, deficient in front, where it corresponds to the **cotyloid notch** (incisura cetabuli), leading into the articular hollow; the floor of this notch is entirely rmed by the ischium. Below the prominent acetabular margin there is a well-arked groove in which the tendon of the obturator externus lies. Beneath this e antero-external surface of the superior and inferior rami furnish surfaces for the tachments of the obturator externus, quadratus femoris, and adductor magnus uscles. The postero-external surface of the ischium forms the convex surface on e back of the acetabulum. The inner border of this is sharp and well defined, nd is confluent above with the border of the ilium, which sweeps round the great o-sciatic notch. From this border, on a level with the lower edge of the cetabulum, there springs a pointed process, the **spine** (spina ischiadica), to which is tached the lesser sacro-sciatic ligament and the superior gemellus muscle. Inferior this, the postero-external surface narrows rapidly, its inner border just below the ine being hollowed out to form the **small sciatic notch** (incisura ischiadica minor). he lower part of this surface and the angle formed by the two rami are capped by an irregularly rough pyriform mass called the **tuberosity** (tuber ischii). This is ivided by an oblique ridge into two areas, the upper and outer for the tendon of igin of the semimembranosus muscle, the lower and inner for the conjoined heads f the biceps and semitendinosus muscles. Its prominent inner lip serves for the ttachment of the great sacro-sciatic ligament, whilst its outer edge furnishes an

notch posteriorly; the bone between this and the acetabular margin is ma
a rough shallow groove, from which the reflected head of the rectus femoris
arises. The **middle curved line** (linea glutæa anterior) commences at the
the ilium, about one inch and a half behind the anterior superior iliac spi

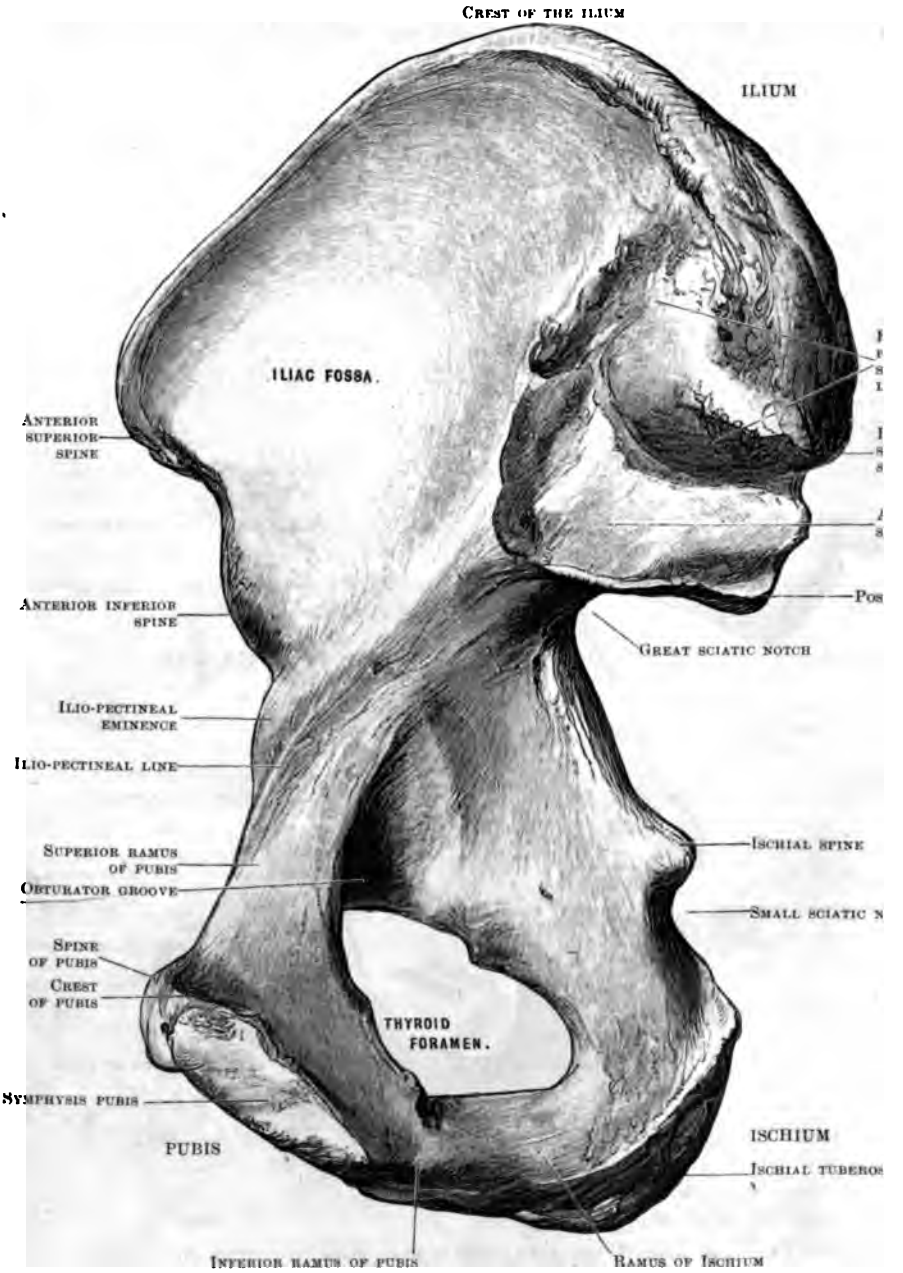


FIG. 164.—THE RIGHT INNOMINATE BONE (Inner Aspect).

sweeps backwards and downwards towards the upper and posterior part of
sciatic notch. The surface between this line and the preceding furnishes a
sive origin for the gluteus minimus muscle. The **posterior** or **superior cur**
(linea glutæa posterior) leaves the iliac crest about two and a half inches
of the posterior superior iliac spine, and bends downwards and slightly forv
a direction anterior to the posterior inferior spine. The area between this
middle curved line is for the origin of the gluteus medius muscle, whilst th

surface immediately above and behind it is for some of the fibres of origin of the gluteus maximus muscle.

The *inner surface* of the ilium is divided into two areas which present very characteristic differences. The **posterior** or **sacral part**, which is rough, displays in front a somewhat smooth, auricular surface (facies auricularis) which is cartilage-coated in the recent condition, and articulates with the sacrum. Above and behind this there is an elevated irregular area, the **tuberosity** (tuberositas iliaca), which is here and there deeply pitted for the attachment of the strong posterior sacro-iliac ligaments. Above this the bone becomes confluent with the inner lip of the iliac crest, and here it affords an origin to the erector spinæ and multifidus spinæ muscles. The anterior part of the inner aspect of the bone is smooth and extensive; it is subdivided by an oblique ridge, called the **ilio-pectineal line** (linea arcuata), which passes forwards and downwards from the most prominent point of the auricular surface towards the inner side of the ilio-pectineal eminence which is placed just above and in front of the acetabulum, and marks the fusion of the ilium with the pubis. Above this the bone forms the shallow **iliac fossa** (fossa iliaca), from the floor of which the iliacus muscle arises, whilst leading from the fossa, below and in front, there is a shallow furrow, passing over the superior acetabular margin, between the anterior inferior iliac spine on the outer side and the ilio-pectineal eminence internally, for the lodgment of the tendinous and fleshy part of the ilio-psoas muscle. If held up to the light the floor of the deepest part of the iliac fossa will be seen to be formed of but a thin layer of bone. A nutrient foramen of large size is seen piercing the bone towards the hinder part of the fossa. Below and behind the ilio-pectineal line the inner surface of the ilium forms a small portion of the wall of the true pelvis; the bone here is smooth, and rounded off posteriorly into the ilio-sciatic notch, where it becomes confluent with the inner aspect of the ischium. Just anterior to the ilio-sciatic notch there are usually the openings of one or two large vascular foramina. From this surface arise some of the posterior fibres of the obturator internus muscle.

The **ischium** constitutes the lower and hinder part of the innominate bone. Superiorly its **body** (corpus) forms somewhat more than the inferior two-fifths of the acetabulum together with the bone supporting it behind and within. Below this, the **superior ramus** passes downwards and backwards as a stout three-sided piece of bone, from the inferior extremity of which a compressed bar of bone, called the **inferior ramus**, extends forwards at an acute angle. This latter unites in front and above with the descending ramus of the pubis, and encloses the aperture called the obturator foramen.

Superiorly, and on the outer aspect of the ischium, the acetabular surface is separated from the bone below by a sharp and prominent margin, which is, however, deficient in front, where it corresponds to the **cotyloid notch** (incisura acetabuli) leading into the articular hollow; the floor of this notch is entirely formed by the ischium. Below the prominent acetabular margin there is a well-marked groove in which the tendon of the obturator externus lies. Beneath this the antero-external surface of the superior and inferior rami furnish surfaces for the attachments of the obturator externus, quadratus femoris, and adductor magnus muscles. The postero-external surface of the ischium forms the convex surface on the back of the acetabulum. The inner border of this is sharp and well defined, and is confluent above with the border of the ilium, which sweeps round the great or ilio-sciatic notch. From this border, on a level with the lower edge of the acetabulum, there springs a pointed process, the **spine** (spina ischiadica), to which is attached the lesser sacro-sciatic ligament and the superior gemellus muscle. Inferior to this, the postero-external surface narrows rapidly, its inner border just below the spine being hollowed out to form the **small sciatic notch** (incisura ischiadica minor). The lower part of this surface and the angle formed by the two rami are capped by an irregularly rough pyriform mass called the **tuberosity** (tuber ischii). This is divided by an oblique ridge into two areas, the upper and outer for the tendon of origin of the semimembranosus muscle, the lower and inner for the conjoined heads of the biceps and semitendinosus muscles. Its prominent inner lip serves for the attachment of the great *sacro-sciatic ligament*, whilst its outer edge furnishes an

origin for the quadratus femoris muscle; in front and below, the adductor magnus muscle is attached to it.

The *inner surface* of the body and superior ramus of the ischium form in part the wall of the true pelvis. Smooth and slightly concave from before backwards and nearly plane from above downwards, it is widest opposite the level of the ischial spine. Below this, its posterior edge is rounded and forms a groove leading to the small sciatic notch, along and over which the tendon of the obturator internus passes. To part of this surface the fibres of the obturator internus are attached, whilst the inner aspect of the spine supplies points of origin for the coccygeus and levator ani muscles, as well as furnishing an attachment to the "white line" of the pelvic fascia. The inner surface of the inferior ramus of the ischium is smooth, and so rounded that its inferior edge tends to be everted. To this, as well as to its margin, is attached the crus penis, together with the ischio-cavernosus, obturator internus, transversus perinei, and compressor urethræ muscles. In the female, structures in correspondence with these are also found.

The fore-part of the innominate bone is formed by the **pubis**; it is by means of the union of this bone with its fellow of the opposite side that the pelvic girdle is completed in front.

The **pubis** (os pubis) consists of two rami—a **superior, ascending,** or **horizontal** (ramus superior ossis pubis), and an **inferior** or **descending** (ramus inferior ossis pubis). The broad part of the bone formed by the fusion of these two rami is the **body.**

The body is sometimes described as that part of the bone which enters into the formation of the acetabulum, but the English nomenclature has here been followed.

The **body of the pubis** has two surfaces. Of these the *inner* or *posterior* is smooth, and forms the fore-part of the wall of the true pelvis; hereto are attached the levator ani muscle and puboprostatic ligaments. The *anterior* or *external surface* is rougher, and furnishes origins for the gracilis, adductor longus, adductor brevis, and some of the fibres of the obturator externus muscles. The *inner border* is provided with an elongated oval cartilage-covered surface by means of which it is united to its fellow of the opposite side, the joint being called the **symphysis pubis.** The *upper border,* thick and rounded, projects somewhat, so as to overhang the anterior surface. It is called the **crest.** Internally this forms with the inner border or symphysis the **angle,** whilst externally it terminates in a pointed process, the **spine** (tuberculum pubicum). From the crest arise the rectus abdominis and pyramidalis muscles, and to the spine is attached the inner end of Poupart's ligament. Passing upwards and outwards from the outer side of the body towards the acetabulum, of which it forms about the anterior fifth, is the **superior ramus** (ramus superior). This has three surfaces: an antero-superior, an antero-inferior, and an internal or posterior. The *antero-superior surface* is triangular in form. Its apex corresponds to the pubic spine; its anterior inferior border to the **obturator crest** (crista obturatoria), leading from the spine to the upper border of the cotyloid notch; whilst its sharp postero-superior border trends upwards and outwards from the spine, and is continuous with the iliac portion of the ilio-pectineal line just internal to the ilio-pectineal eminence, forming as it passes along the superior ramus the pubic portion of that same line (pecten ossis pubis). On this line, just within the ilio-pectineal eminence, there is often a short, sharp crest which marks the insertion of the psoas parvus. The base of the triangle corresponds to the ilio-pectineal eminence above and the upper margin of the cotyloid notch below. Slightly hollow from side to side, and convex from before backwards, this surface provides an origin for, and is in part overlain by, the pectineus muscle. The *internal* or *posterior surface* of the superior ramus is smooth, concave from side to side, and slightly rounded from above downwards; by its sharp inferior curved border it completes the thyroid foramen, as seen from behind. The *antero-inferior surface* forms the roof of the broad obturator groove (sulcus obturatorius) which passes obliquely downwards and forwards between the lower margin of the antero-superior surface in front and the inferior sharp border of the internal surface behind. The **inferior** or **descending ramus of the pubis** (ramus inferior) passes downwards and outwards from the lower part of the body.

Flattened and compressed, it unites with the inferior ramus of the ischium, and thus encloses the thyroid foramen, whilst in correspondence with its fellow of the opposite side it completes the formation of the pubic arch. *Anteriorly* it furnishes origins for the gracilis, adductor brevis, and adductor magnus muscles, as well as some of the fibres of the obturator externus muscle. Its *inner surface* is smooth, whilst its lower border, rounded or more or less everted, has attached to it the fore-part of the crus penis and the subpubic ligament.

The **acetabulum** or **cotyloid cavity** is the nearly circular hollow in which the head of the thigh bone fits. As has been already stated, it is formed by the fusion of the ilium and ischium and pubis in the following proportions: the ilium a little less than two-fifths, the ischium somewhat more than two-fifths, the pubis constituting the remaining one-fifth. It is so placed as to be directed downwards, outwards, and forwards, and is surrounded by a prominent margin, to which the capsule and cotyloid ligament of the hip-joint are attached. Opposite the obturator foramen this margin is interrupted by the **cotyloid notch** (incisura acetabuli); immediately external to the ilio-pectineal eminence the margin is slightly hollowed, whilst occasionally there is a feeble notching of the border above and behind. These irregularities in the outline of the margin correspond to the lines of fusion of the ilium and pubis, and the ilium and ischium respectively. The floor of the acetabulum is furnished with a horseshoe-shaped articular surface, which lines the circumference of the hollow, except in front, where it is interrupted by the cotyloid notch. It is broad above; narrower in front and below. Within this articular surface there is a more or less circular rough area (fossa acetabuli) continuous in front and below with the floor of the cotyloid notch. This, somewhat depressed below the surface of the articular area, lodges a quantity of fat, and provides accommodation for the interarticular ligament of the joint. As may be seen by holding the bone up to the light, the floor of this part of the acetabulum is not usually of great thickness. The major part of the non-articular area is formed by the ischium, which also forms the floor of the cotyloid notch.

The **thyroid** or **obturator foramen** (foramen obturatum) lies in front of, below, and internal to the acetabulum. The margins of this opening, which are formed in front and above by the pubis, and behind and below by the ischium, are sharp and thin, except above, where the under surface of the superior ramus of the pubis is channelled by the obturator groove. Below, and on either side of this groove, two tubercles can usually be seen. The one, situated on the edge of the ischium, just in front of the cotyloid notch, is named the **posterior obturator tubercle** (tuberculum obturatorium posterius); the other, placed on the lower border of the inner surface of the superior ramus of the pubis, is called the **anterior obturator tubercle** (tuberculum obturatorium anterius). Between these two tubercles there passes a ligamentous band, which converts the groove into a canal along which the obturator vessels and nerve pass. Elsewhere in the fresh condition the obturator or thyroid membrane stretches across the opening from margin to margin. The form of the foramen varies much, being oval in some specimens, in others more nearly triangular; its relative width in the female is greater than the male.

Nutrient foramina for the ilium are seen on the floor of the iliac fossa, just in front of the sacro-auricular surface; on the pelvic aspect of the bone, close to the great sciatic notch; and on the gluteal surface externally, near the centre of the middle curved line. For the ischium, on its pelvic surface, and also externally on the groove below the acetabulum. For the pubis, on the surface of the body, and deeply also from the acetabular fossa.

Connexions.—The innominate bone articulates with the sacrum behind, with the femur to the outer side and below, and with its fellow of the opposite side internally and in front. Each of its three parts comes into direct relation with the surface. Above, the iliac crest assists in forming the iliac furrow, which serves to separate the region of the flank from that of the buttock. In front, the anterior superior iliac spine forms a definite landmark; whilst behind, the posterior superior iliac spines will be found to correspond with dimples situated on either side of the middle line of the root of the back. The symphysis, the crest, and spine of the pubis can all be distinguished in front, though overlain by a considerable quantity of fat, whilst the position of the tuberosities of the ischia, when uncovered by the great gluteal muscles in the flexed position of the thigh, can readily be ascertained. In the perineal region the outline of the pubic and ischial rami *can easily be determined* by digital examination.

Architecture.—As a flat bone the os innominatum consists of spongy tissue between two compact external layers. These latter vary much in thickness, being exceptionally stout along the ilio-pectinal line and the floor of the iliac fossa immediately above it. The gluteal aspect of the ilium is also formed by a layer of considerable thickness. The spongy tissue is loose and cellular in the thick part of the ilium and in the body of the ischium; absent where the floor of the iliac fossa is formed by the coalescence of the thin dense confining layers; fine grained and more compact in the tuberosity of the ischium, the iliac crest, and the floor of the acetabulum, in which latter situation it is striated by fibres which are directed radially to the surface of that hollow, these again being crossed at right angles by others which are arranged circumferentially. This spongy tissue forms a more compact layer over the surface of the upper and back portion of the acetabular articular area. The bottom of the floor of the acetabulum varies in thickness; in most cases it is thin, and in exceptional instances the bone is here deficient. The same condition has been met with in the iliac fossa, where absorption of the thin bony plate has taken place.

Variations.—Some of the anomalies met with in the haunch bone are due to ossification of the ligaments connected with it; in other cases they depend on errors of development. Failure of union between the pubic and ischial rami has also been recorded. Cases have occurred where the obturator groove has been bridged across by bone, and one case is noted of absence of the cotyloid notch on the acetabular margin. In rare cases the os acetabuli (see Ossification) remains as a separate bone.

Ossification commences in the ilium about the ninth week of intrauterine life; about the fourth month a centre appears below the acetabulum for the ischium, the pubis being developed from a centre which appears in front of the acetabulum about the fifth or sixth month. At birth the form of the ilium is well defined; the body and part of the tuberosity of the ischium are ossified, as well as the horizontal ramus and part of the body of the pubis. All three parts enter into the formation of the sides of the acetabulum, and by the third year have converged to form the bottom of that hollow, being separated from each other by a triradiate piece of cartilage, in which, about the twelfth year, independent ossific centres make their appearance, which may or may not become fused with the adjacent bones. In the latter case they unite to form an independent ossicle, the os acetabuli, which subsequently fuses with and forms the acetabular part of the pubis. By the age of sixteen the ossification of the acetabulum is usually completed, whilst the rami of the ischium and pubis commonly unite about the tenth year. Secondary centres, six in number, make their appearance about the age of puberty, and are found in the following situations: one for the anterior inferior iliac spine, one for the iliac crest and the anterior and posterior superior iliac spines, a scale-like epiphysis over the tuberosity of the ischium, a separate epiphysis for the spine of the ischium, (?) a point for the spine and another for the angle of the pubis. Fusion between these and the primary centres is usually complete between the twenty-second and twenty-fifth years.

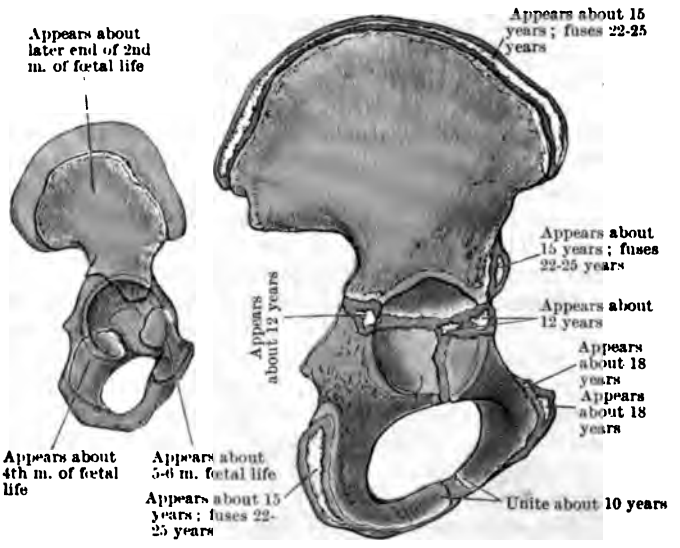

Appears about later end of 2nd m. of fœtal life
Appears about 15 years; fuses 22-25 years
Appears about 15 years; fuses 22-25 years
Appears about 12 years
Appears about 12 years
Appears about 18 years
Appears about 18 years
Appears about 4th m. of fœtal life
Appears about 5-6 m. fœtal life
Appears about 15 years; fuses 22-25 years
Unite about 10 years
At Birth.
About 12 or 13 years.

FIG. 165.—OSSIFICATION OF THE INNOMINATE BONE.

Parsons (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxxvii. p. 315) regards the ischial epiphysis as the homologue of the hypo-ischium in reptiles, and suggests that the epiphysis over the angle of the pubis may represent the epipubic bone of marsupials.

THE PELVIS.

The **pelvis** is formed by the union of the innominate bones with each other in front, and with the sacrum behind. In man the dwarfed caudal vertebræ

(coccygeal) are curved forwards and so encroach upon the limits of the pelvic cavity inferiorly. The pelvis is divided into two parts by the ilio-pectineal lines, which curve forwards from the upper part of the lateral masses of the sacrum behind, to the roots of the spines of the pubes in front. The part above is called the **false pelvis** (pelvis major), and serves by the expanded iliac fossæ to support the

FIG. 166.—MALE PELVIS AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

abdominal contents; the part below, the **true pelvis** (pelvis minor) contains the pelvic viscera, and in the female forms the bony canal through which, at full term, the fœtus is expelled.

The **true pelvis** is bounded in front by the symphysis pubis in the middle line, and by the body and rami of the pubis on either side, laterally by the smooth inner surfaces of the ischia and ischial rami, together with a small part of the ilium

FIG. 167.—FEMALE PELVIS AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

below the iliac portion of the ilio-pectineal line. Springing from the posterior margin of the ischium are the inturned ischial spines. Behind, the broad curved anterior surface of the sacrum, and below it, the small and irregular coccyx, form its posterior wall. Between the sides of the sacrum behind, and the ischium and ilium in front and above, *there is a wide interval*, called the **sacro-sciatic notch**,

which is, however, bridged across in the recent condition by the great and small sacro-sciatic ligaments, which thus convert it into two foramina, the larger above the spine of the ischium—the great sacro-sciatic foramen, the lower and smaller below the spine, called the small sacro-sciatic foramen.

The **inlet** (apertura pelvis superior) of the pelvis is bounded in front by the symphysis pubis, with the body of the pubis on either side; laterally by the ilio-pectineal lines; and behind by the sacral prominence. The circumference of this aperture is often called the **brim of the pelvis**; in the male its shape is cordate, in the female more oval. The *antero-posterior* or *conjugate diameter* is measured from the sacro-vertebral angle to the symphysis pubis; the *oblique diameter* from the sacro-iliac joint of one side to the ilio-pectineal eminence of the other; whilst the *transverse diameter* is taken across the point of greatest width.

The **outlet** (apertura pelvis inferior) is bounded anteriorly by the **pubic arch** (arcus pubis), formed in front and above by the bodies of the pubis, with the symphysis between them, and the inferior pubic rami below and on either side. These latter are continuous with the ischial rami which pass backwards and outwards to the ischial tuberosities, which are placed on either side of this aperture. In the middle line and behind, the tip of the coccyx projects forward, and in the recent condition the interval between this and the ischial tuberosities is bridged across by the great sacro-sciatic ligament, the inferior edge of which necessarily assists in determining the shape of the outlet.

As the anterior wall of the cavity, formed by the symphysis pubis, measures from 1½ to 2 inches, whilst the posterior wall, made up of the sacrum and coccyx, is from 5 to 6 inches in length, it follows that the planes of the inlet and outlet are not parallel, but placed at an angle to each other. The term **axis of the pelvis** is given to lines drawn at right angles to the centre of these planes. Thus, with the pelvis in its true position, when the figure is erect, the axis of the inlet corresponds to a line drawn downwards and backwards from the umbilicus towards the tip of the coccyx below, whilst the axis of the outlet is directed downwards and slightly backwards, or downwards and a little forwards, varying according to the length of the coccyx. Between these two planes the axis of the cavity, as it passes through planes of varying degrees of obliquity, describes a curve repeating pretty closely the curve of the sacrum and coccyx.

Position of the Pelvis.—The position of the pelvis in the living when the figure is erect may be approximately represented by placing it so that the anterior superior iliac spines and the symphysis pubis lie in the same vertical plane. Under these conditions the plane of the inlet is oblique, and forms with a horizontal line an angle of from 50° to 60°. The position of the pelvis depends upon the length of the ilio-femoral ligaments of the hip-joint, being more oblique when these are short, as usually happens in women in whom the anterior superior iliac spines tend to lie in a plane slightly in advance of that occupied by the symphysis pubis. In cases where the ilio-femoral ligament is long, a greater amount of extension of the hip-joint is permitted, and this leads to a lessening of the obliquity of the pelvis. This condition, which is more typical of men, results in the anterior superior iliac spines lying in a plane slightly posterior to the plane of the symphysis, whilst the angle formed by the plane of the inlet and the horizontal is thereby reduced. Bearing in mind the oblique position of the pelvis, it will now be seen that the front of the sacrum is directed downwards more than forwards, and that the sacral promontory is raised as much as from 3½ to 4 inches above the upper border of the symphysis pubis, lying higher than the level of a line connecting the two anterior superior iliac spines. From the manner in which the sacrum articulates with the ilia, it will be noticed that the weight of the trunk is transmitted downwards through the thickest and strongest part of the bone (see Architecture) to the upper part of the acetabula, where these rest on the heads of the femora.

Sexual Differences.—The female pelvis is lighter in its construction than that of the male; its surfaces are smoother, and the indications of muscular attachments less marked. Its height is less and the splay of its walls not so pronounced as in the male, so that the female pelvis has been well described as a short segment of a long cone as contrasted with the male pelvis, which is a long segment of a short cone. The cavity of the true pelvis in the female is more roomy, and the ischial spines not so much inturned. The pubic arch is wide and rounded, and will usually admit a right-angled-set square

d within, so that the summit touches the under surface of the symphysis pubis, ides lie in contact with the ischial rami. In the male the arch is narrow and ming an angle of from 65° to 70°. The sacro-sciatic notch in the female is allow. The distance from the posterior edge of the body of the ischium to the ferior iliac spine is longer, measuring on an average 50 mm. (2 inches) in the ontrasted with 40 mm. (1⅝ inches) in the male.

t in the female is large and oval or reniform, as compared with the cribbed and l aperture in the male. The sacro-vertebral angle is more pronounced in the the obliquity of the inlet greater. The sacrum is shorter and wider. The perior iliac spines lie wider apart; the pubic crests are longer; and the pubic parated by a greater interval than in man. The outlet is larger; the tubero-ischia are farther apart; and the coccyx does not project forward so much. f the sacrum is liable to very great individual variation. As a rule the curve orm in the male, whilst in the female it tends to be flatter above and more below. There is a greater proportionate width between the acetabular he female than in the male. Of much importance from the standpoint of the are the various diameters of the true pelvis. In regard to this it is worthy the plane of "greatest pelvic expansion" extends from the union between the third sacral vertebræ behind, to the middle of the symphysis pubis in front, oundaries on either side corresponding with the mid-point of the inner surface bulum; whilst the plane of "least pelvic diameter" lies somewhat lower, and y lines passing through the sacro-coccygeal articulation, the ischial spines, er third of the symphysis pubis (Norris). Subjoined is a table showing the erage measurements in the two sexes:—

	Males.	Females.
listance between the iliac crests	11⅛ in., or 282 mm.	10¾ in., or 273 mm.
etween the anterior superior iliac	9½ in., or 240 mm.	9¾ in., or 250 mm.
etween the last lumbar spine and t of the symphysis pubis	7 in., or 176 mm.	7⅛ in., or 180 mm.

True Pelvis.

	Males.		Females.		
			Cavity.		
	Inlet.	Outlet.	Inlet.	Greatest.	Least.	Outlet.
erior (conju-	4 in., or 101 mm.	3¾ in., or 95 mm.	4⅜ in., or 110 mm.	5 in., or 127 mm.	4⅜ in., or 110 mm.	4½ in., or 115 mm.
meter	4¾ in., or 120 mm.	3½ in., or 88 mm.	5 in., or 125 mm.	...	...	4½ in., or 115 mm.
diameter	5 in., or 127 mm.	3½ in., or 88 mm.	5¼ in., or 135 mm.	4⅞ in., or 125 mm.	4⅜ in., or 110 mm.	4⅜ in., or 110 mm.

of the Pelvis.—From the close association of the pelvic girdle with the lower limb its growth takes place concurrently with the development of that member. At er limbs measure but a fourth of the entire body length; consequently at that time compared with the head and trunk, is relatively small. At this period of life the th sexes is in greater part an abdominal organ, whilst in the female the uterus has into the true pelvic cavity, and the ovaries and Fallopian tubes rest in the iliac sacro-vertebral angle, though readily recognised, is as yet but faintly marked. ith the remarkable growth of the lower limbs and the assumption of the erect n the child begins to walk, striking changes take place in the form and size of the e consist in a greater expansion of the iliac bones necessarily associated with the muscles which control the movements of the hip, together with a marked increase ertebral angle due to the development of a forward lumbar curve; at the same time, f the trunk being thrown on the sacrum causes the elements of that bone to sink to between the innominate bones. The cavity of the true pelvis increases in size y, and the viscera afore-mentioned now begin to sink down and have assumed a in the pelvis by the *fifth or sixth year*. The extension of the thighs in the

upright position necessarily brings about a more pronounced pelvic obliquity, whilst the st and thickness of the ilium over the upper part of the acetabulum is much increased to wit the pressure to which it is obviously sul Coincident with this is the gradual develo of the iliac portion of the ilio-pectinea which serves in the adult to separate s the false from the true pelvis. This part bone is remarkably strong, as has been (see Architecture), and serves to transm body weight from the sacrum to the thigl The sexual differences of the pelvis, so they refer to the general configuration part of the skeleton, are as pronounced third or fourth month of fœtal life as th in the adult (Fehling, *Ztschr. f. Gebur Gynaek.* Bd. ix. and x.; A. Thomson, *Anat. and Physiol.* vol. xxxiii. p. 359). rougher appearance of the male type related with the more powerful muscul velopment.

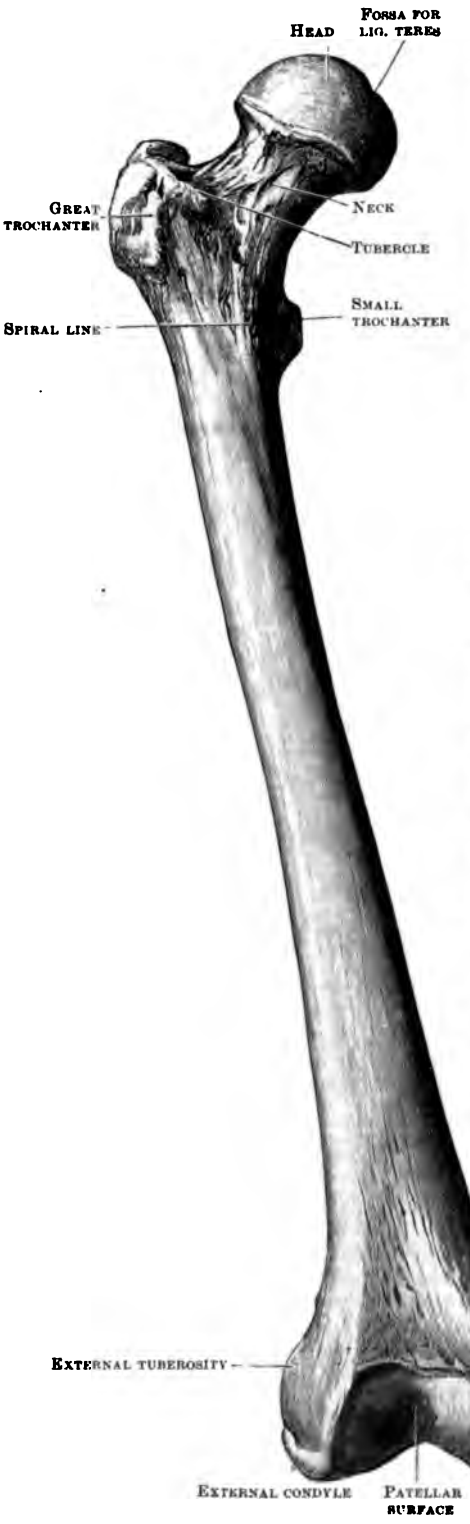


Fig. 168.—Right Femur as seen from the Front.

The Femur.

The **femur** or thigh bone is rem able for its length, being the longest in the body. Superiorly the femor separated by the width of the p Inferiorly they articulate with the and patellæ. In the military pos of attention, with the knees close toge the shafts of the thigh bones occu oblique position. For descriptive pur the bone is divided into an uppe tremity, comprising the **head**, **neck**, two **trochanters**; a **shaft**; and a **extremity**, forming the expansions k as the **condyles**.

The **head** (caput femoris) is the l spherical articular surface which, coated with cartilage, fits into the a bular hollow. Its pole is directed up and inwards and slightly forward little below the summit, and us somewhat behind it, is a hollow ov (fovea capitis femoris) for the attach of the ligamentum teres. The cir ference of the head forms a lip w wavy outline, more prominent abov behind than in front. The head is ported by a stout compressed bar of the **neck** (collum oris), which forms the upper end of shaft an angle of a 125 degrees, and i rected upwards, inw and a little forw Its vertical width ceeds its antero- terior thickness. stricted about its mi it expands internal support the head, whilst externally, where it joins the shaft, its vertical diame

much increased. Anteriorly it is clearly defined from the shaft by a rough ridge which commences above on a prominence, sometimes called the **tubercle** of the femur, and passes obliquely downwards and inwards. This constitutes the upper part of the **spiral line** (linea inter-trochanterica), and serves for the attachment of the ilio-femoral ligament of the hip-joint. Posteriorly where the neck unites with the shaft, there is a full rounded ridge passing from the trochanter major above to the trochanter minor below; this is the posterior **intertrochanteric line** or **ridge** (crista intertrochanterica). A little above the middle of this ridge there is usually a fulness which serves to indicate the upper limit of attachment of the quadratus femoris muscle, and is called the **tubercle for the quadratus**. Externally the neck is embedded in the inner surface of the trochanter major, by which, at its upper and back part, it is to some extent overhung. Here is situated the **digital fossa** (fossa trochanterica), into which the tendon of the obturator externus is inserted. Passing nearly horizontally across the back of the neck there is a faint groove leading into this depression; in this the tendon of the obturator externus muscle lies. Inferiorly the neck becomes confluent with the trochanter minor behind, and is continuous with the inner surface of the shaft in front. The neck is pierced by many vascular canals, most numerous at the upper and back part. Some are directed upwards towards the head, whilst others pass in the direction of the trochanter major.

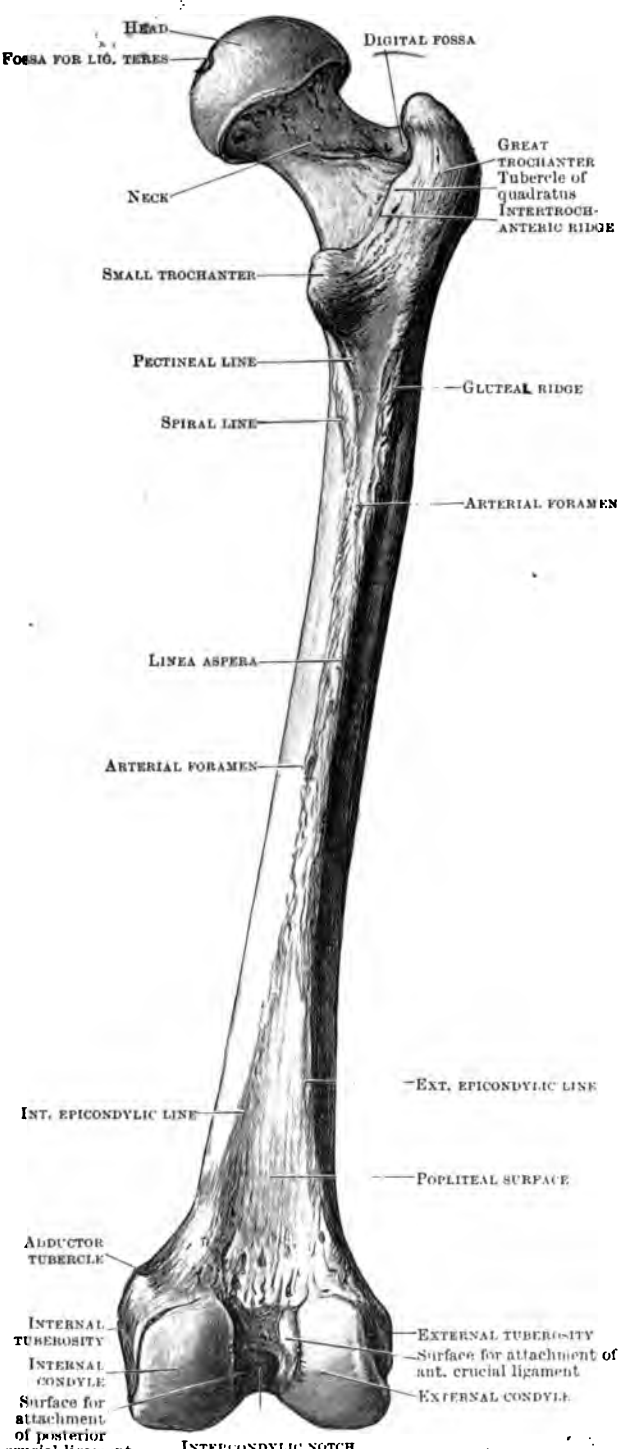


Fig. 169.—Right Femur as seen from Behind.

The **trochanter major** is a large quadrangular process which caps the upper and outer part of the shaft, and overhangs the root of the neck above and behind. Its *outer surface*, of rounded irregular form, slopes upwards

and inwards, and is separated from the external surface of the shaft below by a more or less horizontal ridge. Crossing it obliquely from the posterior superior to the anterior inferior angle is a rough line which serves for the insertion of the gluteus medius muscle; above and below this the surface of the bone is smoother and is overlain by bursæ. The *anterior surface*, somewhat oblong in shape, and inclined obliquely from below upwards and inwards, is elevated from the general aspect of the shaft below, from which it is separated in front by an oblique line leading upwards and inwards to the tubercle at the upper end of the superior part of the spiral line. This surface serves for the insertion of the gluteus minimus. The *superior border* is curved and elevated; into it are inserted the tendons of the obturator internus and gemelli muscles within and in front, and the pyriformis muscle above and behind. The *posterior border* is thick and rounded, and forms the upper part of the posterior intertrochanteric ridge. The angle formed by the superior and posterior borders is sharp and pointed, and forms the tip of the trochanter overhanging the digital fossa, which lies immediately below and within its inner surface.

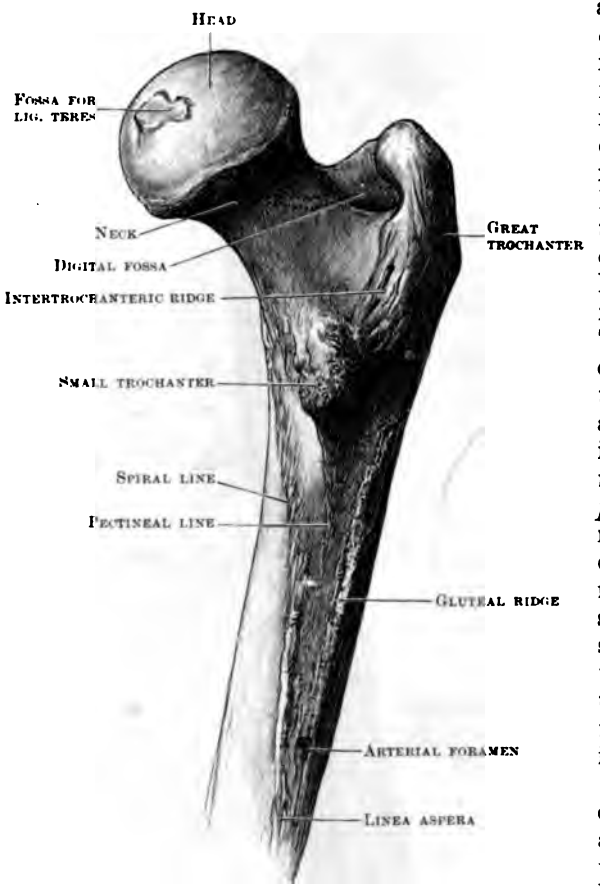


Fig. 170.—Back View of Upper End of Right Femur.

The **trochanter minor** is an elevated pyramidal process situated at the back of the inner and upper part of the shaft where that becomes continuous with the lower and posterior part of the neck. Confluent above with the posterior intertrochanteric ridge, it gradually fades away into the back of the shaft below. The combined tendon of the ilio-psoas is inserted into this process and the bone immediately below it.

The **shaft** (corpus femoris), which is characterised by its great length, is cylindrical in form. As viewed from the front, it is straight or but slightly curved; as seen in profile, it is bent forwards, the curve being most pronounced in its upper part. The shaft is thinnest at some little distance above its middle; below this it gradually increases in width to support the condyles inferiorly; its antero-posterior diameter, however, is not much increased below. Its surfaces are generally smooth and rounded, except behind, where, running longitudinally down the centre of its curved posterior aspect, there is a rough-lipped ridge, the **linea aspera** (linea aspera). Most salient towards the middle of the shaft, the linea aspera consists of an inner lip (labium mediale) and an outer lip (labium laterale), with a narrow intervening rough surface. Above, about 2 to 2½ inches from the trochanter minor, the linea aspera is formed by the convergence of three lines. Of these the outer is a rough, somewhat elevated, ridge, which commences above, on the back of the shaft, external to and on a level with the trochanter minor, and becomes continuous below with the outer lip of the linea aspera. This serves for the bony insertion of the gluteus maximus, and is occasionally developed into an outstanding process called the **trochanter tertius**. Internally the inner lip of the linea aspera is confluent above with a line which winds round the shaft upwards and forwards in front of the

chanter minor to become continuous with the rough ridge which serves to define
e neck from the shaft anteriorly (see *ante*). The whole constitutes what is known
the **spiral line**, and extends from the fore and upper part of the trochanter major
ove to the linea aspera below. Intermediate in position between the spiral line
front and internally, and the gluteal ridge externally, there is a third line,
e **pectineal line** (linea pectinea), which passes down from the trochanter minor
d fades away inferiorly into the surface between the two lips of the linea aspera.
to this the pectineus muscle is inserted. About the junction of the middle with
e lower third of the shaft the two lips of the linea aspera separate from one
other, each passing in the direction of the condyle of the corresponding side.
ie lines so formed are called the inner and outer epicondylic lines respectively, and
close between them a smooth triangular area corresponding to the back of the
ver third of the shaft; this, called the **popliteal surface** (planum popliteum), forms
e floor of the upper part of the popliteal space. The continuity of the upper part
the internal epicondylic line is but faintly marked, being interrupted by a wide
d faint groove along which the popliteal artery passes to enter the space of that
me. Below, where the line ends on the upper and inner surface of the internal
ndyle, there is a little spur of bone called the **adductor tubercle**, to which the
ndon of the adductor magnus is attached, and behind which the inner head of
e gastrocnemius muscle takes origin.

The **linea aspera** affords extensive linear attachments to many of the muscles of the thigh.
ie vastus internus arises from the spiral line above and the inner lip of the linea aspera below.
he adductor longus is inserted into the inner lip about the middle third of the length of the shaft.
he adductor magnus is inserted into the intermediate part of the line, extending as high as the
vel of the trochanter minor, where it lies internal to the insertion of the gluteus maximus.
elow, its insertion passes on the internal epicondylic ridge, reaching as low as the adductor
ubercle. The adductor brevis muscle is inserted into the linea aspera above, between the pec-
neus and adductor longus muscles internally and the adductor magnus externally. Below the
sertion of the gluteus maximus the short head of the biceps arises from the outer lip as well as
om the external epicondylic line; in front these also serve for the origin of the vastus externus
uscle.

The canals for the nutrient arteries of the shaft, which have an upward direction, are usually
o in number, and are placed on or near the linea aspera—the upper one about the level of the
nction of the middle and upper third of the bone, the lower some three or four inches below—
ually on the inner side of the shaft, immediately in front of the inner lip of the linea aspera.

The front and lateral aspects of the shaft are covered by, and furnish surfaces
, the origins of the vasti and crureus muscles.

The **lower extremity** of the femur comprises the two **condyles**. These are two
urved processes of bone, each provided with an articular surface, and separated
ind by a deep **intercondylic notch**. United in front, where their combined
icular surfaces form an area on which the patella rests, the two condyles differ
m each other in the following respects: If the shaft of the bone be held vertically,
internal condyle is seen to reach a lower level than the **external**; but, as the
nur lies obliquely in the thigh, the condyles are so placed that their inferior sur-
es lie in the same horizontal plane. Viewed from below, the internal condyle is
n to be the narrower and shorter of the two. The external condyle is broader,
l advances farther forward and higher up on the anterior surface of the shaft.
e **intercondylic notch** (fossa intercondyloidea) reaches forwards as far as a trans-
se line drawn through the centre of the external condyle. Its sides are formed
the inner and outer surfaces of the outer and inner condyles respectively, the
er being more deeply excavated, and displaying an oval surface near its lower
l anterior part for the attachment of the posterior crucial ligament of the knee-
nt. Placed high up, on the posterior part of the inner surface of the external
dyle, there is a corresponding surface for the attachment of the anterior crucial
ament. The floor of the notch, which is pierced by numerous vascular canals,
pes upwards and backwards towards the popliteal surface on the back of the
ft, from which it is separated by a slight ridge (linea intercondyloidea) to which
posterior part of the capsule of the knee-joint is attached.

The cutaneous aspect of each condyle (*i.e.* the outer surface of the external
ndyle and the inner surface of *the internal condyle*) presents an elevated rough

surface, called the **tuberosity** (epicondylus), that of the **internal** (epicondylus medialis) being the more pronounced and outstanding from the line of the shaft; capped above by the adductor tubercle, it affords attachment near its most prominent point to the fibres of the internal lateral ligament of the knee-joint. The **external tuberosity** (epicondylus lateralis), less pronounced and lying more in line with the outer surface of the shaft, is channelled behind by a curved groove, the lower rounded lip of which serves to separate it from the inferior articular surface. This groove ends in front in a pit which is placed just below the most salient point of the tuberosity; hereto is attached the tendon of the popliteus muscle, which overlies the lower lip of the groove in the extended position of the joint, but slips into and occupies the groove when the joint is flexed. Behind the most prominent part of the external tuberosity, and just above the pit for the attachment of the popliteus, the external lateral ligament of the knee-joint is attached, whilst superior to that there is a circumscribed area for the origin of the tendinous part of the outer head of the gastrocnemius muscle.

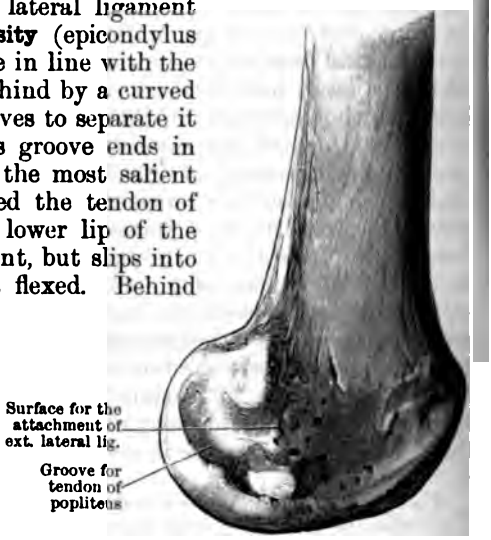


FIG. 171.—LOWER END OF RIGHT FEMUR (Outer Side).

The **articular surface** on the lower extremity is divisible into three parts—that which corresponds to the inferior surface of the shaft and which is formed by the coalescence of the two condyles in front, and those which overlie the under and hinder aspects of each of those processes. The former is separated from the latter by two shallow oblique grooves which traverse the articular surface from before backwards, on either side, in the direction of the anterior part of the intercondylic notch. These furrows are the impressions in which fit the fore-parts of the internal and external semilunar cartilages of the knee-joint respectively, when the knee-joint is extended. The anterior articular area or **trochlea** (facies patellaris) is adapted for articulation with the patella. Convex from above downwards, it displays a broad and shallow central groove, bounded on either side by two slightly convex surfaces. Of the two sides, the external is the wider and more prominent, and rises on the front of the bone to a higher level than the internal. The **condyloid or tibial surfaces** are convex from side to side, and convex from before backwards. Sweeping round the under surface and posterior extremities of the condyles, they describe a spiral curve more open in front than behind. The inner condyloid articular surface is narrower than the outer, and when viewed from below is also seen to describe a curve around a vertical axis. The articular surface of the external condyle is inclined obliquely from before backwards and slightly outwards. The surfaces of the condyles above the articular area posteriorly are confluent superiorly with the popliteal surface of the shaft; from these areas the heads of the gastrocnemius muscles arise. The bone from which the inner head of the muscle springs is often elevated in the form of a tubercle placed on the lower part of the popliteal surface of the shaft, just above the internal condyle. The proportionate length of the femur to the body height is as 1 is to 3·53–3·92.

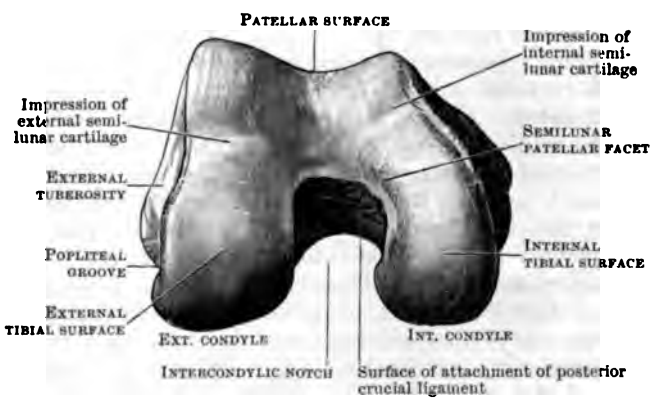


FIG. 172.—LOWER END OF RIGHT FEMUR AS SEEN FROM BELOW.

Arterial Foramina.—Numerous vascular canals are seen in the region of the neck, at the bottom of the digital fossa, on the posterior intercondylic ridge and on the external surface of the great trochanter. The nutrient arteries for the shaft pierce the bone on or near the linea aspera. Both back and front of the lower end of the shaft display the openings of numerous vascular canals, and the floor of the intercondylic notch is also similarly pierced.

Connexions.—The femur articulates with the os innominatum above and the tibia and patella below. The external surface of the great trochanter determines the point of greatest hip width in the male, being covered only by the skin and superficial fascia and the aponeurotic insertion of the gluteus maximus. In the erect position the tip of the trochanter corresponds to the level of the centre of the hip-joint. When the thigh is flexed the trochanter major sinks under cover of the anterior fibres of the gluteus maximus. In women the hip width is usually greatest at some little distance below the trochanter, due to the accumulation of fat in this region. The shaft of the bone is surrounded on all sides by muscles. Its forward curve, however, is accountable to some extent for the fulness of the front of the thigh. The exposed surfaces of the condyles determine to a large extent the form of the knee. In flexion the articular edges can easily be recognised on either side of and below the patella.

Architecture.—The shaft has a medullary cavity which reaches as high as the root of the small trochanter. Inferiorly it extends to within 3½ inches of the lower articular surface. In the upper half the outer compact wall is very thick, but below the middle of the shaft it gradually thins until it reaches the condyles inferiorly, over which it passes as a thin, hardly definable external layer. Above, it is especially thick along the line of the linea aspera, and here the large nutrient canal may be seen passing obliquely upwards in the substance of the dense bone for the space of two inches. In the upper end of the shaft the osseous lamellæ springing from the sides of the medullary cavity arch inwards towards the centre, intersecting each other in a manner comparable to the tracery of a Gothic window. The lower wall of the neck is thick below, near the trochanter minor, but thins rapidly before it reaches the head. From this aspect of the neck there spring a series of oblique lamellæ which pass upwards and inwards, spreading in fan-shaped manner into the under surface of the head. These are intersected above by lamellæ which arch inwards from the outer side of the shaft below the great trochanter, as well as from the under surface of the thin but compact outer shell of the upper surface of the neck, the whole forming a bracket-like arrangement which assists materially in adding to the strength of the neck. Further support is given by the addition of a spur of dense bone which springs from the inner surface of the under side of the neck, just in front of and above the trochanter minor: this is called the **calcar femorale**. From it stout lamellæ having a vertical direction arise. The spongy tissue of the head and great trochanter is finely reticulated, that of the lower part of the neck and upper part of the shaft being more open in its texture. Passing vertically downwards through this tissue there is a vascular canal, the orifice of which opens externally on the floor of the digital fossa.

The spongy tissue of the lower part of the shaft is more delicate and uniform in its arrangement, displaying a more or less parallel striation in a longitudinal direction. Subjacent to the articular surface the tissue is rendered more compact by the addition of lamellæ disposed in curves in harmony with the external aspect of the bone.

Variations.—Absence of the pit on the head of the femur for the attachment of the ligamentum teres has been recorded. This corresponds with the condition met with in the orang. Not infrequently there is an extension of the articular surface of the head on to the fore and upper aspect of the neck; this is a "pressure facet" caused by the contact of the iliac portion of the acetabular margin with the neck of the bone, when the limb is maintained for long periods in the flexed position, as in tailors, and also in those races who habitually squat (Lane, *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxii. p. 606).

The occurrence of a trochanter tertius has been already referred to. Its presence is not confined to individuals of powerful physique, but may occur in those of slender build, so far suggesting that it is not to be regarded merely as an indication of excessive muscular development. The observations of Dixon (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxx. p. 502), who noted the occurrence of a separate epiphysis in three cases in connexion with it, seem to point to its possessing some morphological significance.

Occasionally the gluteal ridge may be replaced by a hollow, the fossa hypotrochanterica, or in some cases the two may co-exist.

The angle of the neck is more open in the child than in the adult, and tends to be less when the femoral length is short and the pelvic width great—conditions which particularly appertain to the female. There is no evidence to show that after growth is completed any alteration takes place in the angle with advancing years (Humphry).

The curvature of the shaft may undergo considerable variations, and the appearance of the posterior surface of the bone may be modified by an absence of the linea aspera, a condition resembling that seen in apes; or by an unusual elevation of the bone which supports the ridge (*femur à pilastre*), produced, as Manouvrier has suggested, by the excessive development of the muscles here attached.

Under the term "*platymeria*," Manouvrier describes an antero-posterior compression of the upper part of the shaft, frequently met with in the femora of prehistoric races.

Ossification.—The shaft begins to ossify early in the second month of fœtal life, and at birth displays enlargements at both ends, which are capped with cartilage. If the inferior cartilaginous end be sliced away, a small ossific nucleus for the inferior epiphysis will usually be seen. This, as a rule, makes its appearance towards the latter end of the ninth month

of fœtal life, and is at service from a medico-legal standpoint in determining the ag fœtus. According to Hartman, it is absent in about 12 per cent of children at ter may appear as early as the eighth month of fœtal life in about 7 per cent. The s extremity, entirely

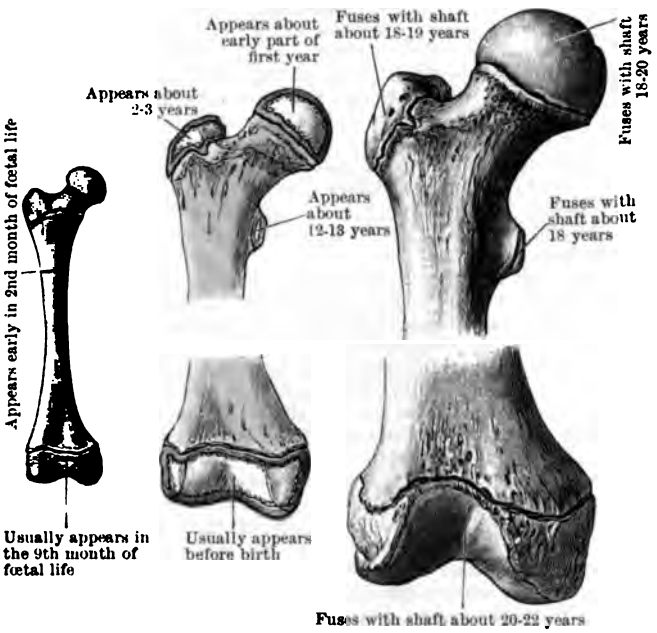

Appears about early part of first year
Fuses with shaft about 18-19 years
Fuses with shaft 18-20 years
Appears about 2-3 years
Appears about 12-13 years
Fuses with shaft about 18 years
Appears early in 2nd month of fœtal life
Usually appears in the 9th month of fœtal life
Usually appears before birth
Fuses with shaft about 20-22 years
At birth.
About 12 years.
About 16 years.

FIG. 173.—OSSIFICATION OF FEMUR.

laginous at birth, co the head, neck, an chanter major. A appears for the head the early part of th year. That for th chanter major beg ossify about the sec third year, whilst th is developed as an extension of the shaft, is, however, not confi the neck alone, but for lower circumference articular head, as n seen in bones up to t of twelve or sixteen that, the separate ep of the head begins t lap it so as to cover tirely when fusion i plete at the age of ei or twenty.

The epiphysis of th trochanter unites wi shaft and neck abou teen or nineteen, whi epiphysis for the trochanter minor, which usually makes its appearance about the or thirteenth year, is usually completely fused with the shaft about the age of ei The epiphysis for the lower end, although the first to ossify, is not completely un the shaft until from about the twentieth to the twenty-second year. It is worthy that the line of fusion of the shaft and inferior epiphysis passes through the ac tubercle, a point which can easily be determined in the living.

THE PATELLA.

The **patella**, the largest of the sesamoid bones, overlies the front of the joint in the tendon of the quadriceps extensor. Of compressed form and son triangular shape, its lower angle projects downwards and forms a peak, called the **apex** (apex patellæ), whilst its upper edge, or **base** (basis patellæ), broad, thick, and sloping forwards and a little downwards, is divided into two areas by a transverse line or groove; the anterior area so defined serves for the attachment of the common tendon of the quadriceps extensor muscle, whilst the posterior, of compressed triangular sh covered by synovial membrane. The *inner* and *outer borders*, of curved c receive the insertions of the vastus internus and externus muscles respective

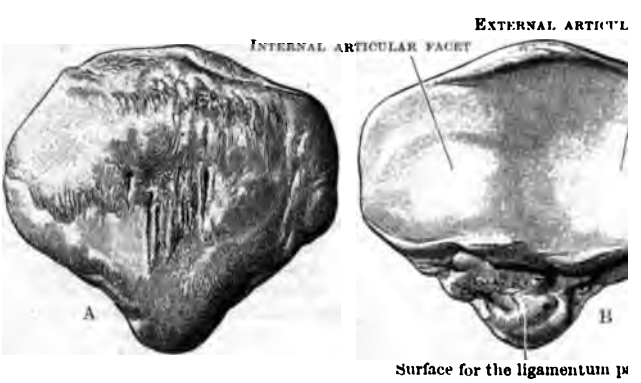


FIG. 174.—RIGHT PATELLA.

A. Anterior surface. B. Posterior surfac

attachment of the vastus internus being more extensive than that of the vastus externus. The *anterior surface* of the bone, slightly convex in both diameters, has a fibrous appearance, due to its longitudinal striation, and is pierced here and there by the openings of vascular canals. The *posterior* or *femoral articular surface* is divided into two unequal parts (of which the external is the wider) by a vertical elevation which glides in the furrow of the trochlear surface of the femur, and in extreme flexion passes to occupy the intercondylic notch. The outer of the two femoral surfaces is slightly concave in both its diameters; the inner, though slightly concave from above downwards, is usually plane, or somewhat convex transversely. Occasionally, in the macerated bone, indications of a third vertical area are to be noted along the inner edge of the internal aspect. This defines the part of the articular surface which rests on the border of the internal condyle in extreme flexion.

Below the femoral articular area the deep surface of the apex is rough and irregular; the greater part of this is covered by synovial membrane, the ligamentum patellæ being attached to its summit and margins, reaching some little distance round the borders on to the anterior aspect of this part of the bone.

Architecture.—The bone consists of a thick dense layer anteriorly, which thins towards the edges on either side and below; above, it corresponds to the area of insertion of the quadriceps. The femoral articular surface is composed of a layer of compact bone, thickest in correspondence with the vertical elevation. Sandwiched between these two layers is a varying thickness of spongy tissue of fairly close grain, the striation of which on cross section runs in parallel lines from back to front; on vertical section the tissue appears to be arranged in lines passing radially from the deep surface of the femoral area to the more extensive anterior dense plate.

Variations.—Cases of congenital absence of the patella have been recorded.

F. C. Kempson (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxxvi.) has recently drawn attention to the condition described as emargination of the patella. In specimens displaying this appearance the margin of the bones is concave from a point about half an inch to the outer side of the middle line, to a point half-way down the outer margin of the bone, here there is usually a pointed spine directed upwards and outwards. The condition appears to be associated with the insertion of the tendon of the vastus externus. G. Joachimstal (*Archiv u. Atlas der normalen und pathologischen Anatomie in typischen Röntgenbildern*, Bd. 8) figures a case in which on both sides the patella was double in an adult, the lower and much the smaller portion was embedded in the ligamentum patellæ.

Ossification.—The patella is laid down in cartilage about the third month of fœtal life. At birth it is cartilaginous, and the tendon of the quadriceps is continuous with the ligamentum patellæ over its anterior surface, and can easily be dissected off. About the third year an ossific centre appears in it and spreads more particularly over its deeper surface. Ossification is usually completed by the age of puberty.

THE TIBIA

The **tibia** is the inner bone of the leg. It is much stouter and stronger than its neighbour the fibula, with which it is united above and below. By its superior expanded extremity it supports the condyles of the femur, while inferiorly it shares in the formation of the ankle-joint, articulating with the upper surface and inner side of the astragalus.

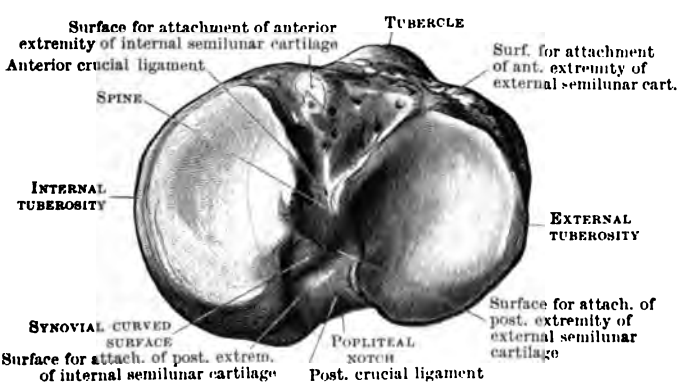

Surface for attachment of anterior extremity of internal semilunar cartilage
Anterior crucial ligament
Spine
Tubercle
Surf. for attachment of ant. extremity of external semilunar cart.
Internal tuberosity
External tuberosity
Synovial curved surface
Surface for attach. of post. extrem. of internal semilunar cartilage
Popliteal notch
Post. crucial ligament
Surface for attach. of post. extremity of external semilunar cartilage

FIG. 175.—UPPER SURFACE OF SUPERIOR EXTREMITY OF RIGHT TIBIA.

The **superior extremity** comprises the **inner** and **outer tuberosities**, the **spine**, and the **tubercle**. Each tuberosity is provided on its upper aspect with an articular surface (facies articularis superior), which supports the corresponding femoral condyle, as well as the

interposed semilunar cartilage. Of these two condylic surfaces the is the larger; of oval shape, its long axis is placed antero-posteriorly. Sli

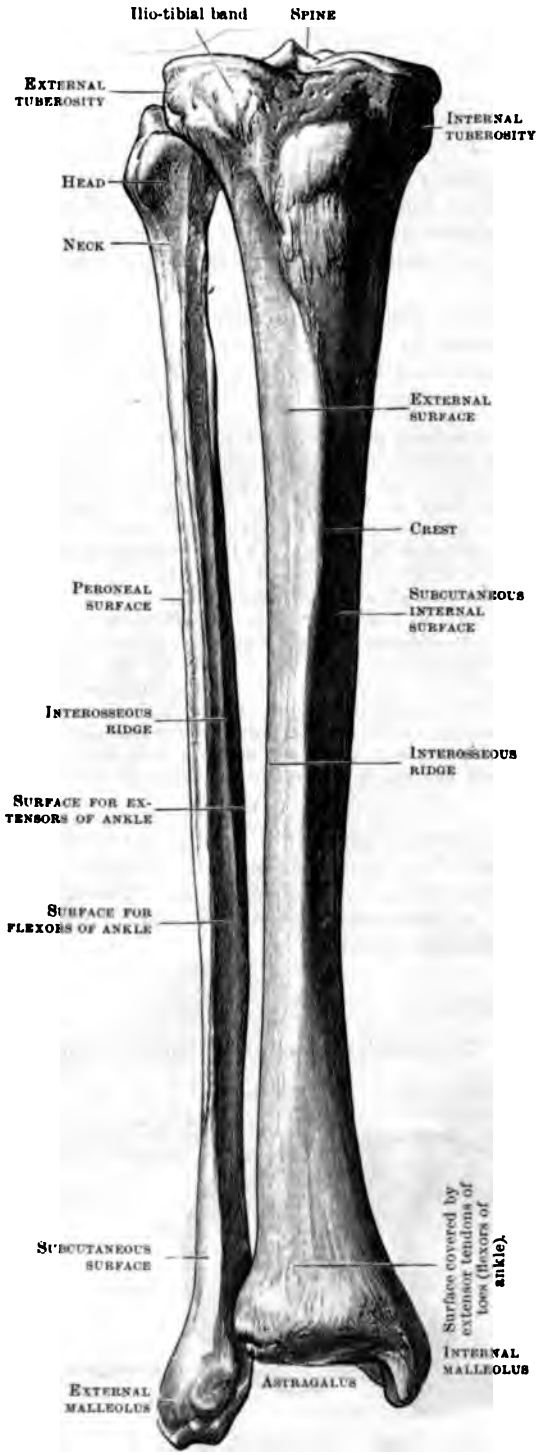


FIG. 176.—RIGHT TIBIA AND FIBULA AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

concave from before backward from side to side, its circumfe rises in the form of a sharp well-defined edge. The **outer cor surface** is smaller and rou Slightly concave from side to and gently convex from before wards, its circumference is wel fined in front, but is rounde behind, thus markedly incre the convexity of its posterior Between the two condylic sur the bone is raised in the cent form the **spine** (eminentia inte dyloidea), the summit of whi grooved and capped on either by **tubercles** which spring from are formed by the upward exte of the neighbouring condylic Of these tubercles the *inner* (t culum intercondyloideum me is the higher, and longer i antero-posterior direction, the (tuberculum intercondy eum laterale) being more po and not so elevated. In front behind the spine the articular are separated by two irre V-shaped surfaces, the **intercon fossæ**. The **anterior fossa** (fossa i condyloidea anterior), the large wider, furnishes areas for the at ment of the semilunar cartilag either side, and for the ant crucial ligament immediately in of the spine. The floor of this is pierced by many nutrient fora The **posterior intercondylic** (fossa intercondyloidea posteri concave from side to side, and s downwards and backwards. external semilunar cartilage i tached near its apex to a su which rises on to the back o spine; the internal semilunar lage is fixed to a groove which along its inner edge, and the terior crucial ligament derive attachment from the smooth post rounded surface.

The **external tuberosity** (con lateralis) is the smaller of the It overhangs the shaft to a gr extent than the internal, th this is obscured in the living articulation with the fibula. The facet for the fibula, often small and indis is placed postero-externally on the under surface of its most projecting

ıtero-externally the imprint caused by the attachment of the ilio-tibial band often quite distinct. The circumference of the **internal tuberosity** (condylus ɛdialis) is grooved postero-internally for the insertion of the tendon of the semi-ɛmbranosus.

In front of the tuberosities, and about an inch below the level of the condylic sur-ɛes, there is an oval elevation called the **tubercle of the tibia**, or the **anterior tuberosity** ıberositas tibiæ). The upper half of this is smooth and covered by a bursa, while ɛ lower part is rough and serves for the attachment of the ligamentum patellæ.

Considered in its entirety, the upper extremity of the tibia is broader trans-ɪrsely than antero-posteriorly, and is inclined backwards so as to overhang the aft posteriorly.

The **shaft** (corpus tibiæ) is irregularly three-sided. It is narrowest about the nction of its middle and lower thirds, and expands above and below to support ɛ extremities. Running down the front of the bone there is a gently-curved, ominent margin confluent above with the tubercle, but fading away inferiorly on ıe anterior surface of the lower third of the bone, where it may be traced in the rection of the anterior border of the internal malleolus. This is the **crest** or **shin** rista anterior), which is subcutaneous throughout its entire length. To the ıner side of this is a smooth, slightly convex surface, which reaches as high as the ıternal tuberosity above, and inferiorly becomes continuous with the inner surface f the internal malleolus. This is the *internal* or *subcutaneous surface* (facies ıedialis) of the shaft, which is covered only by skin and superficial fascia, except n its upper fourth, where the tendons of the sartorius, gracilis, and semitendinosus muscles overlie it, as they pass towards their insertions. This surface is limited posteriorly by the **internal border** (margo medialis) which passes from the inner and under surface of the internal tuberosity above to the hinder border of the internal malleolus below. This border is rounded and indefinite above and below, being usually best marked about its middle third. To the outer side of the tibial crest is the *external surface* of the bone (facies lateralis); it is limited behind by a straight vertical ridge, the **crista interossea**, to which the interosseous membrane, which occupies the interval between the tibia and the fibula, is attached. This ridge commences above, near the middle of the outer and under surface of the external tuberosity, and terminates below about two inches above the lower extremity by dividing into two lines, which separate and enclose between them the surface for articulation with the lower end of the fibula, and the area of attachment of the inferior interosseous ligament, which here unites the two bones. In its upper two-thirds the external surface provides an extensive origin for the tibialis anticus. Inferiorly, where the tibial crest is no longer well defined, the external surface turns forward on to the front of the shaft, and is limited inferiorly by the anterior margin of the inferior ırticular surface. Over this the tendon of the tibialis anticus, and the combined fleshy and tendinous parts of the extensor proprius hallucis and extensor communis digitorum muscles pass obliquely downwards. The *posterior surface* (facies ɔosterior) of the shaft lies between the interosseous ridge externally and the in-ɛrnal border on the inner side. Its contours are liable to considerable variation ıccording to the degree of lateral compression of the bone. It is usually full and ɔounded above, and flat below. Superiorly it is crossed by the **oblique** or **popliteal** ine (linea poplitea), which runs downwards and inwards, from the fibular facet ıbove, to the internal border on a level with the junction of the middle with the ıpper third of the shaft. To this line, as well as to the internal border for some listance below it, the soleus muscle is attached. Into the bulk of the triangular ırea above it the popliteus muscle is inserted. Arising from the middle of the ɔopliteal line there is a vertical ridge, which passes downwards and divides the ɔosterior aspect of the shaft into two surfaces—an external for the tibial origin of he tibialis posticus muscle, and an internal for the flexor longus digitorum muscle. The inferior third of this surface of the shaft is free from muscular attachments, ɔut is overlain by the tendons of the above muscles, together with that of the flexor ongus hallucis. A large nutrient canal, having a downward direction, opens on the ɔosterior surface of the shaft a little below the popliteal line and just external to he vertical ridge which springs from it.

The **inferior extremity** of the tibia displays an expanded quadrangular form. It is furnished with a saddle-shaped articular surface on its under surface (facies articularis inferior), which is concave from before backwards and slightly convex from side to side. This rests upon the superior articular surface of the body of the astragalus, and is bounded in front and behind by well-defined borders. The anterior border is the rounder and thicker, and is oftentimes channelled by a groove for the attachment of the anterior ligament of the joint; further, it is occasionally provided with a pressure facet caused by the locking of the bone against the neck of the astragalus in extreme flexion. Externally the edge of the articular area corresponds to the base of the triangle formed by the splitting of the interosseous ridge into two parts. Where these two lines join it, both in front and behind, the bone is elevated into the form of tubercles, in the hollow between which (incisura fibularis) the lower end of the fibula is lodged, being held in position by powerful ligaments. The cartilage-covered surface occasionally extends for some little distance above the base of the triangle. Internally there is a down-projecting process, called the **internal malleolus** (malleolus medialis), the inner aspect of which is subcutaneous and forms the projection of the inner ankle. Its external surface is furnished with a pyriform facet (facies articularis malleolaris), confluent above with the cartilage-covered area on the inferior extremity of the shaft; this articulates with a corresponding area on the inner surface of the body of the astragalus. Inferiorly the malleolus is pointed in front, but notched behind for the attachment of the internal lateral ligament of the ankle. Running obliquely along the posterior surface of the malleolus there is a broad groove (sulcus malleolaris) in which the tendons of the tibialis posticus and flexor longus digitorum muscles are lodged; whilst a little to the fibular side of this, and running downwards over the posterior surface of the lower extremity of the bone, there is another groove, often faintly marked, for the lodgment of the tendon of the flexor longus hallucis muscle. The proportionate length of the tibia to the body height is as 1 is to 4·32–4·80.

Arterial Foramina.—Nutrient canals are seen piercing the upper extremity of the bone around its circumference and above the tubercle. The floors of the intercondylic fossæ are also similarly pierced, and there is usually a canal of large size opening on the summit of the spine. Two or three foramina of fair size are seen running upwards into the substance of the bone a little below and to the inner side of the tubercle, while the principal vessel for the shaft passes downwards into the bone on its posterior surface, about the level of the junction of the upper and middle thirds. The inner surface of the internal malleolus, as well as the anterior and posterior borders of the inferior extremity, are likewise pitted by the orifices of small vascular channels.

Connexions.—Superiorly the tibia supports the condyles of the femur, and is connected in front with the patella by means of the patellar ligament. Articulating externally with the fibula above and below, it is united to that bone throughout nearly its entire length by the interosseous membrane. The crest and internal surface can be readily examined, as they are subcutaneous, except above where the internal surface is overlain by the thin tendinous aponeurosis of the muscles passing over the inner side of the knee. The form of the lower part of the knee in front is determined by the tuberosities on either side crossed mesially by the ligamentum patellæ. Inferiorly the internal malleolus forms the projection of the inner ankle, which is wider, not so low, less pointed, and placed in advance of the projection of the outer ankle. The front and back of the lower end of the bone are crossed by tendons, which mask to a certain extent its form.

Architecture.—The shaft of the bone is remarkable for the thickness and density of the osseous tissue which underlies the crest. The posterior wall is stout, but the internal and external walls are thinner. The several walls are thickest opposite the middle of the shaft, and thin out above and below where the shaft unites with the epiphyses. The medullary canal, narrow and circular in the middle of the bone, increases in all its diameters above and below, and reaches to within 2½ to 3 inches of either extremity. Superiorly the arrangement of the lamellæ of the spongy tissue resembles a series of arches springing from the dense outer walls. These form a platform on which the superior epiphysis rests, the spongy tissue of which displays a more or less vertical striation. This is much more compact under the condylic surfaces, the superficial aspect of which is formed by a thin layer of dense bone. The spine and tubercle are also formed of compact tissue, whilst the circumference of the tuberosities is covered by a thinner and less dense wall. In the lower end of the shaft the spongy tissue, of a loose and cellular character, is arranged in vertical fibres, blending inferiorly with the closer tissue of the inferior epiphysis, the articular surface of which is covered by a thin but dense layer.

In the adult bone the nutrient canal for the shaft is embedded in the dense posterior wall for the space of two inches.

Variations.—The tibia is often unduly laterally compressed, leading to an increase in its

ero-posterior diameter as compared with its transverse width. This condition is more monly met with in the bones of prehistoric and savage races than in modern Europeans. tention was first directed to this particular form by Busk, who named the condition **tycnemia.** The general appearance of such tibiæ resembles that seen in the apes, and ends on an exceptional development of the tibialis posticus muscle, though, as Manouvrier s pointed out, in apes this is associated with the direct action of the muscle on the foot, as in ubing, whereas in man, as a consequence of the bipedal mode of progression, the muscle is ployed in an inverse sense, viz. by steadying the tibia on the foot, and thus providing a fixed e on which the femur can move. Such platycnemic tibiæ are occasionally met with in the re highly civilised races, and are, according to Manouvrier, associated with habits of great tivity among the inhabitants of rough and mountainous districts.

Another interesting condition is one in which the upper extremity is more strongly recurved an is usual. This retroversion of the head of the tibia was at one time supposed to represent intermediate condition in which the knee could not be fully extended so as to bring the axis the leg in line with the thigh; but such opinion has now been upset by the researches of lanouvrier, who claims that it is the outcome of a habit not uncommon amongst peasants and ountrymen, viz. that of walking habitually with the knees slightly bent.

Habitual posture also leaves its impress on the form of the tibia, and in races in which the e of the chair is unknown, the extreme degree of flexion of the knee and ankle necessitated by he adoption of the squatting position as an attitude of habitual rest is associated with an increase n the convexity of the external condylic surface, and the appearance, not infrequently, of a ressure facet on the anterior border of the lower extremity, which rests in that position on the eck of the astragalus. Cases of congenital absence of the tibia have been requently described, amongst the most recent being those recorded by Clutton, Joachimsthal, Bland Sutton, and Waitz.

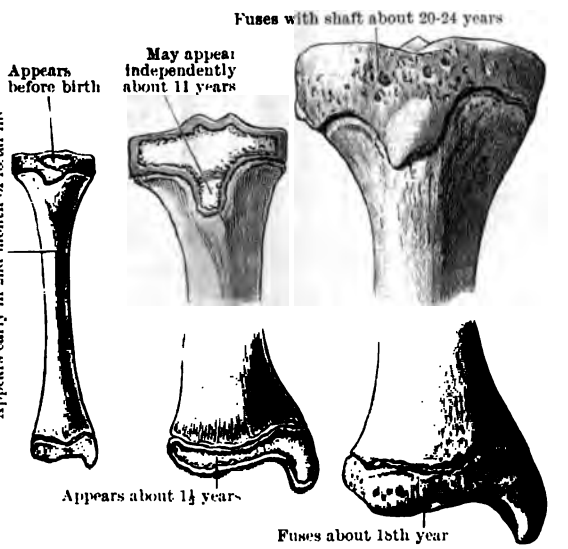

Fuses with shaft about 20-24 years
Appears before birth
May appear independently about 11 years
Appears early in 2nd month of fœtal life
Appears about 1½ years
Fuses about 15th year
At birth.
About 12 years.
About 16 years.

FIG. 177.—OSSIFICATION OF THE TIBIA.

Ossification.—The shaft begins to ossify early in the second month of intrauterine life. At birth it is well formed, and capped above and below by pieces of cartilage, in the upper of which the centre for the superior epiphysis has already usually made its appearance. From this the tuberosities and tubercle are developed, though sometimes an independent centre for the latter appears about the eleventh or twelfth years, rapidly joining with the already well-developed mass of the rest of the epiphysis. Complete fusion between the superior epiphysis and the shaft does not take place until the twentieth or the twenty-fourth year. The centre for the lower articular surface and the internal malleolus makes its appearance about the end of the second year, and union with the shaft is usually complete by the age of eighteen. Lambertz notes the occasional presence of an accessory nucleus in the malleolus.

THE FIBULA.

The **fibula, or peroneal bone,** is a slender bone with two enlarged ends. It lies on the outer side of the tibia, with which it is firmly united by ligaments, and nearly equals that bone in length.

The first difficulty which the student has to overcome is to determine which is the upper and which the lower extremity of the bone. This can easily be done by recognising the fact that there is a deep pit on the inner aspect of the lower extremity immediately behind the triangular articular surface. Holding the bone vertically with the lower extremity downwards and so turned that the triangular articular area lies in front of the notch already spoken of, the subcutaneous non-articular aspect of the inferior extremity will point to the side to which the bone belongs.

The **superior extremity or head** of the fibula (capitulum fibulæ), of irregular rounded form, is bevelled on its inner surface so as to adapt it to the form of the under surface of the external tuberosity of the tibia. At the border, where this

surface becomes confluent with the outer aspect of the head, there is a p

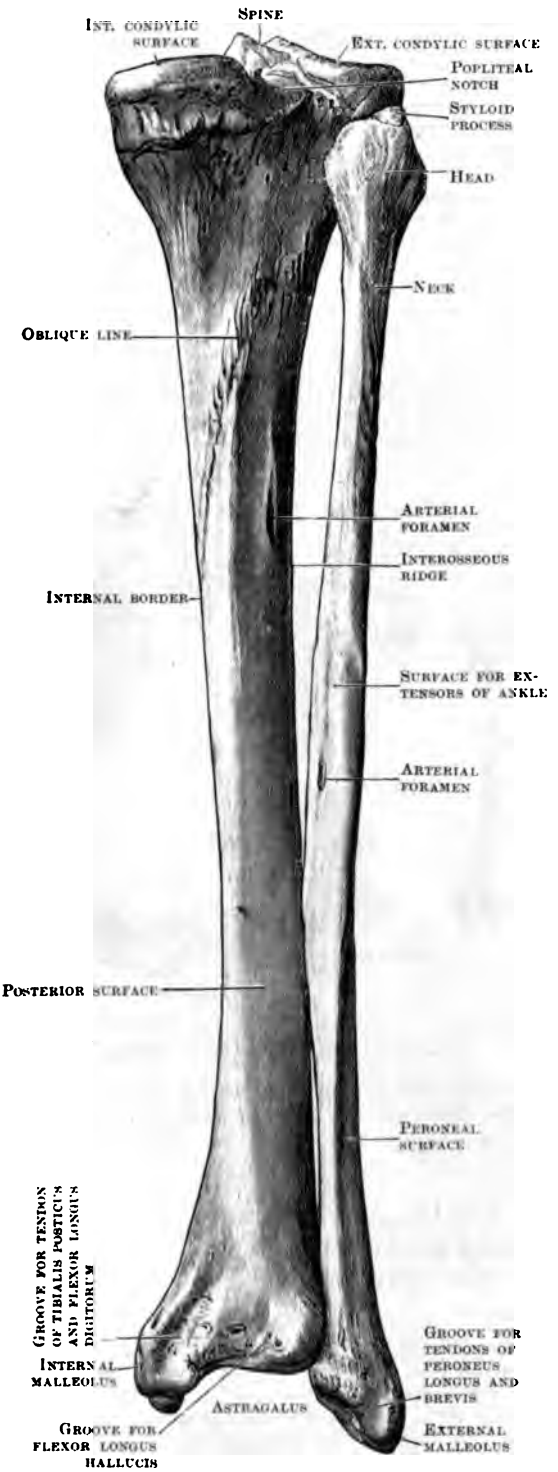


FIG. 178.—RIGHT TIBIA AND FIBULA AS SEEN FROM BEHIND.

upstanding eminence calle **styloid process** (apex c fibulæ); to this the short ex lateral ligament is attach well as a piece of the tendon biceps, which is inserted in fore-part. Immediately t inner side of this, and occu the summit of the internal s surface, there is an **articula** (facies articularis capituli), o able size and more or less tria shape. This serves for articu with the external tuberosity tibia. The long external l ligament, together with th mainder of the tendon of the muscle which surrounds it, tached to the outer and upp of the head in front of the s process. In front and behi head there are usually pron tubercles. The anterior of is associated with the ori the peroneus longus muscle posterior, whilst furnishin origin for the upper fibres soleus, serves to deepen the g behind the superior tibio-f articulation, in which the t and fleshy part of the po muscle play. The constricte tion of the shaft below the is often referred to as the around the outer side of th external popliteal nerve win

The **shaft** of the fibula (c fibulæ) presents many varie shape and form, being ridge channelled in such a way as g to increase the difficulties student in recognising the v surfaces described. The mo portant point is first to dete the position of the intero ridge. Holding the bone i position which it normally oc in the leg, it will be noticed the external surface of the extremity is limited in fron behind by two lines, which verging above, enclose be them a triangular subcuta area which lies immediately the outer ankle. From the su of the triangle so formed a defined ridge may be traced up the front of the shaft to reach the anterior of the head. This is the *anterior border*, and must not be mistaken for the

dge, which is now easy to find, for the next ridge which lies immediately to the anterior border, or towards the tibial side nterior aspect of the bone, is the line to which osseous membrane is attached. As a rule these are separated by a considerable interval in the lf of the bone, but tend to run much closer above; indeed it is not uncommon to find that esce to form a single crest. Let it therefore be t the interosseous line is that which lies im- r internal to the ridge which springs inferiorly malleolar subcutaneous triangular surface, not- ding the differences in width of the surface which the lines, or their occasional coalescence above. position of the interosseous ridge enables us at separate the flexor aspect of the bone from its surface, using these terms in relation to the nts of the ankle.

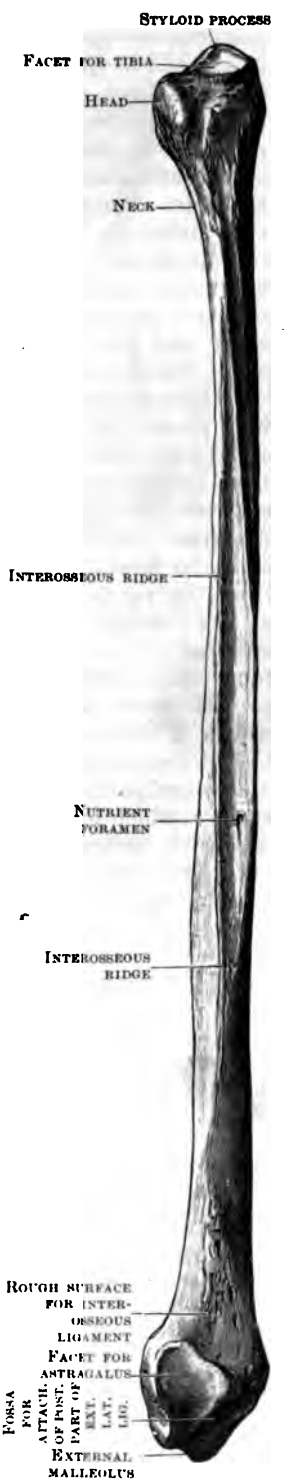


FIG. 179.—RIGHT FIBULA AS SEEN FROM THE INNER SIDE.

e of these terms is not, strictly speaking, correct, and ere used in a physiological and not in a morphological e anterior surface of the leg is the true extensor surface, nparable with the posterior surface of the forearm, the position having been brought about developmentally by in the rotation of the limbs. Flexion of the ankle, so in reality an extensor movement, and corresponds to at the wrist. (See Humphry, *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, . p. 15.)

ddition, there is the peroneal surface, which nds to the outer side of the shaft. Starting then nterosseous ridge, and passing forwards round r side of the shaft, the **flexor surface** is the first n; this is bounded externally by the anterior nd, as has been said, may be either of considerable : almost linear. From this arises the extensor is digitorum, together with the peroneus tertius extensor proprius hallucis muscles, which, though s of the toes, are also *flexors* of the ankle.

anterior border serves for the attachment of the scular septum, which separates the foregoing muscles from that which lies along the outer the shaft, viz. the peroneus longus and brevis

The surface from which these arise is limited by the *posterior border*, which is usually sharp defined below, where it is continuous with the mediately above the pit on the inner surface of r extremity, whilst it tends to be less distinct e rounded above where it runs into the base of oid process. In its upper third or fourth this s often rough and tubercular where it serves for in of the soleus. The **outer** or **peroneal surface** what twisted, being directed rather forwards ut tending to turn backwards below where it continuous with the groove which courses along of the external malleolus and which lodges the of the peroneus longus and brevis muscles. The er of the shaft, included between the posterior ehind and the interosseous ridge in front and ly, is the **extensor surface**, for here arise the muscles whose action in part is to extend the ankle. This surface is by a curved ridge often the *most prominent* and outstanding on the bone,

and hence frequently mistaken by the student for the interosseous ridge; it serve to define the area for the origin of the tibialis posticus, and arises below from th posterior border of the interosseous ridge at the junction of the middle and inferio thirds of the shaft, curves a little backwards, and passing upwards and obliquel forwards again joins the interosseous ridge once more in the region of the neck This is oftentimes called the internal border (crista medialis); and the surface s mapped off, the internal surface. The ridge itself serves for the attachmen of the aponeurosis which covers the tibialis posticus muscle. The remainder o the extensor aspect of the shaft, which, above, is directed backwards, is so twisted that inferiorly it is directed inwards. From this, in its upper part, the soleu muscle arises; whilst lower down, the flexor longus hallucis muscle derives an extensive origin. Both of these muscles, together with the tibialis posticus, act as *extensors* of the ankle. On this aspect of the bone, at or near the middle of the shaft, and just behind the prominent tibial ridge, is the opening of the nutrient canal, which has a downward direction.

The **inferior extremity** of the fibula, or **external malleolus** (malleolus lateralis), is of pyramidal form. Its inner surface is furnished with a triangular articular area (facies articularis malleoli), plane from before backwards, and slightly convex from above downwards, which articulates with a corresponding surface on the outer side of the body of the astragalus. Behind this there is a deep pit, to which the posterior fasciculus of the external lateral ligament is attached. Above the articular facet there is a rough triangular area on the extensor surface of the shaft, from the summit of which the interosseous ridge arises; hereto are attached the strong fibres of the inferior interosseous ligament which binds together the opposed surfaces of the tibia and fibula. The external surface of the inferior extremity forms the elevation of the external malleolus which determines the shape of the projection of the outer ankle. Rounded from side to side and from above downwards, it terminates below in a pointed process, which reaches a lower level than the corresponding process of the tibia, from which it also differs in being narrower and more pointed and being placed in a plane nearer the heel. Superiorly, this surface, which is subcutaneous, is continuous with the triangular subcutaneous area so clearly defined by the convergence above of the lines which unite to form the anterior border. The anterior border and tip of the external malleolus furnish attachments to the anterior and middle bands of the external lateral ligament of the ankle. The posterior surface of the external malleolus, broad above, where it is confluent with the peroneal or external surface, is reduced in width below by the presence of the pit which lies to its inner side. This aspect of the bone is grooved (sulcus malleolaris) by the tendons of the peroneus longus and brevis muscles, which curve round the posterior and lower-pointed aspect of the malleolus. The proportionate length of the fibula to the body height is as 1 is to 4·37–4·82.

Arterial Foramina.—Numerous minute vascular canals are seen piercing the outer surface o the head, and one or two of larger size are seen on the inner surface immediately in front of th superior articular facet. The canal for the nutrient artery of the shaft, which has a downwar direction, is situated on the back of the bone about its middle. The outer surface of the extern malleolus displays the openings of many small canals, and one or two larger openings are to noted at the bottom of the pit behind the inferior articular surface.

Connexions.—The head and external malleolus, and part of the shaft immediately above latter, are subcutaneous. The remainder of the shaft is covered on all sides by the muscles wh surround it. Superiorly the bone plays no part in the formation of the knee-joint, but inferi assists materially in strengthening the ankle-joint by its union with the tibia and its articula with the astragalus. In position the bone is not parallel to the axis of the tibia, but obliqu it, its upper extremity lying posterior and external to a vertical line passing through the exte malleolus.

Architecture.—A medullary canal runs throughout the length of the shaft, reaching as h as the neck above, and extending as low as a point about 2½ inches above the inferior extrem of the external malleolus. The outer wall of the shaft is usually considerably thicker than inner. The head is formed of loose cellular bone, enclosed within a very thin dense envelope. T spongy tissue of the lower extremity is more compact, and acquires considerable density on surfaces underlying the articular area and the pit behind it. The canal for the nutrient artery the shaft opens into the medullary cavity about an inch below its external aperture.

ion.—The shaft begins to ossify about the middle of the second month of t the end of the third month there is but little difference in size between it and at birth the fibula is much ortion to the size of the tibia than Its extremities are cartilaginous, remity not being as long as the olar cartilage of the tibia. It is in that an ossific centre first appears of the second year, which increases ², and unites with the shaft about 's. The centre for the superior ins to ossify about the third or and union with the shaft is not il a period somewhat later than inferior epiphysis. The mode of the lower extremity is an exception rule that epiphyses which are the are the last to unite with the shaft.

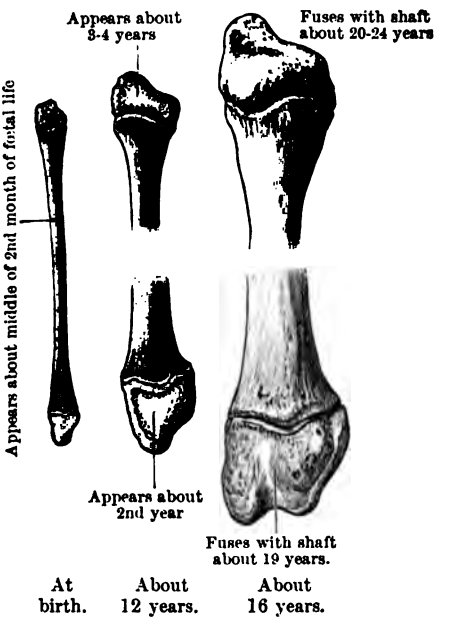

Appears about 3-4 years
Fuses with shaft about 20-24 years
Appears about middle of 2nd month of fœtal life
Appears about 2nd year
Fuses with shaft about 19 years.
At birth.
About 12 years.
About 16 years.

FIG. 180.—OSSIFICATION OF FIBULA.

er stages of development it has been authority of Lebouco, Gegenbaur it the fibula as well as the tibia is in e femur. This is, however, denied by Proc. Anat. Soc.," *Journ. Anat. and* xvi. p. 22), who states that after the e fibula is not in contact with the it prior to that date it is impossible the tissue which is to form femur h forms fibula.

.—The fibula may be ridged and emarkable manner, as is the case in many bones of prehistoric races. This is ated with a greater or perhaps more active development of the muscles attached

or articular facet varies much in size. Bennett (*Dublin Journ. Med. Sc.*, Aug. case in which it was double, and also notes the occurrence of specimens in which nd in which the head of the bone did not reach as high as the tibial tuberosity. nces of partial or complete absence of the bone have been published. (Lefèbre, *l'étude de l'absence congénitale du péroné*, Lille, 1895.)

BONES OF THE FOOT.

s of the foot, twenty-six in number, are arranged in three groups: the in number; the metatarsal, five in number; the phalanges, fourteen

ig the foot with the hand, the student will be struck with the great pro- ze of the tarsus as compared with the carpus, and the reduction in size of the toes as compared with the fingers. The size of the metatarsal e nearly equals that of the metacarpus.

THE TARSUS.

is (ossa tarsi) consists of seven bones—the astragalus, os calcis, navi- hoid, three cuneiforms, and the cuboid. Of irregular form and varying y be described as roughly cubical, presenting for examination dorsal surfaces as well as anterior, posterior, internal, and external aspects.

THE ASTRAGALUS.

agalus (talus) is the bone through which the body weight is trans- the leg above to the foot below. Superiorly the tibia rests upon it, ner side it articulates with the internal and external malleolar processes nd fibula respectively; inferiorly it overlies the os calcis, and anteriorly with the navicular. For descriptive purposes the bone is divisible into the **body** (corpus tali) blended in front with the **neck** (collum tali), ·ts the **head** (caput tali).

The *upper surface* of the **body** is provided with a saddle-shaped **articular s** (trochlea tali), broader in front than behind, for articulation with the under s of the tibia. The inner edge of the trochlea is straight; whilst the outer b which is sharp in front and more rounded behind, is curved inwards poste

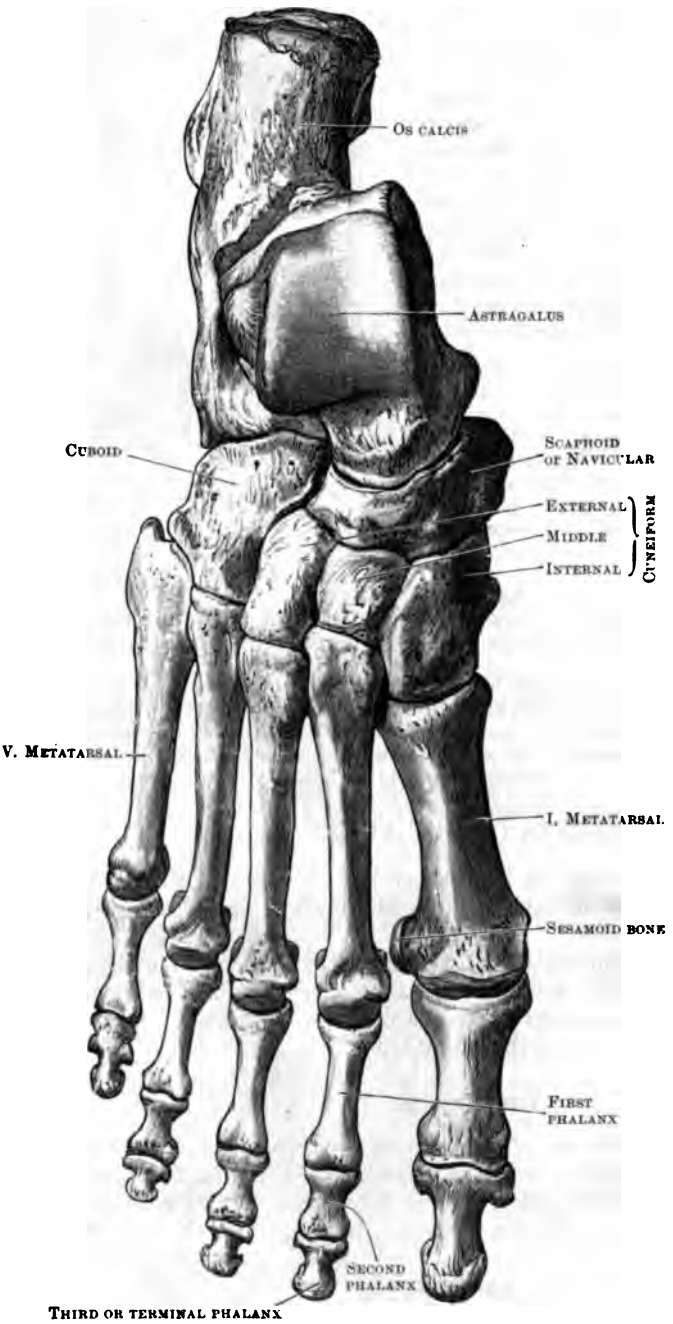


Fig. 181.—Bones of the Right Foot as seen from Above.

where it is bevel form a narrow, gated, triangular which is in contac the transverse c ferior tibio-fibular ment during flex the ankle (Fawcet *Med. Journ.*, Over the outer l the cartilage-co surface is conti externally with a tensive area of the of a quadrant. T concave from downwards, and a lates with the surface of the fi malleolus. The in angle of this ar prominent and what everted, and times referred to **external process** (p sus lateralis tali). inner aspect of the has a comma-sh facet, confluent the superior arti surface, over the edge of the troc this articulates the outer surface tibial malleolus. ferior to this fac bone is rough and by numerous openings, and just the tail of the c there is a circula pression for the at ment of the deep of the internal l ligament. On th *ferior surface* of body there is a concave facet, the **posterior calc facet** (facies cal articularis posterior), which is of more or less oval or oblong form and is obliquely from behind forwards and outwards; this rests upon a correspo surface on the upper aspect of the os calcis. In front of this, and crossin bone from within outwards and forwards, is a deep **furrow** (sulcus tali), the fl which is pierced by numerous large canals. It serves for the **attachment** c

ong interosseous ligament which unites the astragalus with the os calcis, and arates the facet already described from a smaller oval articular area having a htly convex surface, which lies immediately in front of it. This is called the **ddle calcanean facet** (facies articularis calcanea media), and articulates with the per surface of the stentaculum tali the os calcis. steriorly the body provided with two bercles, separated a groove; the ternal of these rocessus posterior li) is usually the rger, and is occaonally a separate sicle (os trigonum). o it is attached the sterior fasciculus the external teral ligament of e ankle-joint. The oove, which winds bliquely from above wnwards and inards over the posrior surface of the ne, lodges the ndon of the flexor ngus hallucis uscle.

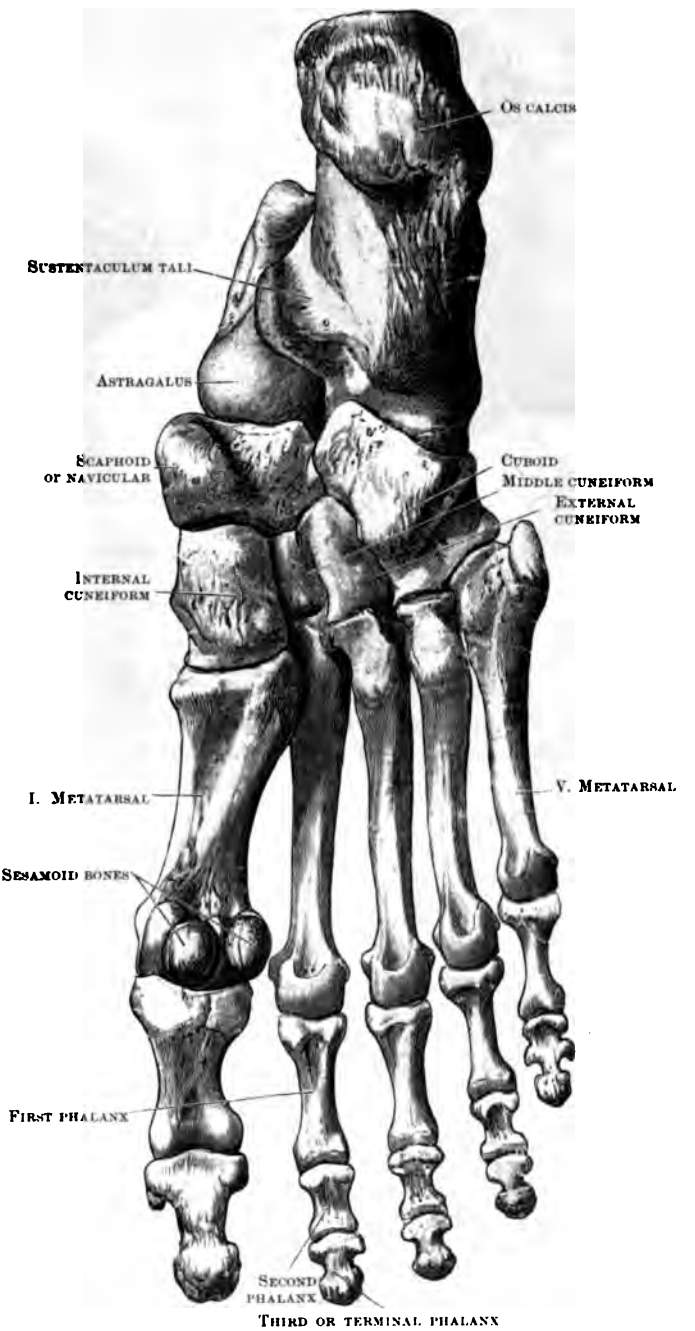


Fig. 182.—Bones of the Right Foot as seen from Below.

The head (caput li), of oval form, is irected forwards nd inwards. Its nterior surface is nvex from side to de and from above wnwards, and arculates with the avicular bone acies articularis avicularis). Inriorly this surface confluent with the iddle calcanean cet, but in well-arked specimens, when the bones e articulated, it ll be seen that a all area in front and external to, e middle calcanean cet rests upon an articular surface on the upper part of the fore portion of the calcis, and is called the **anterior calcanean facet** (facies articularis calcanea nterior). To the inner and under surface of the head there is a cartilage-covered rface which does not articulate with any bone, but rests on the upper surface the inferior calcaneo-navicular ligament, and is supported on the inner

side by the tendon of the tibialis posticus muscle (Fawcett, *Ed. Med. Jour* 1895, p. 987).

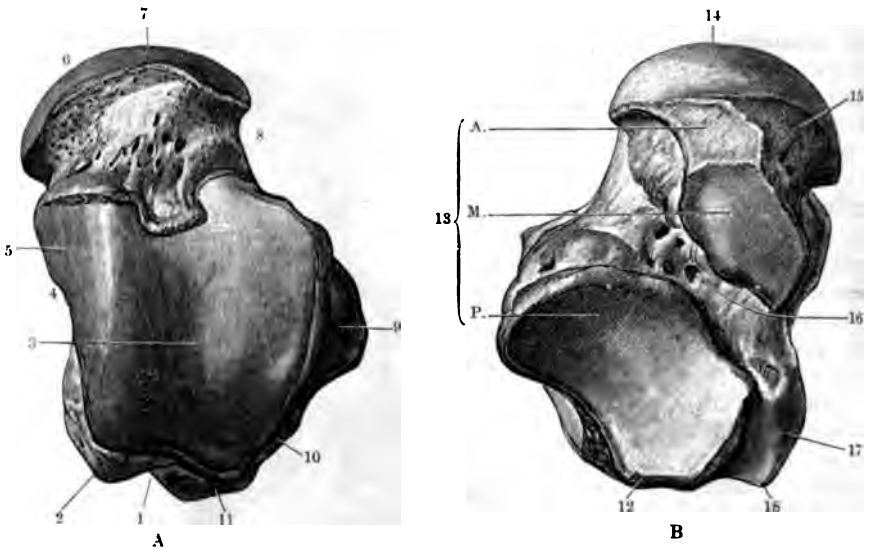


FIG. 183.—THE RIGHT ASTRAGALUS.

A. Upper Surface. B. Under Surface.

1. GROOVE FOR FLEX. LONG. HALLUCIS.
2. INTERNAL TUBERCLE.
3. TROCHLEAR SURFACE FOR TIBIA.
4. BODY.
5. FOR ARTICULATION WITH INTERNAL MALLEOLUS.
6. HEAD.
7. FOR ARTICULATION WITH NAVICULAR.
8. NECK.
9. FOR ARTICULATION WITH EXTERNAL MALLEOLUS.
10. SURFACE AGAINST WHICH THE INFERIOR TIBIO-FIBULAR LIGAMENT RESTS.
11. EXTERNAL TUBERCLE.
12. EXTERNAL TUBERCLE.
13. POSTERIOR, MIDDLE, AND ANTERIOR FACETS FOR OS CALCIS.
14. FOR ARTICULATION WITH NAVICULAR.
15. SURFACE RESTING ON INFERIOR CALCANEO-NAVICULAR LIGAMENT.
16. INTEROSSEOUS GROOVE.
17. INTERNAL TUBERCLE.
18. GROOVE FOR FLEXOR LONGUS HALLUCIS.

The neck (collum tali), best seen above, passes from the front of the body and inclines towards the inner side. It is confluent with the inner surface in front o

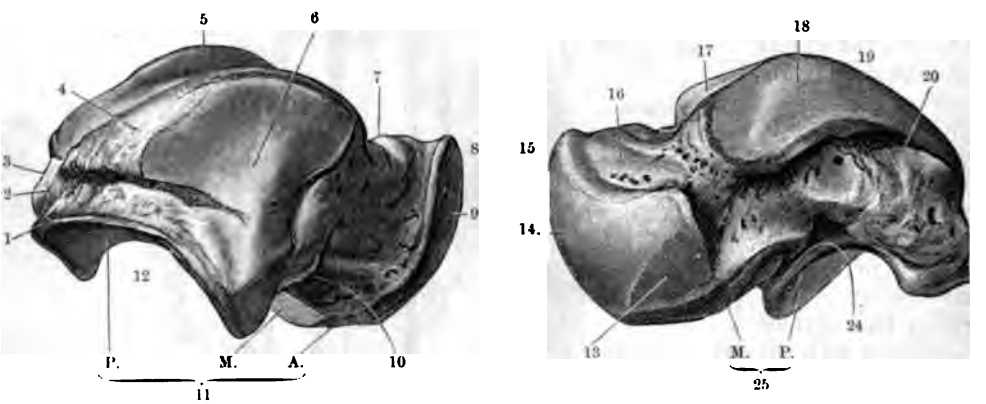


FIG. 184.—THE RIGHT ASTRAGALUS.

A. As seen from the Outer Side. B. As seen from the Inner Side.

1. EXTERNAL TUBERCLE.
2. GROOVE FOR FLEXOR LONGUS HALLUCIS.
3. INTERNAL TUBERCLE.
4. SURFACE AGAINST WHICH THE INFERIOR TIBIO-FIBULAR LIGAMENT RESTS.
5. TROCHLEA FOR TIBIA.
6. FOR ARTICULATION WITH EXTERNAL MALLEOLUS.
7. NECK. 8. HEAD.
9. FOR ARTICULATION WITH NAVICULAR.
10. INTEROSSEOUS GROOVE.
11. ANTERIOR MIDDLE, AND POSTERIOR FACETS FOR OS CALCIS.
12. BODY.
13. SURFACE RESTING ON INTERNAL CALCANEO-NAVICULAR LIGAMENT.
14. FOR ARTICULATION WITH NAVICULAR.
15. HEAD.
16. NECK.
17. TROCHLEA FOR TIBIA.
18. FOR ARTICULATION WITH INTERNAL MALLEOLUS.
19. BODY.
20. IMPRESSION FOR INTERNAL LATERAL LIGAMENT.
21. INTERNAL TUBERCLE.
22. GROOVE FOR FLEXOR LONGUS HALLUCIS.
23. EXTERNAL TUBERCLE.
24. INTEROSSEOUS GROOVE.
25. POSTERIOR AND MIDDLE FACETS FOR OS CALCIS.

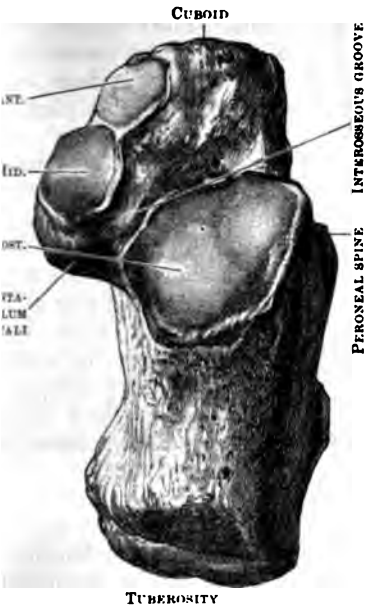
the internal malleolar facet, and externally forms a wide groove, which becom continuous inferiorly with the outer end of the interosseous groove.

iations.—The anterior is sometimes separated from the middle calcanean facet by a non- furrow. The posterior external tubercle, often largely developed, is occasionally (2·6) a separate ossicle forming what is known as the os trigonum (Bardeleben); or it may be o the body of the astragalus by a distinct synchondrosis. A smooth articular surface may ally be found on the outer side of the upper surface of the neck. This is a pressure facet nt on the frequent use of the ankle-joint in a condition of extreme flexion, and is caused pposition of the bone against the anterior edge of the lower end of the tibia.
a detailed study of the varieties of this bone, see R. B. S. Sewell (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, viii.)

The Os Calcis.

e **os calcis** (calcaneus) is the largest of the tarsal bones. It supports the alus above and articulates with the cuboid in front. Inferiorly and behind, its ior extremity or tuberosity forms the heel on which so large a proportion of dy weight rests. The long axis of the bone inclines forwards and a little rds.

ıe *upper surface* of the os calcis is divisible into two parts—a posterior non-



185.—The Right Os Calcis as seen from above

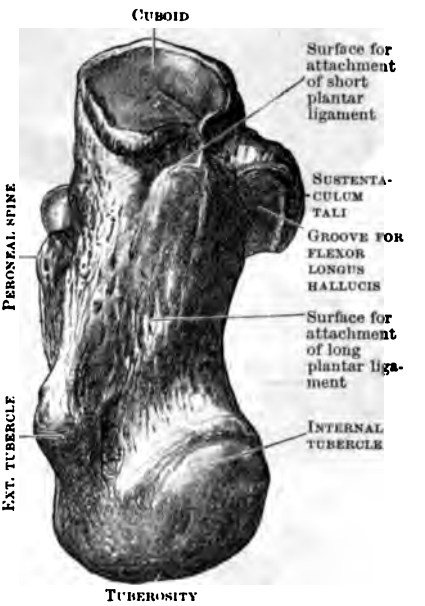


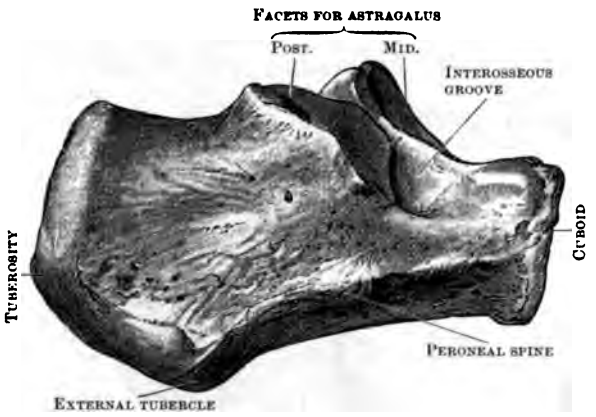
Fig. 186. -The Right Os Calcis as seen from below.

lar part and an anterior articular portion. The length of the former varies ing to the projection of the heel; rounded from side to side, it is slightly con- rom before backwards. In front of this there is a convex articular area of le shape (facies articularis posterior), sometimes nearly circular, at other times nd occasionally almost triangular. This is directed upwards and forwards, ticulates with the posterior calcanean facet on the under surface of the astra-

Anterior to this facet the bone is deeply excavated, forming a fossa from a **groove** (sulcus calcanei) leads backwards and inwards around the antero- al border of the articular surface. When the os calcis is placed in contact he astragalus, this groove coincides with the sulcus on the under surface of ter bone, and so forms a **canal** or tunnel (sinus tarsi) in which the strong sseous ligament which unites the two bones is lodged. To the front and inner f this groove there is an elongated articular facet directed obliquely from l forwards and outwards, and concave in the direction of its long axis. This uently divided into two smaller oval areas by an intermediate non-articular e. Of these facets the hinder (facies articularis media) articulates with the calcanean facet on the under surface of the astragalus, whilst the anterior articularis anterior) supports the under surface of the head of the astragalus articularis calcanei anterior). The outer side of the upper surface of the

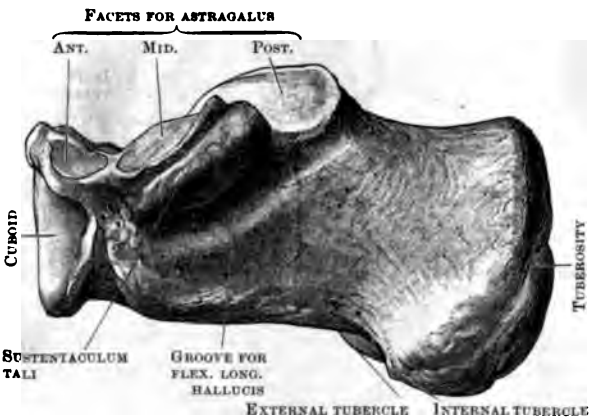
anterior extremity of the bone is rough, and hereto is attached the origin short extensor muscle of the toes.

The *inferior surface* of the bone is slightly concave from before backward convex from side to side. The under aspect of the tuberosity is provided wit **tubercles**, an **inner** (processus medialis tuberis calcanei) and an **outer** (pro lateralis tuberis calcanei), of which the former is the larger. From this the flexor of the toes and the abductor hallucis muscle arise, whilst from both tul spring the fibres of origin of the abductor minimi digiti muscle. On the for of the under surface there is an elevated elongated tubercle, which term somewhat abruptly just behind the anterior border of this aspect of the



A

A. As seen from the Outer Side.



B

B. As seen from the Inner Side.

FIG. 187.—THE RIGHT OS CALCIS.

giving rise at times to a From the former sprin fibres of the long planta ment, whilst the latter for the attachment of the fibres of the short plantar ment. The two heads of of the flexor accessorius n arise from the bone on side of the long plantar ment. The *internal surf* the os calcis is crosse liquely, from above down and forwards, by a broad of considerable depth; this pass many of the stru which enter the sole of th from the back of the leg. groove is overhung in fro above by a projecting br like process, called the **s taculum tali,** or **lesser p** The under surface of th tentaculum is channelled groove, in which is lodged th don of the flexor longus h muscle; whilst its inner b to which is attached a p the internal lateral ligam the ankle, is overlain by t of the flexor longus digit To the anterior border sustentaculum is attache inferior calcaneo-navicula ment, and placed on its surface is the articular already alluded to (facies a laris media). Posteriorly the internal surface of the bone is limited inferiorly projection of the internal tubercle, and above by the internal lipped edge tuberosity.

The *external surface*, broad behind and narrower in front, is of flattened Springing from it, just below the outer end of the sinus tarsi, is the **peroneal** (processus trochlearis), often indistinctly marked. To this the fibres of the ex annular ligament are attached; whilst in grooves, above and below it, pa tendons of the peroneus brevis and longus muscles respectively. To the and back part of this surface are attached the fibres of the middle fasciculus external lateral ligament of the ankle.

The *anterior extremity*, sometimes called the **greater process**, is furnished saddle-shaped surface on its anterior aspect for articulation with the cuboid.

ɔet is concave from above downwards, and slightly convex from side to side; its ges are sharply defined, except internally, and serve for the attachment of ɡaments.

The *posterior extremity*, called the **tuberosity** (tuber calcanei), forms the rojection of the heel. Of oval form and rounded surface, it rests upon the two ıbercles inferiorly. Its cutaneous aspect is divisible into three areas. Of these ne highest is smooth and crescentic, and is covered by a bursa; the intermediate s also fairly smooth, and is defined inferiorly by an irregular line, sometimes a efinite ridge, the edges of which are striated. Into this surface the tendo Achillis s inserted. The lowest surface is rough and striated, and is confluent below with he internal and external tubercles; this is overlain by the dense layer of tissue vhich forms the pad of the heel.

Variations.—The peroneal tubercle is occasionally unduly prominent, constituting the sub-alleolar apophysis of Hyrtl, and cases are recorded of the os calcis articulating with the navicular (Morestin, H., *Bull. de la Soc. Anat. de Paris*, 1894, ser. v. t. 8, n. 24, p. 798; and Petrini, *Atti del XI. Congr. Med. Internaz. Roma*, 1894, vol. ii., "Anat." p. 71). Pfitzner (*Morphologische Arbeiten*, vol. vi. p. 245) also records the separation of the sustentaculum tali to form an n sustentaculi. (See also P. P. Laidlaw, *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, vol. xxxviii. p. 133.)

The Navicular Bone.

The **navicular** or **scaphoid bone** (os naviculare pedis), of compressed pyriform hape, is placed on the inner side of the foot, between the head of the astragalus osteriorly and the three cuneiform bones anteriorly. The bone derives its name rom the oval or boat-haped hollow on its *osterior surface*, which ests upon the head of he astragalus. Its *nterior aspect* is furnished with a semilunar rticular area, which is ubdivided by two faint idges into three wedge-haped facets for articulation from within outwards with the internal, middle, and external uneiform bones. *Superiorly* the surface of the bone, convex from side to side, is rough for the ttachment of the ligaments on the dorsal aspect of the foot. *Inferiorly* the one is irregularly concave, and marked by the attachment of the plantar ligaments. The *external surface* is narrow from before backwards, and rounded from bove downwards. Usually devoid of any articular surface, it is occasionally provided ith a facet which rests upon a corresponding area on the cuboid. The *inner side* f the bone projects beyond the general line of the inner border of the foot, so as to orm a thick rounded **tubercle** (tuberositas oss. navicularis), the position of which an be easily determined in the living. To the inner and under surface of this rocess an extensive portion of the tendon of the tibialis posticus muscle is nserted.

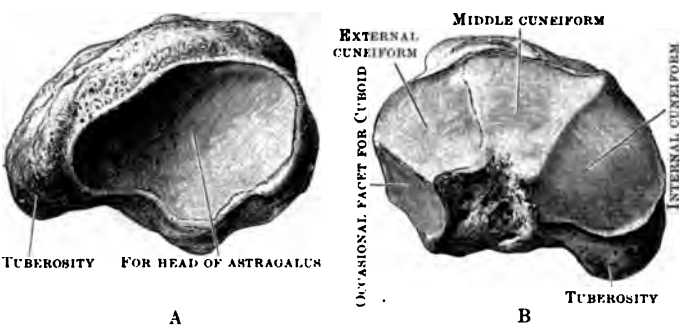


FIG. 188.—THE RIGHT NAVICULAR BONE.
A. As seen from Behind; B. As seen from the Front.

Variations.—Cases are recorded where the tubercle has formed an independent ossicle.

The Cuneiform Bones.

The **cuneiform bones**, three in number, are placed between the navicular osteriorly and the bases of the first, second, and third metatarsal bones anteriorly, or which reason they are frequently named the first, second, and third cuneiforms, r, from their position, internal, middle, and external. More or less wedge-shaped, s their name implies, the internal or first is the largest, whilst the middle or

second is the smallest of the group. Combined, they form a compact mas proximal surface of which, fairly regular in outline, rests on the anterior surf the navicular; whilst anteriorly they form a of support for the three inner metatarsal outline of which is irregular, owing to the of the second metatarsal bone being re between the inner and outer cuneiforms articulates with the distal extremity o shorter middle cuneiform.

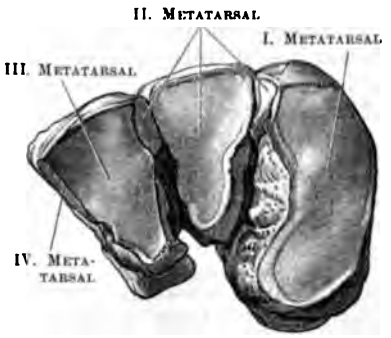


FIG. 189.—ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE THREE CUNEIFORM BONES OF THE RIGHT FOOT.

The **internal cuneiform bone** (os cunei primum), the largest of the three, lies on the border of the foot between the base of the tarsal bone of the great toe in front, and th and inner part of the navicular behind. *upper*, *lower*, and *internal* surfaces are conf and form a convexity from above down which is most pronounced inferiorly, where turned towards the plantar side of the foot. On the fore-part of the inner s of the bone there is usually a distinct oval impression, which indicates the s of insertion of a portion of the tendon of the tibialis anticus muscle. Else this surface is rough for ligamentous attachments. The *external surface* bone, quadrilateral in shape, is directed towards the middle cuneiform; but as it exceeds it in length, it also comes in contact with the inner side of the base of the second metatarsal bone. Running along the posterior and upper edges of this area is an ⌐-shaped articular surface, the fore and upper part of which is for the base of the s metatarsal bone, the remainder articulating with the inner side of the n cuneiform. The non-articular part of this aspect of the bone is rough f attachment of the strong interosseous ligaments which bind it to the n cuneiform and second metatarsal bones respectively. The *posterior* or *pro end* of the bone is provided with a form facet which fits on the inner ar area of the navicular. *Anterior* vertical diameter of the bone is mu creased, and the facet for the base metatarsal bone of the great toe i sequently much larger than that f navicular. The metatarsal facet is u of semilunar form, but not infreq is more reniform in shape, and n some cases display complete sepa into two oval portions.

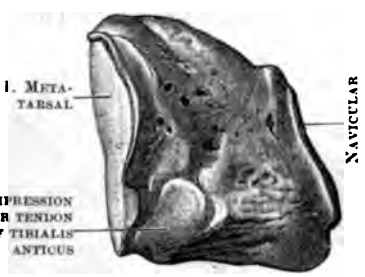


FIG. 190.—THE RIGHT INTERNAL CUNEIFORM (Inner Side).

FIG. 191.—THE RIGHT IN CUNEIFORM (Outer Sid

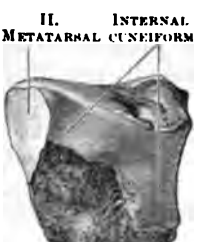


FIG. 192.—THE RIGHT MIDDLE CUNEIFORM (Inner Side).

FIG. 193.—THE RIGHT MIDDLE CUNEIFORM (Outer Side).

The **middle** or **second cuneifo** cuneiforme secundum) is of a typical wedge shape; shorter than the otl lies between them, articulating with the base of the second metatarsal in and the middle facet on the anterior surface of the navicular behind. Its *aspect*, which corresponds to the base of the wedge, conforms to the round the instep, and is slightly convex from side to side, affording attachments f dorsal ligaments. Its under surface is narrow and tubercular, forming th

of the wedge; with this the plantar ligaments are connected. The *inner surface*, quadrilateral in outline, is furnished with an Γ-shaped articular area along its posterior and superior borders in correspondence with the similar area on the outer side of the internal cuneiform. The rest of this aspect is rough for ligaments. The *outer side* displays a facet arranged along its posterior border, and usually somewhat constricted in the middle; this is for the external cuneiform. In front of this the bone is rough for the interosseous ligaments, which bind the two bones together. The proximal end is provided with a triangular facet slightly concave from above downwards; this rests on the central articular surface on the anterior aspect of the navicular. In front the bone articulates by means of a wedge-shaped facet with the base of the metatarsal bone of the second toe.

The **external** or **third cuneiform** (os cuneiforme tertium) intermediate in size between the first and second, is also of a typical wedge shape. Its *superior surface*, slightly convex from side to side, provides attachments for the dorsal ligaments. Its *inferior* or *plantar aspect* is narrow and tubercular, and serves for the attachment of the plantar ligaments. Its *inner side*, of quadrilateral form, displays two narrow articular strips, placed along its anterior and posterior borders respectively, each somewhat constricted in the middle. The anterior articulates with the outer side of the base of the second metatarsal bone, the posterior with the outer side of the middle cuneiform. The rough non-articular surface, which separates the two elongated facets, serves for the attachment of ligaments. The *outer aspect* of the bone is characterised by a large circular or oval facet, placed near its hinder border, for articulation with the cuboid; in front of this the anterior border is lipped above by a small semi-oval facet for articulation with the inner side of the base of the fourth metatarsal. The rest of the bone around and between these facets is rough for ligaments. *Proximally* the bone is furnished with a triangular facet for articulation with the outer wedge-shaped area on the front of the navicular, whilst *distally* it articulates with the base of the third metatarsal by a surface of corresponding shape.

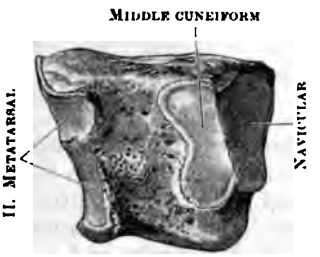


FIG. 194.—RIGHT EXTERNAL CUNEIFORM (Inner Side).

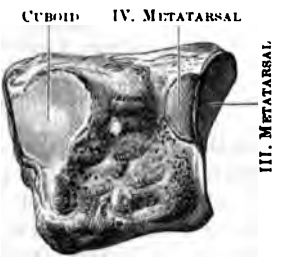


FIG. 195.—RIGHT EXTERNAL CUNEIFORM (Outer Side).

Variations.—Numerous cases of division of the internal cuneiform bone into dorsal and plantar parts have been recorded; the frequent division of its metatarsal articular facet is no doubt correlated with this anomalous condition. T. Dwight has described (*Anat. Anz.*, vol. xx. p. 465) in two instances the occurrence of an Os Intercuneiforme. The ossicle so named lies on the dorsum of the foot at the proximal end of the line of articulation between the internal and middle cuneiform bones.

THE CUBOID BONE.

The **cuboid** (os cuboideum) lies on the outer side of the foot, about its middle, articulating with the os calcis behind and the fourth and fifth metatarsal bones in front. Its *upper surface*, plane in an antero-posterior direction, is slightly rounded from side to side, and provides attachment for ligaments. Its *plantar aspect* is traversed obliquely from without inwards and forwards by a thick and prominent ridge, the outer extremity of which, at the point where it is confluent with the outer surface, forms a prominent **tubercle** (tuberositas oss. cuboidei), the anterior and external surface of which is smooth and faceted to allow of the play of a sesamoid bone which is frequently developed in the tendon of the peroneus longus muscle. In front of this ridge there is a groove (sulcus peronæi) in which the tendon of the peroneus longus muscle is lodged as it passes across the under surface of the bone. Behind the ridge the bone is rough, and serves for the attachment of the short plantar ligament, the superficial fibres of which pass forwards and are attached to the summit of the ridge. The *outer aspect* of the bone

is short and rounded, and is formed by the confluence of the superior
surfaces; it is more or less notched by the peroneal groove which turn
lower edge. The *internal surface* of the bone is the most extensive;
recognisable on account of the presence of a rounded or oval facet situa
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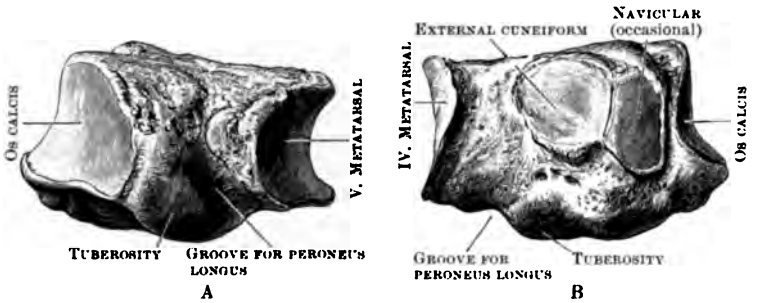

FIG. 196.—THE RIGHT CUBOID BONE
A. Outer Side. B. Inner Side.

small articular surface for the navicular, as is the case normally in the g
behind and below the projecting inferior angle is sometimes provided w
on which the head of the astragalus rests (Sutton, "Proc. Anat. Soc.,"
and Physiol., vol. xxvi. p. 18). The *anterior surface* is oval or conical
sloping obliquely from within outwards and backwards, it is divide
middle by a slight vertical ridge into two parts, the inner of which artic
the base of the fourth metatarsal bone, the outer with that of the
posterior surface, also articular, has a semilunar outline, the convex marg
corresponds to the dorsal roundness of the bone. The inferior external
sponds to the tubercle on the outer border of the bone, whilst the inferi
angle forms a pointed projection which is sometimes called the calcane
The posterior surface articulates with the os calcis by means of a sa
facet, which is convex from side to side, and concave from above downw

Variations.—Blandin has recorded a case of division of the cuboid.

The **tarsus as a whole** may be conveniently described as arranged in two c
inner, corresponding to the inner border of the foot, comprising the astragalus, n
three cuneiforms, and forming a base for the support of the three inner metatars
their phalanges. The outer column, formed by the os calcis and cuboid, suppor
and fifth metatarsal bones together with their phalanges. The superior surface of
portion of the tarsus determines the side-to-side roundness of the instep, whilst its
forms arches in both a transverse and longitudinal direction, in which the softer t
sole are lodged, and so protected from injury.

Architecture of the Bones of the Foot.—A longitudinal section through th
bones of the foot reveals the fact that the cancellous structure of each individual bone i
by the stress to which it is habitually subjected. In this connexion it is necessary t
arched arrangement of the bones of the foot, a subject which is also treated in the s
deals with the Joints. The summit of the arch is formed by the astragalus, on which r
Subjected as the astragalus is to a crushing strain, it is obvious that this load must b
throughout the arch, of which the os calcis is the posterior pillar, whilst the heads
tarsal bones constitute the anterior pillar. It is found, consequently, that the lamell
cellous tissue of the astragalus are arranged in two directions, which intercross a
below the superior articular surface. Of these fibres, some sweep backwards and
towards the posterior calcanean facet, beyond which they are carried in the substa
calcis in a curved and wavy manner in the direction of the heel, where they termi
others, curving downwards and forwards from the trochlea of the astragalus, pass
neck to reach the articular surface of the head, through which in like manner
regarded as passing onwards through the several bones which constitute the anterio
arch, thus accounting for the longitudinal striation as displayed in the structure
cular, cuneiform, and metatarsal bones. In the os calcis, in addition to the forego
ment, another set of curving fibres sweep from back to front of the bone beneath th
pact tissue which forms its under shell. These are obviously of advantage to prevei
of the bone when subjected to the crushing strain. In the sustentaculum tali a
arrangement of fibres is evident, and the under surface of the neck of the astragal
strengthened by lamellæ arranged vertically.

In the separate bones the investing envelope is thin, though under the artic
there is a greater density, due to the accession of lamellæ lying parallel to the arti

ıe **stoutest bony tissue in the astragalus** is met with in the region of the under surface of the ck, **whilst in the os calcis** the greatest density occurs along the floor of the sinus tarsi.

Numerical Variation in the Tarsus.—**Increase in the number** of the tarsal elements may ı due to the occurrence of division of either the internal cuneiform or the cuboid bone, or to ıe **occasional presence of an os trigonum.** Cases of separation of the tuberosity of the navicular ɔne **have been recorded, and instances of supernumerary ossicles** between the internal cuneiform ıd **second metatarsal bone have been noted.** Stieda mentions the occurrence of a small ossicle ı connexion with the articular surface on the fore and upper part of the os calcis, and Pfitzner ıotes the occurrence of an os sustentaculi. For further information on the variations of the keleton of the foot, see Pfitzner (*Morphologische Arbeiten*, vol. vi. p. 245).

The possibility of an injury having been the cause of the occurrence of some of these so-called ıupernumerary ossicles must not be overlooked. The use of the Röntgen rays has proved that ıccidents of this kind are much more frequent than was at first supposed.

The **reduction in the number** of the tarsus is due to the osseous union of adjacent bones. In many instances this is undoubtedly pathological, but cases have been noticed (Leboucq) of fusion of the cartilaginous elements of the os calcis and astragalus, and the os calcis and navicular in fœtuses of the third month.

Ossification.—Unlike the carpus, the tarsus is at birth partially ossified. At this period there is a well-marked osseous nucleus within the body and neck of the astragalus, and the os calcis is extensively ossified. In the latter the deposition of earthy matter appears as early as the sixth month of fœtal life, whilst in the astragalus the ossific centre makes its appearance in the later weeks of gestation. Shortly before or after birth the

A B

FIG. 197.—RADIOGRAPHS OF THE FŒTAL FOOT.

A. Between the seventh and eighth months. Here the ossific nuclei of the os calcis and astragalus are seen.
B. At birth. The centres of ossification for the os calcis and astragalus are well developed, the nucleus for the cuboid is quite distinct, and in this instance the external cuneiform is already commencing to ossify. Compare this figure with Fig. 155, in which the carpus is shown as still cartilaginous at birth.

cuboid begins to ossify, succeeded early in the first year by the external cuneiform, followed in order by the middle cuneiform, internal cuneiform, and navicular. The ossific centre of the latter appears at the third year or somewhat later. An epiphysis, which forms a cap over the extremity of the great tuberosity of the os calcis, appears from the seventh to the ninth year, and fusion is completed between the ages of sixteen and twenty.

THE METATARSUS.

The **metatarsal bones**, five in number, in their general configuration resemble ıe metacarpus. They are, however, slightly longer, their bases are proportionately

larger, their shafts more slender and laterally compressed, and their heads proportionately smaller. They are named numerically the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth metatarsal bones, in order from within outwards. The first can be readily recognised on account of its stoutness; it is also the shortest of the series. The second is the longest of the five, and the fifth can easily be distinguished by the projecting tubercle at its base.

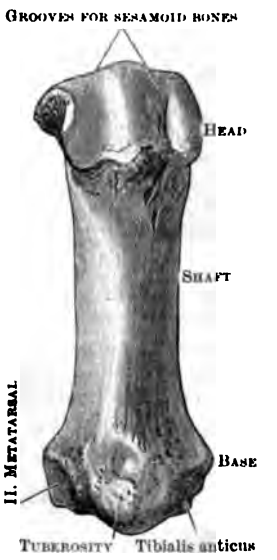

Fig. 198.—The First Metatarsal Bone of the Right Foot (Plantar Aspect).

The **first metatarsal** or metatarsal bone of the great toe, the shortest of the series, is remarkable for its stoutness. Its base, where the bone is provided with a reniform facet for articulation with the internal cuneiform, is wider from before backwards than from side to side. As a rule there are no facets on the lateral aspects of the base. The inferior angle projects backwards and outwards, and forms a prominent tubercle which is pitted for the insertion of the tendon of the peroneus longus muscle, whilst its internal margin is lipped by a surface for the attachment of part of the tendon of the tibialis anticus. The shaft, short, thick, and prismatic on section, tapers rapidly towards the head, the fore and under surfaces of which are articular. The former is convex from side to side, and from above downwards, and supports the proximal phalanx. It is confluent below with the inferior articular surface, which is divided by a median ridge into two shallow grooves, of which the inner is the wider. In these grooves are lodged the two sesamoid bones which underlie the metatarso-phalangeal joint. On either side of the head the bone is pitted for the strong lateral ligaments of the joint.

The **second metatarsal**, the longest of the series, has a base of wedge-shaped form, the proximal aspect of which articulates with the middle cuneiform. On its

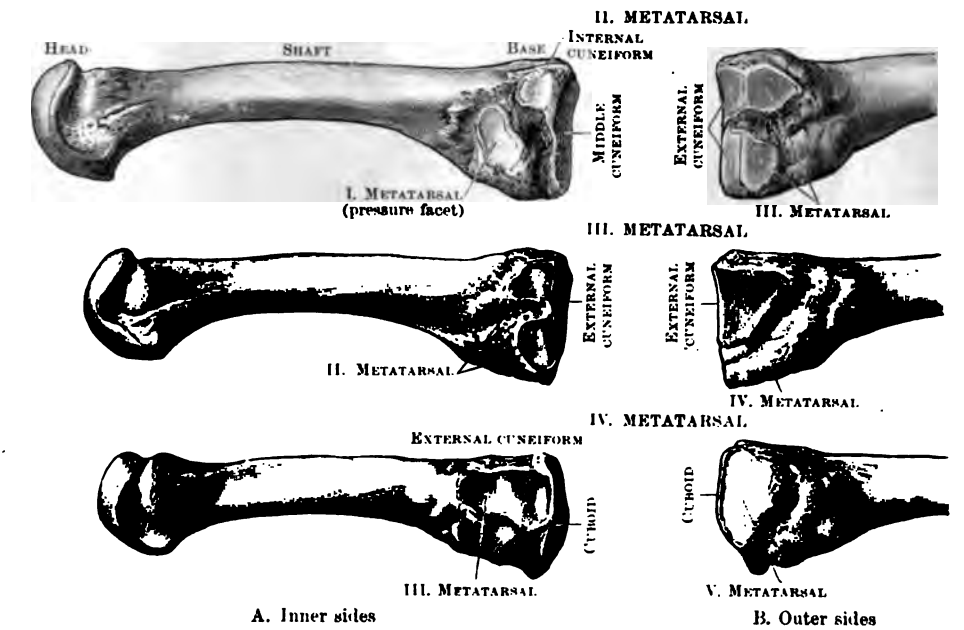

Fig. 199.—View of the Bases and Shafts of the Second, Third, and Fourth Metatarsal Bones of the Right Foot.

inner aspect, near its superior edge, there is a small circular facet for th internal cuneiform; below and in front of this there is sometimes a tubercle witl a "pressure" facet on it, where the bone comes in contact with the base of th first metatarsal. On the outer side of the base there is one, more usually two smal

ets, each divided into two parts, a posterior for articulation with the external neiform, and an anterior for the base of the third metatarsal. The shafts of this d the three succeeding bones are slender and laterally compressed. The heads e small and narrow, and display a pronounced side-to-side and vertical convexity.

The **third metatarsal bone** also possesses a base of wedge-shaped form, the roximal surface of which articulates with the external cuneiform. On its inner de it is provided with one, more usually two, small facets, for articulation with the ase of the second metatarsal. Externally the base has a larger facet for articulation with the base of the fourth metatarsal, more or less onical in outline, and having its lower edge sharply defined y a narrow groove which underlies it.

The **fourth metatarsal** has a base more cubical in shape. ts proximal aspect articulates with the cuboid, whilst internally an elongated oval facet, divided by a slight vertical idge, provides surfaces for articulation with the third metatarsal in front and the outer side of the internal cuneiform ehind. On the outer side there is a demi-oval facet, bearing a slightly saddle-shaped surface, for articulation with the inner ide of the base of the fifth metatarsal.

The **fifth metatarsal** can be readily recognised by the peculiar shape of its base, from the outer side of which there projects backwards and outwards a prominent tubercle (tuberositas oss. metacarpi V.) To the hinder extremity of this is attached the tendon of the peroneus brevis muscle. To its upper surface the tendon of the peroneus tertius is inserted, whilst its under surface provides an origin for the flexor brevis minimi digiti muscle. The inner surface of the base is provided with a demi-oval, slightly concave facet, for the outer side of the base of the fourth metatarsal, whilst proximally it articulates with the cuboid by means of a semicircular facet.

FIG. 200.—FIFTH RIGHT METATARSAL BONE (Dorsal Aspect).

Vascular Foramina.—The canals for the nutrient vessels open, as a rule, on the plantar aspects of the middle of the shafts. Those of the outer metatarsals are directed towards the bases of the bones, whilst that for the metatarsal of the great toe passes towards its head.

Architecture.—In structure and the arrangement of their lamellæ the metatarsal bones agree with the metacarpus.

Variations.—Several instances of separation of the tuberosity of the fifth metatarsal (os Vesalianum) have been recorded, whilst numerous examples of an os intermetatarsum between the bases of the first and second metatarsal bones have been recorded by Gruber and others. The tubercle on the base of the first metatarsal for the attachment of the peroneus longus tendon is occasionally met with as a separate ossicle.

Ossification.—In correspondence with the mode of ossification which maintains in the metacarpus, the primary centres for the metatarsus appear as early as the third month of fœtal life. In the case of the second, third, fourth, and fifth, these centres furnish the bases and shafts of the bones, the heads being developed from secondary centres which appear from two to four years after birth, fusion with the shaft being usually completed about the eighteenth year. In striking contrast to this is the mode of ossification of the first metatarsal. From its primary centre the head and shaft is developed; the secondary centre appears at its **base** about the second or third year, and unes with the shaft about eighteen. In this respect, therefore, the metatarsal bone of he great toe resembles in its mode of development the phalanges. Mayet, however *Bull. Soc. Anat. Paris*, 1895), describes the occurrence of two ossific centres in the roximal epiphysis. These fuse early, and he considers that the one represents the metatarsal element, whilst the other may be regarded as phalangeal in its origin.

THE PHALANGES.

The **phalanges** of the toes (phalanges digitorum pedis) differ from those of the fingers in the striking reduction of their size, and in the case of the bones of the first row, in the lateral compression of their shafts. Each toe is provided normally with three phalanges, except the great toe, which has only two. In their general configuration and in the arrangement of their articular facets they resemble the

digital phalanges, though, owing to the reduction in their size, the shafts, pa larly those of the second row, are often so compressed longitudinally as to r the bone to a mere nodule. The proximal end of ea the bones of the first row is proportionately large, a provided with a simple hollow in which the head o metatarsal bone rests; the distal ends are furnished condyloid surfaces. The proximal extremities of the s row are each provided with two small concavities, sep by a slight ridge for articulation with the condyles o first row. The joint between the second and thir displays the same arrangement—the third, termir ungual phalanx, being easily distinguished by the sp shaped surface at its extremity on which the bed of th is supported.

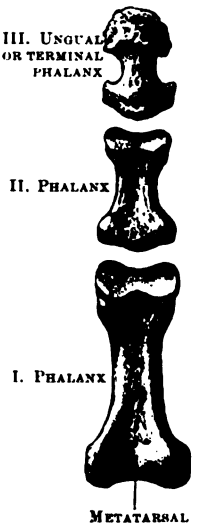

Fig. 201.—The Phalanges of the Toes (Dorsal Aspect).

The phalanges of the great toe, two in number, from the others in their size and length. Into the b the first phalanx are inserted the short muscles o great toe, whilst the second phalanx receives o plantar aspect the insertion of the flexor longus ha muscle, the tendon of the extensor longus hallucis inserted into the dorsal aspect.

Architecture.—In their general structure they resemb bones of the fingers.

Variations.—It is not uncommon to meet with fusion second and third phalanges, particularly in the fifth, less fre in the fourth, and occasionally in the second and third toes. The union of the pha elements has been observed in the fœtus as well as the adult (Pfitzner). The propor length of the phalanges varies much; in some cases the ungual phalanges are of fair s bones of the second row being mere nodules, whilst in other instances the reduction in siz terminal phalanges is most marked.

Ossification.—Each phalanx is developed from two centres—one primary f shaft and distal extremity, the other for the epiphysis on the proximal end. The primary centres for the ungual phalanges are the first to appear, commencing to ossify from the eleventh to the twelfth week of fœtal life. The centre for the ungual phalanx of the great toe makes its appearance before that of its corresponding metatarsal bone. The primary centres for the phalanges of the first row appear from the fourteenth to the sixteenth week. The primary centres for the middle phalanges of the second and third toes begin to ossify about the sixth month, those for the fourth and fifth toes not till later—the shaft of the middle phalanx of the fourth toe being frequently cartilaginous at birth, the normal condition in the case of the fifth toe (Lambertz). The proximal epiphyses do not begin to ossify until about the fourth year, and are usually fused with the diaphyses about the age of sixteen or ei Union between the shafts and epiphyses of the first row precedes that of the seco third rows.

Fig. 202.

A. About the end of the third month. The primary centi the metacarpus are shown as well as the centres phalanges of the great toe and the terminal phalan third toe.

B.[1] A little later. The centres for the terminal phalange four inner toes are seen, as well as the centres for phalanges of the great and second toe.

C. About the fourth month. The centres for all the phalanges as well as those of the first row are well oss

D. About the fifth month. In this the centre for the phalanx of the second toe has already made its appear

[1] This specimen displays the occurrence of anomalous centres w tarsus the significance of which is not apparent. The appearance i to any defect in the plate but recurred in repeated skiographs.

Sesamoid Bones.

As in the hand, small independent nodules of bone, called **sesamoid bones**, are met h in the ligaments and tendons of the foot. The most constant of these are found in nexion with the metatarso-phalangeal articulation of the great toe, where they lie in oves on the under surface of the head of the metatarsal bone in connexion with the dons of the short muscles of the great toe. Small osseous nodules occupying a responding position are occasionally met with in the other toes, and instances have en recorded of like ossicles occurring on the plantar aspect of the interphalangeal joint the great toe.

An osseous nodule is not infrequently met with in the tendon of the peroneus longus it turns round the outer border of the foot to lie in the groove on the under surface of e cuboid.

MORPHOLOGY OF LIMBS.

Development and Morphology of the Appendicular Skeleton.

The paired limbs first appear in the human embryo about the third week as small buds on ther side of the cephalic and caudal ends of the trunk. That these outgrowths are derived from large number of trunk segments is assumed on the ground that they are supplied by a corre-onding number of segmental nerves, and the circumstance that they are more particularly sociated with the ventral offsets of these nerves would point to the conclusion that they belong ther to the ventral than the dorsal surface of the body.

At first the surfaces of these limb buds are so disposed as to be directed ventrally and dorsally, e ventral aspect corresponding to the future flexor surface of the limb, the dorsal to the ex-nsor side. At the same time, the borders are directed headwards (pre-axial), and tailwards ost-axial). As the limbs grow, they soon display evidence of division into segments correspond-g to the hand and foot, forearm and leg, upper arm and thigh. Coincident with this (about the ond month) the cartilaginous framework of the limb is being differentiated. The disposition these cartilages furnishes a clue to their homologies. In the fore limb the radius and thumb e along the pre-axial borders, and correspond to the tibia and great toe, which are similarly dis-ed in the hind limb; whilst the ulna and fifth finger are homologous with the fibula and fifth e, which are in like manner arranged in relation to the posterior (post-axial) border of their spective limbs. Up to this time the limbs are directed obliquely ventralwards from the head wards the tail-end of the embryo. During the third month, however, a change in their posi-n takes place, owing to their axes being rotated in opposite directions. The fore limb is rned outwards and forwards to the extent of 90°, whilst the lower hind limb is twisted inwards d backwards to a corresponding degree. This gives rise to a change in the disposition of the nts of the flexor and extensor surfaces. The flexor surface of the elbow is now directed for-rds, whilst the corresponding aspect of the knee is turned backwards, and in consequence the nal or extensor aspect of the fore limb is posterior, whilst the dorsal or extensor aspect of the nd limb has become anterior. Correspondingly, the pre-axial border of the fore limb with the umb now lies external, whilst the pre-axial border of the hind limb with the great toe has come internal. A knowledge of these changes is necessary to account for the homologies of the rious structures within the limb. In the axial mesoderm of each member, differentiation to cartilaginous segments begins about the second month; each of these cartilages becomes in-sted by a perichondrial layer which stretches from segment to segment, and ultimately forms e ligaments surrounding the joints, which are subsequently developed between the segments. ondrification first begins in the basal part of the limb, and extends towards the digits. In the per arm and thigh the humerus and femur are homodynamous. In the forearm and leg the e-axial radius corresponds with the pre-axial tibia, and the post-axial ulna with the post-axial bula. The homodynamy of the carpal and tarsal elements may be tabularly expressed, and mpared with the more generalised types from which they are evolved.

Type.	Hand.	Foot.
Radiale (Tibiale)	= Scaphoid (body)	= Astragalus.
Intermedium	= Semilunar	= Absent, or Os trigonum (?)
Ulnare (Fibulare)	= Cuneiform	= Os Calcis.
Centrale	= Absent, or Tubercle on Scaphoid	= Navicular.
Carpale (Tarsale), i.	= Trapezium	= Internal Cuneiform.
Carpale (Tarsale), ii.	= Trapezoid	= Middle Cuneiform.
Carpale (Tarsale), iii.	= Os Magnum	= External Cuneiform.
Carpale (Tarsale), iv. } Carpale (Tarsale), v. }	= Uncifform	= Cuboid.

The pisiform is omitted from the above table, since it is now generally regarded as being a estige of an additional digit placed post-axial to the little finger (digitus post-minimus). Its omologue in the foot is by some considered as fused with the os calcis. Similarly, on the pre-xial border of the hand and foot, vestiges of a suppressed digit (prepollex and prehallux) may

occasionally be met with. The frequent occurrence of an increase in the number of digits seems to indicate that phylogenetically the number of digits was greater than at present, and included a prepollex or prehallux, and a digitus post-minimus. The correspondence of the metacarpus with the metatarsus and the phalanges of the fingers with those of the toes is so obvious that it is sufficient merely to mention it.

The differences in size, form, and disposition of the skeletal elements of the hand and foot is easily accounted for by a reference to the functions they subserve.

In the hand strength is sacrificed to mobility, thus leading to a reduction in the size of the carpal elements, and a marked increase in the length of the digital phalanges. The freedom of movement of the thumb, and its opposability to the other digits, greatly enhances the value of the hand as a grasping organ. In the foot, where stability is the main requirement, the tarsus is of much greater proportionate size, whilst the phalanges are correspondingly reduced. Since the foot no longer serves as a grasping organ, the great toe is not free and opposable like the thumb.

Limb Girdles.—The free limbs are linked to the axial skeleton by a chain of bones which constitute their girdles. The fundamental form of these limb girdles consists each of a pair of carved cartilages placed at right angles to the axis of the trunk on either side, and embedded within its musculature. Each cartilage has an articular surface externally, about the middle, for the reception of the cartilage of the first segment of the free limb. In this way each pectoral and pelvic cartilage is divided into an upper or dorsal half and a lower or ventral half. The dorsal halves constitute the scapula and ilium of the pectoral and pelvic girdles respectively. With regard to the ventral halves there is more difficulty in establishing their homologies. The original condition is best displayed in the pelvic girdle; here the ventral segment divides into two branches—one anterior, which represents the pubis, the other posterior, which ultimately forms the ischium. Ventrally, the extremities of these cartilages unite to enclose the obturator foramen. In the pectoral girdle the disposition of the ventral cartilages is not so clear, consisting primitively of an anterior branch or precoracoid, and a posterior portion or coracoid; these, in higher forms, have undergone great modifications in adaptation to the requirements of the free limbs. The posterior or coracoid element, the homologue of the ischial cartilage in the pelvic girdle, is but feebly represented in man by the coracoid process and the coraco-clavicular ligament. With regard to the homologue of the pubic element in the pectoral girdle, there is much difference of opinion; in reptiles and amphibia it corresponds most closely to the precoracoid, but it is doubtful what represents it in mammals. According to Goette and Hoffman, the clavicle is a primordial bone, and not, as suggested by Gegenbaur, of secondary or dermic origin. If this be so, it corresponds to the ventral anterior segment of the pectoral girdle, and is therefore homologous with the ventral anterior (pubic) segment of the pelvic girdle. On the other hand, if Gegenbaur's view be accepted, the clavicle has no representative in the pelvic girdle. It must, however, be borne in mind that during its ossification it is intimately associated with cartilage, and that that cartilage may represent the precoracoid bar; nor must too great stress be laid upon the fact that the clavicle begins to ossify before it is performed in cartilage, since that may be merely a modification in its histogenetic development.

According to another view (Sabatier), the subcoracoid centre (see Ossification of Scapula) is derived from the posterior ventral segment, and corresponds to the ischium, whilst the coracoid process is the remains of the anterior ventral segment (precoracoid), and is homodynamous with the pubis.

In no part of the skeleton does function react so much on structure as in the arrangement of the constituent parts of the pectoral or pelvic girdles. In man, owing to the assumption of the erect position and the pipedal mode of progression, the pelvic girdle acquires those characteristic which are essentially human, viz. its great relative breadth and the expansion of its iliac portions, which serve as a support to the abdominal viscera, and also furnish an extensive origin to the powerful muscles which control the movements of the hip-joint. The stability of the pelvic girdle is insured by the nature of its union with the axial skeleton, as well as by the osseous fusion of its several parts, and their union in front at the symphysis pubis.

In man, since the erection of the figure no longer necessitates the use of the fore limb as a means of support, the shoulder girdle has become modified along lines which enhance its mobility and determine its utility in association with a prehensile limb. Some of its parts remain independent (clavicle and scapula), and are united by diarthrodial joints, whilst others have become much reduced in size or suppressed (coracoid-precoracoid, see *ante*). The dorsal part of the girdle (scapula) is not directly united with the axial skeleton as is the ilium, but is only indirectly joined to it through the medium of the clavicle, which is linked in front with the presternum. The same underlying principles determine the differences in mobility and strength between the shoulder, elbow, and wrist, and the hip, knee, and ankle joints of the fore and hind limbs respectively, whilst the utility of the hand is further enhanced by the movements of pronation and supination which occur between the bones of the forearm. In the leg such movements are absent, as they would interfere with the stability of the limb.

THE ARTICULATIONS OR JOINTS.

ARTHROLOGY.

By David Hepburn.

Arthrology is that branch of human anatomy which treats of the articulations or joints.

An articulation or joint constitutes a mode of union or connexion subsisting between any two separate segments or parts of the skeleton, whether osseous or cartilaginous, and having for its primary object either the preservation of a more or less rigid continuity of the parts joined together, or else to permit of a variable degree of mobility, subject to the restraints of the uniting media.

Classification of Joints.—In attempting to frame a classification of the numerous joints in the body, several considerations must be taken into account, viz. the manner and sequence of their appearance in the embryo; the nature of the uniting media in the adult, and also the degree and kind of movement permitted in those joints where movement is possible.

In this way we obtain two main subdivisions of joints:—

(1) Those in which the uniting medium is coextensive with the opposed surfaces of the bones entering into the articulation, and in which a direct union of these surfaces is thereby effected.

(2) Those in which the uniting medium has undergone more or less of interruption in its structural continuity, and in which a cavity of greater or less extent is thus formed in the interior of the joint.

To the first group belong all the immovable joints, many of which are likewise of temporary duration; to the second group belong all joints which possess as their outstanding features mobility and permanence.

SYNARTHROSES.

The general characteristics of this group are partly positive and partly negative. Thus there is uninterrupted union between the opposed surfaces of the bones joined together at the plane of the articulation, *i.e.* there is no trace of a joint cavity, and further, there is an entire absence of movement. Developmentally, these joints result from the approximation of ossific processes which have commenced from separate centres of ossification, and therefore the nature of the uniting medium varies according as the bones thus joined together have originally ossified in membrane or in cartilage. In the former case union is effected by an interposed fibrous membrane continuous with and corresponding to the periosteum. To such articulations the term **suture** (Fig. 203) is applied. In the latter case the uniting medium is a plate of hyaline cartilage. Such articulations are called **synchondroses** (Fig. 204). In all the synchondroses, and in many of the sutures, the uniting medium tends to disappear in the progress of

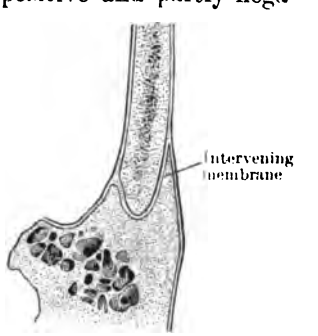

Fig. 203.—Vertical Section through a Suture.

ossification, and thus the plane of articulation becomes obliterated, so that structural continuity between the osseous segments takes place. The pr

FIG. 204. — SECTION THROUGH THE OCCIPITO-SPHENOID SYNCHONDROSIS.

features common to all synarthroses are—(*a*) conti and direct union of the opposing surfaces; (*b*) nc cavity; (*c*) no movement.

Suture.—This form of synarthrosis is only fou connexion with the bones of the skull. In a number of cases the bones which articulate by s present irregular interlocking margins, between there is the interposed fibrous membrane to which ence has already been made. When these interlo margins present well-defined projections they are s form true sutures—**sutura vera**; on the other hand, the opposed surfaces present ill-defined projectio even flat areas, they are described as false sutu **sutura notha.** In each of these subdivisions the part characters of the articulating margins are utilised in framing additional descr terms. Thus true sutures may possess interlocking margins whose projectio tooth-like (sutura dentata), *e.g.* in the interparietal suture; saw-like (sutura se (Fig. 205) *e.g.* in the interfrontal suture; ridge-like, or comparable to the parallel ridges on the welt of a boot (sutura limbosa). Similarly false sutures may articulate by margins which are scale-like (sutura squamosa), *e.g.* in the squamoso-parietal suture; or by rough opposed surfaces (sutura harmonia), *e.g.* in the suture between the palate plates of the superior maxillary bones. There is one variety of synarthrosis which, in the adult, can scarcely be called a suture, although the differences are of minor importance, viz. **schindylesis,** which is an articulation between the edge of a plate-like bone, such as the rostrum of the sphenoid, and the cleft in another, such as the vomer.

FIG. 205.—
SERRAT

Synchondrosis.—Illustrations of this group can only be found in the young growing individual, because as age advances and growth ceases, the process of ossification affects the hyaline cartilage which stitutes the uniting medium, and the plane of articulation disappears. Unde heading we may include the planes of junction between all epiphyses an shafts or diaphyses to which they severally belong. The occipito-sphenoid 204) and the petro-jugular articulations in the base of the skull provide well-marked examples.

MOVABLE JOINTS.

The leading features of this group are capability of **movement and perma** In very few instances do such joints ever become obliterated under norma ditions. Determining their permanence, and regulating the amount of pc movement, there is always more or less of interruption in the continuity structures which bind the osseous elements together. That is, there is always evidence of a joint cavity, although as a matter of course such interruptio never be so extensive as to entirely disassociate the articulating elements. T fore in all movable joints a new class of structures is found, viz. the **ligamen** means of which continuity is maintained even when all the other uniting have given place to a joint cavity. The further subdivision of this group is fo upon the amount of movement permissible, and the extent to which the joint takes the place of the original continuous uniting medium. Thus we obta partly movable or **amphiarthroses**, and the freely movable or **diarthroses.**

An **amphiarthrosis** (Fig. 208) presents the following characteristics partial movement; (*b*) union by ligaments and by an interposed plate or d fibro-cartilage, in the interior of which there is, (*c*) an incomplete or partial cavity which may be lined by a rudimentary synovial membrane whose funct is to secrete a lubricating fluid, the **synovia** or joint-oil; (*d*) a plate of h

artilage coating each of the opposing surfaces of the bones concerned. All the oints belonging to this group occur in the mesial plane of the body. It includes he symphysis pubis, the joints between the bodies of the vertebræ, and the joint etween the manubrium sterni and the gladiolus.

A diarthrosis (Fig. 206) is the most elaborate as well as the most complete form f articulation. It is characterised by (*a*) capability of movement which is more or ess free in its range; (*b*) a reduction of the uniting structures to a series of retaining ligaments; (*c*) a joint cavity which is only limited by the surrounding ligaments; (*d*) the constant presence of **synovial membrane**; (*e*) hyaline encrusting cartilage which clothes the opposed surfaces of the articulating bones. The majority of the joints in the adult belongs to this group. This series of joints has been subdivided into a number of minor sections, in order to emphasise the occurrence of certain well-marked structural features, or because of the particular nature of the movement by which they are characterised. Although in all diarthroses there is a certain amount of *gliding* movement between the opposed surfaces of the bones which enter into their formation, yet, when this gliding movement becomes their prominent feature, as in most of the joints of the carpus and tarsus, they are termed **arthrodia**. But bones may be articulated together so as to permit of movement in one, two, or more fixed axes of movement, or in modifications of these axes. Thus in **uniaxial joints** the axis of movement may lie in the longitudinal axis of the joint, in which case the **rotatory form** of joint results, as in the superior and inferior radio-ulnar articulations; or it may correspond with the transverse axis of the articulation, as in the elbow-joint and knee-joint, when the **ginglymus** or **hinge variety** results. If movement takes place about two principal axes situated at right angles to each other, as in the radio-carpal joint, the terms **biaxial** or **condyloid** are applied. Movements occurring about three principal axes placed at right angles to each other, or in modifications of these positions, constitute **multiaxial joints**, in which the associated structural peculiarities provide the alternative terms of **enarthrodial** or **ball-and-socket joints**.

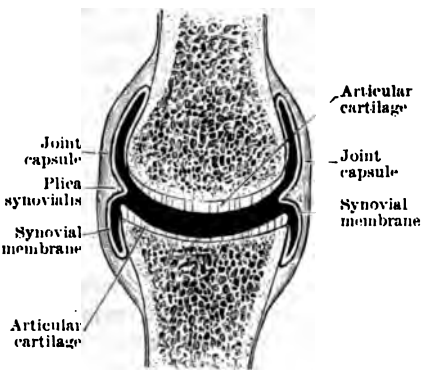

FIG. 206.—DIAGRAM OF A DIARTHRODIAL JOINT.

STRUCTURES WHICH ENTER INTO THE FORMATION OF JOINTS.

The structures which enter into the formation of joints vary with the nature of the articulation. In every instance there are two or more skeletal elements, whether bones or cartilages, and in addition there are the uniting media, which are either simple or elaborate according to the provision made for rendering the joint more or less rigid or capable of movement. We have already seen that the uniting medium in **synarthrodial joints** is a remnant of the common matrix, whether fibro-vascular membrane or hyaline cartilage, in which ossification has extended from separate centres. Among the **amphiarthroses** there is still extensive union between the opposing surfaces of the articulating bones, but the character of the uniting medium has advanced from the primitive embryonic tissue to fibrous and fibro-cartilaginous material, as well as hyaline cartilage. These, with very few exceptions, are permanent, non-ossifying substances, such as may be seen between the opposing, osseous surfaces of two vertebral bodies. The joint cavity, more or less rudimentary, is confined to the centre of the fibro-cartilaginous plate, and may result from the softening or imperfect cleavage of the central tissue. It may also present rudiments of a synovial membrane.

In the **diarthrodial group** the extensive cavity has produced great interruption in the continuity of the uniting structures which originally existed between the bones forming such a joint. Ligaments have therefore additional importance in this group, for not only do they constitute the uniting media which bind the articulating bones together, but to a large extent they form the peripheral

boundary of the joint cavity, although not equally developed in all positi Thus every diarthrodial joint possesses a fibrous or ligamentous envelope **capsule** which is attached to the adjacent ends of the articulating bones. special purposes, particular parts of the capsule may undergo enlargement thickening, and so constitute strong ligamentous bands, although still forming c tinuous constituents of the capsule.

Within the capsule a series of intracapsular structures are present. Thus capsule itself is always lined by a **synovial membrane**,[1] which is continued from inner surface of the capsule to the surface of the intracapsular portion of e articulating bone. The part of the bone included within the capsule consists o "non-articular" portion covered by synovial membrane, and an "articular" port covered by encrusting hyaline cartilage. The latter provides the surface wh comes into apposition with the corresponding area of another bone. In its gene disposition the synovial membrane may be likened to a cylindrical tube open each end. This membrane is richly supplied by a close network of vessels a nerves.

Certain diarthroses present additional intracapsular structures which may distinguished as interarticular ligaments and interarticular fibro-cartilages.

Interarticular ligaments extend between and are attached to non-articular ar of the intracapsular portions of the articulating bones. They usually occupy long axis of the joint, and occasionally they widen sufficiently to form partiti which divide the joint-cavity into two compartments, *e.g.* the costo-central, a certain of the chondro-sternal joints.

Interarticular fibro-cartilages or **menisci** (Fig. 207) are more or less compl partitions situated between and separating opposing articular surfaces, and wl complete they divide the joint cavity into two distinct compartments. By periphery, a meniscus is rather to be associa with the joint capsule than with the arti lating bones, although its attachments n extend to non-articular areas on the latter

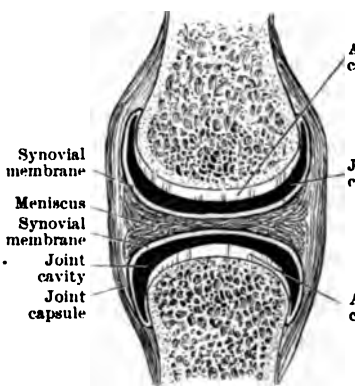

FIG. 207.—DIAGRAM OF A DIARTHRODIAL JOINT WITH AN INTERARTICULAR MENISCUS DIVIDING THE JOINT-CAVITY INTO TWO COMPARTMENTS.

Both interarticular ligaments and men have their free surfaces covered by syno membrane.

Adipose tissue forming pads of varying is usually found in certain localities wit the joint, between the synovial membrane the surfaces which it covers. These pads soft and pliable, and act as packing mate filling up gaps or intervals in the jo During movement they adapt themselve the changing conditions of the articulatio

In addition to merely binding together or more articulating bones, ligaments perf very important functions in connexion v the different movements taking place at a joint. They do not appreciably lengt under strains, and thus ligaments may act as inhibitory structures, and by bec ing tense may restrain or check movement in certain directions.

Synovial membranes, in the form of closed sacs termed **synovial bursæ**, are frequently f in other situations besides the interior of joints. Such bursæ are developed for the purpo reducing the friction, (*a*) between the integument and certain prominent subcutaneous bony jections, as, for instance, the point of the elbow, or the front surface of the patella (subcutan synovial bursæ); (*b*) between a tendon and some surface, bony or cartilaginous, over whi plays (subtendinous synovial bursæ); (*c*) between a tendon or a group of tendons and the of osteo-fascial tunnels, in which they play (thecal synovial bursæ). Subtendinous syn bursæ are often placed in the neighbourhood of joints, and in such cases it not infrequ

[1] The term "synovial membrane" has been so long in use that one hesitates to discard it, even althoug structure so described is not in many cases capable of being *removed* from the objects of which it forms a A more precise description in these cases would be "synovial surface." There is still considerable c whether the "synovial fluid" is a true secretion or merely a diluted friction product.

appens that there is a direct continuity between the bursa and the synovial membrane which nes the cavity of the joint through an aperture in the joint capsule.

THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF MOVEMENT AT JOINTS.

Reference has already been made to the existence of fixed axes of movement as a basis for the classification of certain forms of diarthrodial joints. Hence it is evident that the movements which are possible at any particular joint depend to a large extent upon the shape of its articular surfaces as well as upon the nature of its various ligaments. Therefore the technical terms descriptive of movements either indicate the directions in which they occur, or else the character of the completed movement.

In the great majority of articulations between short bones, the amount of movement is so restricted, and the displacement of the opposing articular surfaces so slight, that the term **gliding** sufficiently expresses its character.

A **gliding** movement of an extensive kind, for example that of the patella upon the femur, in which the movement largely resembles that of the tyre of a wheel revolving in contact with the ground so that different parts are successively adapted to each other, is called **co-aptation**.

Articulations between long bones, on the other hand, are usually associated with a much freer range of movement, with a corresponding variety in its character. **Rotation** is a movement about an axis which is longitudinal. Sometimes it is the only form of movement which a joint possesses; at other times it is merely one of a series of movements capable of execution at the same joint. **Flexion** or bending is a movement in which the formation of an angle between two parts of the body is an essential feature. As it is possible to perform this movement in relation to two axes, viz. a transverse and an antero-posterior axis, it is necessary to introduce qualifying terms. Thus, when two anterior or ventral surfaces are approximated, as at the hip-, elbow-, or wrist-joints, the movement is called **ventral, anterior,** or **palmar flexion**; but if posterior or dorsal surfaces be approximated by the process of bending, then the flexion becomes **posterior** or **dorsi-flexion**, as at the knee- or wrist-joints. Further, at the wrist-joint, the formation of an angle between the ulnar border of the hand and the corresponding aspect of the forearm, produces **ulnar flexion**, and similarly the bending of the hand towards the radial border of the forearm is **radial flexion**.

Extension or straightening consists in obliterating the angle which resulted from flexion. In the case of certain joints, therefore, such as the elbow, wrist, and knee, the segments of the limb occupy a straight line as regards each other when extended.

At the ankle-joint the natural attitude of the foot to the leg is flexion at a right angle. The diminution of this angle by approximating the dorsum of the foot towards the front of the leg constitutes *flexion*; while any effort at placing the foot and leg in a straight line, *i.e.* obliteration of the angle, as in pointing the toes towards the ground and raising the heel, constitutes *extension*.

Abduction is a term which either expresses movement of an entire limb, in a direction away from the mesial plane of the body, or of a digit, away from the plane of the middle finger in the hand, or the plane of the second toe in the case of the foot.

Adduction is the reverse of abduction, and signifies movement towards the mesial plane of the body, or towards the planes indicated for the digits of the hand and foot.

Circumduction is a movement peculiarly characteristic of multiaxial or ball-and-socket joints. It consists in combining such angular movements as flexion, extension, abduction, and adduction, so as to continue the one into the other, whereby the joint forms the apex of a cone of movement, and the free end of the limb travels through a circle which describes the base of this cone.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF JOINTS.

Just as the question of structure determines to a large extent the presence or absence of movement in joints, so in tracing their development it will be found that the

manner of their appearance forecasts their ultimate destination as immovable or mo able articulations.

All joints arise in mesodermic tissue which has undergone more or less differentiatio

When this differentiation has produced a continuous membranous layer, in whic ossific centres representing separate skeletal segments make their appearance, we get th primitive form of suture. The plane of the articulation merely indicates the limit o the ossific process extending from different directions. If, again, the differentiation o the mesoblast has resulted in the formation of a continuous cartilaginous layer, in whic ossification commences at separate centres, the plane of the articulation is marke out by the unossified cartilage—in other words, the articulation is a synchondrosis. Ult mately this disappears through the extension of the process of ossification.

To some extent sutures also disappear, although their complete obliteration is no usual even in aged people. Developmentally, therefore, synarthroses or immovabl joints do not present any special structural element, and, speaking generally, they hav only a temporary existence.

The development of all movable joints is in marked contrast to that of synar throses. Not only are they permanent arrangements so far as concerns normal conditions but they never arise merely as planes which indicate the temporary phase of an ossifi process. From the outset they present distinct skeletal units, from which the specia structures of the joint are derived.

The primitive movable joint is first recognised as a mass of undifferentiated meso dermic cells situated between two masses, which have differentiated into primitive cartilage

The cell-mass which constitutes the joint-unit presents the appearance of a thick cellular disc, the proximal and distal surfaces of which are in accurate apposition with th primitive cartilages, while its circumference is defined from the surrounding mesoderm b a somewhat closer aggregation of the cells of which the disc is composed. From thi cellular disc or joint-unit all the structures characteristic of amphiarthrodial and dia throdial joints are ultimately developed.

Thus by the transformation of the circumferential cells into fibrous tissue the inves ing ligaments are produced. Within the substance of the disc itself a transverse cleft more or less well-defined and complete, makes its appearance. In this manner the disc i divided into proximal and distal segments, separated from each other by an interv which is the primitive joint cavity. This cleft, however, never extends so far as to inte rupt the continuity of the circumferential part of the disc which develops into the fibro tissue of the investing ligaments. From the proximal and distal segments of th articular disc the various structures, distinctive of movable joints, are developed.

Thus, in amphiarthrodial joints the cellular articular disc or primitive joint-unit giv origin to the following structures:—From its circumference, investing ligaments; fro its interior, the fibro-cartilaginous plate or disc in which an imperfect joint cavity wi corresponding imperfect synovial may be found.

In the case of a diarthrodial joint the changes take place on a more extended scal The joint cavity becomes a prominent feature, in relation to which the surroundi fibrous structures form an investing capsule, lined by a synovial membrane.

When a single cleft arises, but does not extend completely across the longitudinal a of the articular disc, the undivided portion develops into fibrous interarticular ligamen On the other hand, when two transverse clefts are formed, that portion of the cellul disc which remains between them becomes transformed into a fibro-cartilaginous int articular disc or meniscus, which in its turn may either be complete or incomplete, a thus we may obtain two distinct synovial joint cavities belonging to one articulation.[1]

In considering the development of the synovial membrane, and the surfaces on whi it is found in the interior of a joint, it is necessary to keep clearly in mind that a synov membrane is a special structure, whose function it is to produce a lubricating fluid synovia, and that, therefore, its position is determined by the essential necessity proximity to a direct blood-supply. In other words, this condition is provided by parts of the interior of a joint cavity except the articular encrusting cartilage. Con quently synovial membrane is only absent from the free surface of articular cartila although it forms a thicker layer upon the inner surface of the joint capsule than up the free surfaces of interarticular ligaments and menisci.

[1] From a series of observations upon the development of diarthrodial joints, the writer considers th there is evidence to show that the "cellular articular disc" is directly responsible for the production the epiphyses which adjoin the completed joint cavity, and that, among such amphiarthroses as ex between the bodies of vertebræ, not only the intervertebral disc, but the proximal and distal epiphy which ultimately unite with the vertebral bodies have a common origin in the joint-unit.

It is not necessary to suppose that the synovial membrane has disappeared from these ticular cartilages as the result of friction, because, notwithstanding constant friction, ch parts as the interior of capsular ligaments or the semilunar cartilages of the knee-int have not been denuded of their synovial covering.

MORPHOLOGY OF LIGAMENTS.

From what has been said in connexion with the development of joints, it will be evident at ligaments are essentially products derived from the cellular articular disc.

Nevertheless, in relation to the fully-formed joint, many structures are described as ligaments hich do not take origin in the manner just indicated. Some of these ligamentous structures emain fairly distinct from the capsular ligaments with which they are immediately associated; thers become thoroughly incorporated with the capsular ligaments and cannot be separated herefrom, while yet others may be found situated within the capsule of a joint, and thus play he part of interarticular ligaments.

Instances of each of these forms of adventitious ligaments may be readily given. For example, we may instance the expansion of the tendon of the semimembranosus muscle to the posterior ligament of the knee-joint, and the offshoots from the tendon of the tibialis posticus muscle to the plantar aspects of various tarsal bones, as illustrations of structures which play an important part as ligaments, but are not indelibly incorporated with the joint capsule.

Of structures which have become indelibly incorporated with the primitive capsule, we may instance the broad tendinous expansions of the quadriceps extensor muscle around the knee-joint.

The internal lateral ligament of the same joint is regarded as a detached portion of the tendon belonging to that part of the adductor magnus muscle which takes origin from the ischium, while the external lateral ligament of the knee is considered by some to be the primitive femoral origin of the peroneus longus muscle. Another illustration of the same condition is found in the coraco-humeral ligament, which is regarded by some as representing a detached portion of the pectoralis minor muscle.

Two illustrations may be given of structures playing the part of ligaments within the capsule of a joint, although in the first instance they are not developed as ligaments. It is questionable if the ligamentum teres of the hip-joint is an interarticular ligament in the true sense of the term; it has been regarded as the isolated and displaced tendon of the ambiens muscle found in birds. In the shoulder-joint, many observers look upon the superior gleno-humeral ligament as representative of the ligamentum teres.

Such structures as the stylohyoid ligament and the internal lateral ligament of the temporo-mandibular joint, although described as ligaments, are in reality skeletal parts which have not attained their complete ossific development.

Again, certain portions of the deep or muscular fascia of the body which become specialised into restraining and supporting bands (*e.g.* the ilio-tibial band of the fascia lata; the stylo-mandibular ligament; the anterior and posterior annular ligaments of the wrist-joint; the anterior, inner, and outer annular ligaments of the ankle-joint), although called ligaments, have no direct developmental association with articular ligaments.

Lastly, the ligament of Poupart and the ligament of Gimbernat, being special developments in connexion with an expanded tendon or aponeurosis, are still further removed from association with an articulation.

LIGAMENTS OF THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN AND SKULL.

All vertebræ, with the exception of those which deviate from the common vertebral type, present two sets of articulations whose various parts are arranged upon a uniform pattern. Thus every pair of typical vertebræ presents an articulation between the centra, termed **intercentral**, and a pair of articulations between the neural arches, called **interneural**. With the latter there are associated various important accessory ligaments which bind together laminæ, spinous processes, and transverse processes.

Intercentral Articulations.—These are amphiarthrodial joints. Singly, they present only a slight degree of mobility, but when this amount of movement is added to that of the whole series, the range of movement of the spine becomes considerable. The articular surfaces are the flattened surfaces of adjacent vertebral bodies. They are bound together by the following structures:—

Intervertebral Discs (fibro-cartilagines intervertebrales, Fig. 208).—Each disc accommodates itself to the space it occupies between the two vertebral bodies, to both of which it is firmly adherent. The discs, from different parts of the spinal column, vary in vertical thickness, being thinnest from the third to the seventh dorsal vertebra, and thickest in the lumbar region. In the cervical and lumbar regions each disc is thicker in front than behind, thereby assisting in the production of the

anterior convexity which characterises the spinal column in these two regions. In the dorsal region the discs are thinnest on their anterior aspects in correspondence with the anterior concavity of this section of the spine.

Each disc consists of a circumferential portion (annulus fibrosus), formed for

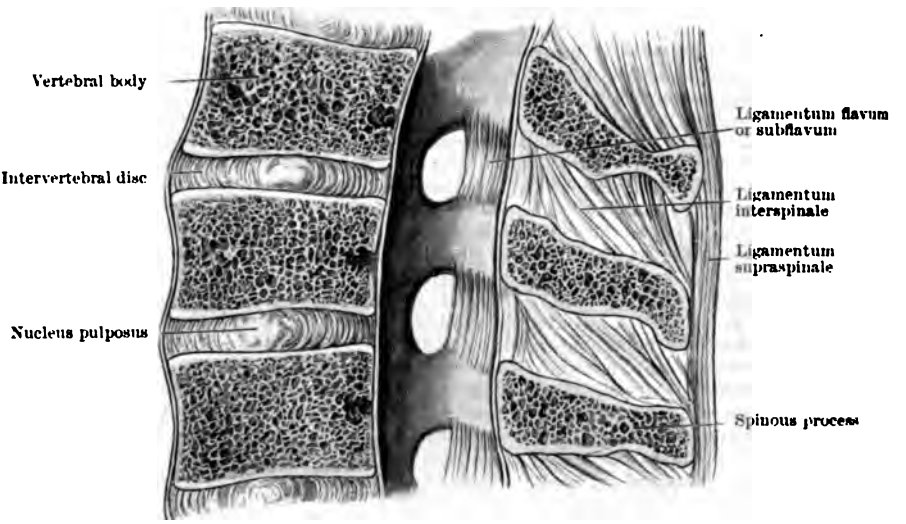

FIG. 208.—MESIAL SECTION THROUGH A PORTION OF THE LUMBAR PART OF THE SPINE.

the most part of oblique parallel fibres running from one vertebra to the other. Horizontal fibres are also found. The axial or central part of the disc is elastic, soft, and pulpy (nucleus pulposus).[1]

The upper and lower surfaces of the disc are closely adherent to the adjoining

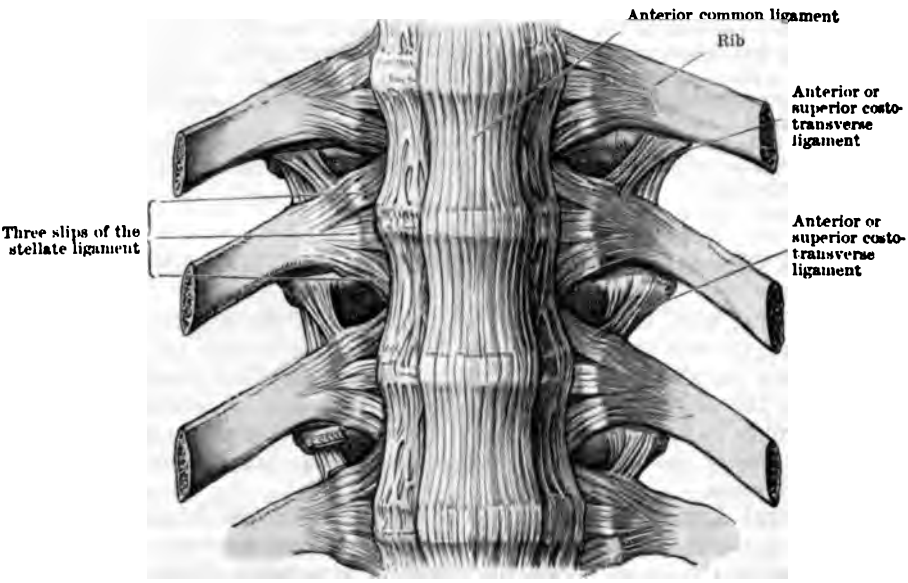
Anterior common ligament
Rib
Anterior or superior costo-transverse ligament
Three slips of the stellate ligament
Anterior or superior costo-transverse ligament

FIG. 209.—ANTERIOR COMMON LIGAMENT OF THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN, AND THE COSTO-VERTEBRAL JOINTS AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT.

epiphyseal plates of the vertebral bodies, and as ossification advances, the distinction between epiphyseal plates and vertebral body disappears.

As a rule the transverse diameter of the disc corresponds to that of the vertebral bodies which it joins together; but in the cervical region, where the lowe

[1] This pulpy substance does not present a joint cavity, but in certain cases it is more or less divided by fissures which occupy a transverse horizontal direction.

argin of the superimposed vertebra is overlapped on each side by the one which ars it, the disc does not extend to the extreme lateral margin, and in this position small diarthrosis may be seen at each lateral margin of the disc.

The **anterior common ligament** (lig. longitudinale anterius, Fig. 209) consists f a wide stratum of longitudinal fibres which extends from the front of the axis ertebra to the front of the upper segment of the sacrum, and becomes gradually ider from above downwards. It lies in front of the intervertebral discs, to which t is firmly attached as it passes from one vertebra to the other. Its fibres vary in ength. Some are attached to contiguous margins of two adjoining vertebræ; others pass in front of one vertebra to be attached to the next below, and yet others find their lower attachment three or four vertebræ below the one from which they started. None of the fibres are attached to the transverse depression on the front of a vertebral body.

The **posterior common ligament** (lig. longitudinale posterius, Fig. 210) is found within the spinal canal upon the posterior aspect of the vertebral bodies. It consists of longitudinal fibres, and it extends from the back of the sacrum to the axis vertebra, superior to which it is continued to the skull as the posterior occipito-axial ligament. Opposite each intervertebral disc it is attached to the entire width of the adjacent margins of the two vertebral bodies, its fibres being continued over the posterior surface of the disc. In the lumbar and dorsal regions the width of the ligament is considerably reduced opposite the back of each vertebral body, and thus it forms a series of dentate projections along both of its margins; but in the cervical region the width of the ligament is more uniform.

One or two large thin-walled veins escape from the body of each vertebra under cover of this ligament.

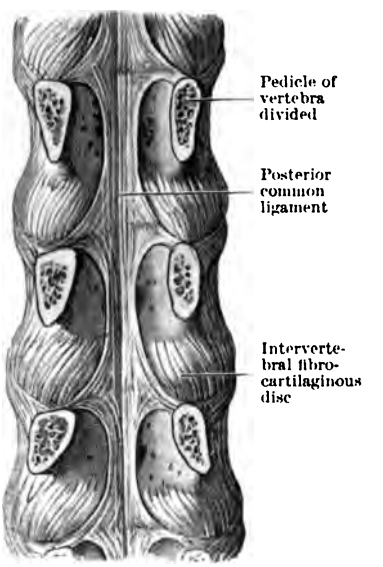

FIG. 210.—POSTERIOR COMMON LIGAMENT OF THE VERTEBRAL COLUMN.

Interneural Articulations.—The neural arch of each typical vertebra carries two pairs of articular processes, by means of which it articulates with adjacent neural arches. The articulations between these processes are true diarthroses of the arthrodial variety.

The distinctive characters of these articular surfaces, as regards their shape and direction in the different groups of vertebræ, have been referred to in the section on osteology.

All these articulations are provided with complete but very thin-walled **capsules** (capsulæ articulares), which are thinnest and loosest in the cervical region, where also the movements are freest. Each capsule is lined by a **synovial membrane.**

Associated with these interneural joints are certain ligaments which are accessory to the articulations, although they are quite distinct from the capsule.

The laminæ of adjoining vertebræ are bound together by the **ligamenta subflava** (ligamenta flava vel subflava, Fig. 211), which consist of yellow elastic fibres. The ligamenta subflava close the spinal canal in the intervals between the laminæ. Each ligament is attached superiorly to the anterior aspect of one lamina at a short distance above its lower border, and inferiorly it is attached to the posterior aspect of the subjacent lamina.

In the dorsal region, where the imbrication of adjoining laminæ is a prominent feature, these ligaments are not so distinctly visible from behind as they are in the regions where imbrication of the laminæ is not so marked.

Laterally they extend as far as the articular capsules, while mesially the margins of the ligaments of opposite sides meet under cover of the root of the spinous process.

Contiguous pairs of spinous processes are also attached to each other by **interspinous ligaments** (ligamenta interspinalia, Fig. 208). These are strongest in the

lumbar, and weakest in the dorsal region. Each consists of layers of ob interlacing fibres which spring from near the tips of the two adjacent spin radiate to their op margins. In the a posterior directio extend from the l the tip of the s process.

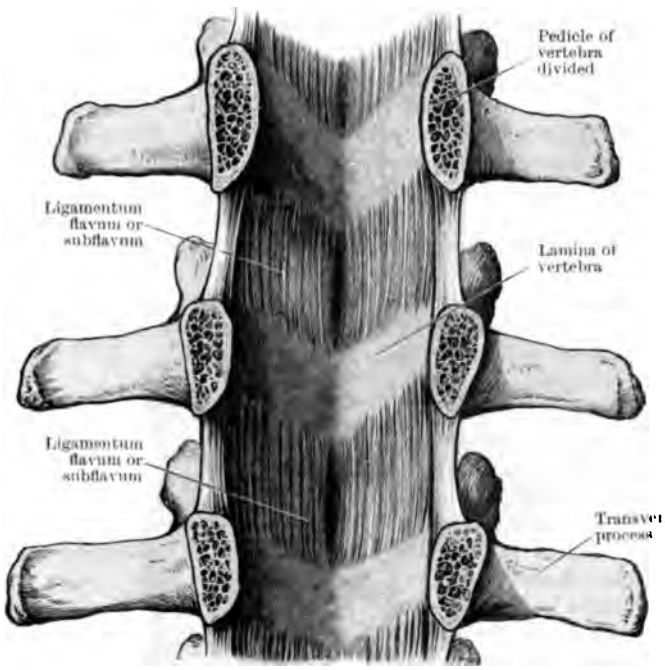

FIG. 211.—LIGAMENTA SUBFLAVA AS SEEN FROM THE FRONT AFTER REMOVAL OF THE BODIES OF THE VERTEBRÆ BY SAWING THROUGH THE PEDICLES.

The **supraspinou ments** (ligg. s spinalia, Fig. 208)(of longitudinal ba fibres of varying le They extend from to spine, being atta their tips, and are si superficial to, alt in continuity wit interspinous ligam

In the cervical this series of liga is extensively dev where they project wards from the s processes betwee muscles of the tw of the neck in the of an elastic pa called the **ligam nuchæ**.

The antero-posterior extent of the ligamentum nuchæ increases as it appr the occiput, where it is attached to the occipital crest from the external oc protuberance to the posterior border of the foramen magnum. Its posterior m is free, and extends from the external occipital protuberance to the spine vertebra prominens.

Between the transverse processes there are **intertransverse ligaments** (ligg. transversaria), which consist of vertical fibres extending from the postero-in aspect of one transverse process to the superior margin of that next below. ligaments are generally absent from the cervical and upper dorsal regions.

Sacro-coccygeal Joint.—The last piece of the sacrum is joined to the piece of the coccyx by an intervertebral disc, and the junction is rei more secure by the presence of certain strong ligaments. An **anterior lig** (lig. sacro-coccygeum anterius), continuous with the anterior common ligam placed in front. A **posterior ligament** (lig. sacro-coccygeum posterius), stretches downwards from the sharp border of the lower opening of the canal, strengthens the joint behind. A **lateral ligament** (lig. sacro-cocc laterale) supports the joint on each side, whilst strong bands pass betwe cornua of the two bones and constitute the **interarticular ligaments**.

Inter-coccygeal Joints.—So long as they remain separate, the different of the coccyx are joined by intervertebral discs and by anterior and posterio ments.

Movements of the Vertebral Column.—Although the amount of movement peri between any two vertebræ is extremely limited, yet the total range of movement cap being attained by the entire vertebral column is very considerable.

Flexion may occur both forwards and backwards at the intercentral articulations, bu freely in the lumbar and cervical regions than in the dorsal region, where the limited am intervertebral disc and the imbrication of the laminæ and spines restrict the movement. ward flexion is most pronounced in the cervical region, and forward flexion in the lumbar Between the articular surfaces of the interneural articulations a variety of movements a mitted, dependent upon the directions of these surfaces. Thus **lateral flexion** is permi

the lumbar, but not in the cervical or dorsal regions. Again, in the lumbar region rotation does not occur, owing to the shape of the articular processes, while it is possible in the dorsal region. In the cervical region the shape and position of the articular surfaces prevent the occurrence both of lateral flexion and of rotation as isolated movements, but a combination of these two movements may take place, whereby rotatory movement in an oblique median axis results. Finally, in the lumbar region, by combining the four forms of flexion, viz. forward, backward, and lateral, a certain amount of circumduction is possible.

Articulation of Atlas with Axis.

Between these two vertebræ three diarthroses occur. Two of them are situated laterally in relation to the articular processes, and are called arthrodial diarthroses, because of the flattened nature of the articulating surfaces. The third articulation is mesial in position. It is found between the smooth anterior surface of the odontoid process of the axis and the articular facet on the posterior aspect of the anterior arch of the atlas. This joint is a rotatory diarthrosis.

Ligaments.—Each of the joints is furnished with a **capsular ligament** whereby

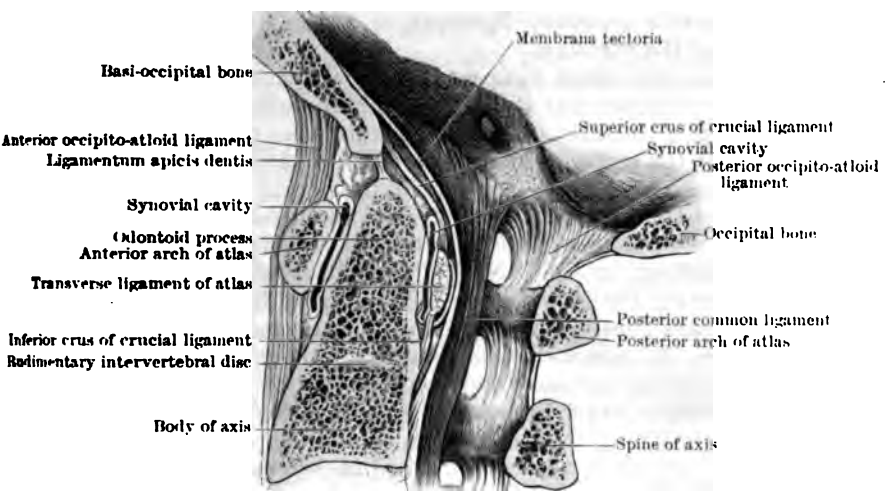

Fig. 212.—Mesial Section through the Occipito-atloid and Atlo-axoid Joints.

the joint cavity is circumscribed. In the case of the lateral articulations, each capsular ligament presents a distinct band, named the **accessory ligament**, which is situated within the neural canal (Fig. 213), and passes downwards and inwards from the lateral mass of the atlas to the superior aspect of the body of the axis.

The following additional ligaments constitute the leading bonds of union:—

The **anterior atlo-axoid ligament** (Fig. 212) is a membranous structure which is thin laterally, but strong mesially where it is thickened by a prolongation of the anterior common ligament. It extends from the anterior arch of the atlas to the front of the body of the axis.

The **posterior atlo-axoid ligament** (Fig. 212) occupies the position which is elsewhere taken by the ligamenta subflava. It extends from the posterior arch of the atlas to the upper border of the neural arch of the axis.

The **transverse ligament of the atlas** (lig. transversum atlantis, Figs. 212 and 213) is a strong band, placed transversely, which arches backwards behind the neck of the odontoid process of the axis. By its extremities it is attached to the tubercle on the inner aspect of each lateral mass of the atlas. A thin plate of fibro-cartilage is developed in its central part.

Synovial membrane lines each of the three capsular ligaments, and in addition a synovial sac is developed between the odontoid process and the transverse ligament. This is more extensive than the synovial cavity between the odontoid process and the atlas.

Articulation of Spine with Cranium.

There are two articulations between the atlas and the occiput. Each i diarthrosis in which movement takes place in relation to two axes, viz. transverse and the antero-posterior. The condyle of the occiput being biconv fits into the biconcave superior articular surface of the atlas, while the long axes the two joints are directed horizontally forwards and inwards.

Ligaments.—Each articulation is provided with a **capsular ligament** which thin but complete. It is attached to the rough non-articular surfaces surroundi the articular areas on the atlas and occiput.

The following supplementary ligaments are the chief structures which bind t atlas to the occiput:—

The **anterior occipito-atloid ligament** (membrana atlanto-occipitalis anteri Fig. 212) is a strong although thin membrane, attached inferiorly to the anteri arch of the atlas, and superiorly to the anterior half of the circumference of t foramen magnum. Laterally it is in continuity with the capsular ligaments, wh in the mesial plane, where it extends from the anterior tubercle of the atlas to t basi-occiput, it presents a specially well-defined thickened band which might regarded as a separate accessory ligament or as the beginning of the anter common ligament of the vertebræ.

The **posterior occipito-atloid ligament** (membrana atlanto-occipitalis posteri Fig. 212) is another distinct but still thin membrane which is attached superio to the posterior half of the circumference of the foramen magnum, and inferiorly the upper border of the posterior arch of the atlas. Laterally it also is continuc with the capsular ligaments. On each side of the mesial plane its inferior borc is arched in relation to the vertebral groove, and is therefore to some extent fr in order to permit the passage of the posterior primary division of the first cervi nerve and the vertebral artery. Not infrequently this arched border becon ossified, thus converting the groove in the bone into a foramen.

Synovial membrane lines each of the capsular ligaments. There is no dir articulation between the axis and the occiput, but union between them is effect by means of the following accessory ligaments:—

The **posterior occipito-axoid ligament** (membrana tectoria, Fig. 213) is situat within the neural canal, and is usually regarded as the upward continuation of t posterior common ligament of the vertebral bodies. It extends from the poster

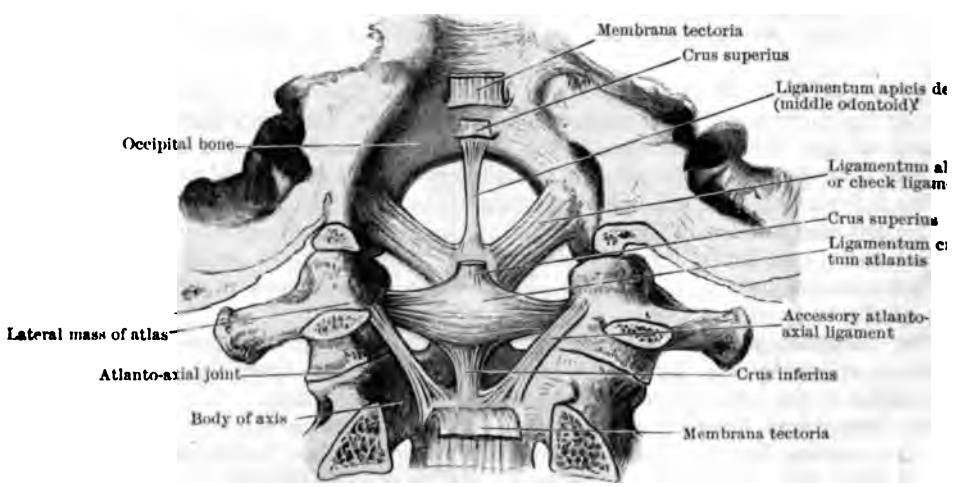

Fig. 213.—Dissection from behind of the Ligaments connecting the Occipital Bone, the Atl and the Axis with each other.

surface of the body of the axis to the basilar groove on the upper surface of basi-occipital bone, spreading laterally on the circumference of the foran magnum. Some of its deepest fibres are attached to the atlas immediately ab the atlo-axoid articulation.

Subjacent to the preceding ligament there is the **ligamentum cruciatum atlantis** Fig. 213), a structure which is very closely associated with the lig. transversum tlantis. It consists of a *crus transversum*, formed by the superficial fibres of he transverse ligament of the atlas; a *crus inferius*, consisting of mesial longiudinal fibres which are attached below to the posterior surface of the body of the axis, and above to the crus transversum and a *crus superius*, also mesial and ongitudinal, whose fibres extend from the crus transversum upwards to the posterior surface of the basi-occiput, immediately subjacent to the posterior occipito-axoid ligament.

The **check ligaments** or **lateral odontoid ligaments** (ligamenta alaria, Fig. 213) are two very powerful, short, and somewhat rounded bands. They are attached mesially to the sides of the summit of the odontoid process, and laterally to the tubercle on the inner aspect of the condylar portions of the occipital bone, viz. the ex-occipital bones.

The **middle odontoid ligament** (ligamentum apicis dentis, Fig. 213) consists of fibres running vertically upwards from the apex of the odontoid process to the mesial part of the anterior margin of the foramen magnum. This ligament to some extent represents an intervertebral disc, in the centre of which remains of the notochord may be regarded as present.

Even in advanced life a small lenticular mass of cartilage, completely surrounded by bone, persists in the plane of fusion between the odontoid process and the body of the axis.

Movements at these Joints.—At the joints between occiput and atlas the movements are very simple, and consist essentially of movements whereby the head is elevated and depressed upon the vertebral column (nodding movements). In addition a certain amount of oblique movement is possible, during which great stability is attained by resting the front and hinder parts of opposite condyles upon corresponding parts of the atlas.

The head and the atlas rotate together upon the axis, the pivot of rotation being the odontoid process, and the amount of rotation is limited by the check ligaments. No rotation can occur between the occiput and atlas, and stability between atlas and axis is best attained after a slight amount of rotation, similar to the oblique movement between occiput and atlas.

TEMPORO-MANDIBULAR JOINT.

This joint is an arthrodial **diarthrosis**. It occurs between the articular part of the glenoid fossa of the temporal bone and the condylar head of the mandible. These two articular surfaces are markedly dissimilar both in size and shape. In its general outline the articular surface of the head of the mandible is cylindrical, having its long axis directed from within outwards and forwards. On the other hand, the articular part of the glenoid fossa in front of the Glaserian fissure is concavo-convex from behind forwards. Its articular surface includes the eminentia articularis, the eminence at the base of the anterior root of the zygoma. The articular surfaces of the bones are clothed by hyaline encrusting cartilage, whilst the joint cavity is divided into an upper and lower part by a meniscus of fibro-cartilage.

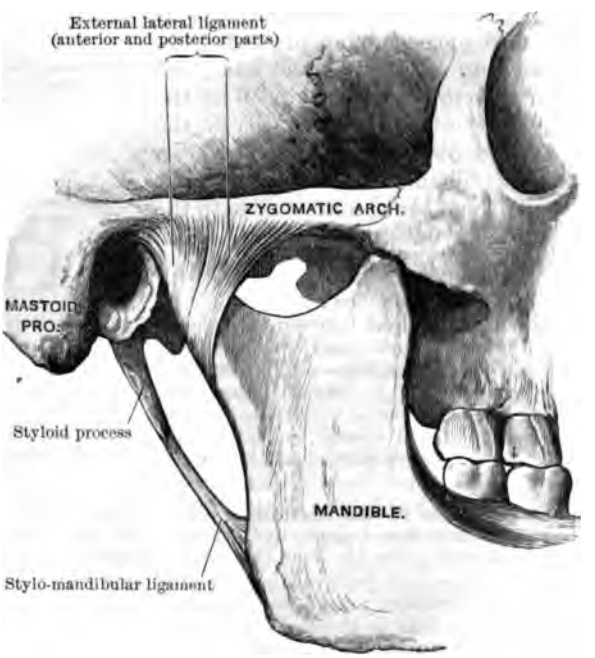

FIG. 214.—TEMPORO-MANDIBULAR JOINT.

Ligaments.—The joint is invested by a **capsular ligament** which is quite com-

plete, but is very thin on the inner side. The outer wall of the capsul **external lateral ligament** (lig. temporo-mandibulare, Fig. 214)—is divisibl anterior and posterior portions which are attached superiorly to the root t and lower border of the zygom inferiorly to the outer side and po border of the neck of the mandible. direction of its fibres is downward backwards.

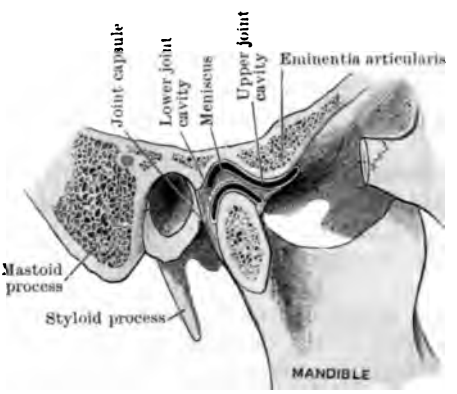

FIG. 215.—SECTION THROUGH THE TEMPORO-MANDIBULAR JOINT.

Within the capsule there is an articular disc or meniscus of fibro-car the **discus articularis** (Fig. 205), wh moulded upon the condyle of the ma below, and on the articular surface temporal bone above. It thus compe for the incongruity between the art surfaces of the two bones. The attached circumferentially to the ca It is widest in the transverse dir thicker behind than in front, and th towards the centre, where it may b forated. Its anterior margin is intimately associated with the insertion external pterygoid muscle.

A **synovial membrane** lines each of the compartments into which the cavity is divided by the meniscus. As a rule these membranes are separate each other, but they become continuous when the disc is perforated. The synovial membrane is larger and more loosely disposed than the lower.

Situated on the mesial aspect of the joint, but at a short distance from i quite distinct from the capsule, there is an accessory band called the in **lateral ligament** (lig. spheno-mandibulare, Fig. 216). Superiorly it is attached to the spinous process of the great wing of the sphenoid bone, and inferiorly to the lower as well as the hinder border or lingula of the inferior dental foramen. It is not an articular ligament in the true sense, for instead of being connected with the joint, it is developed in the tissue surrounding part of Meckel's cartilage.

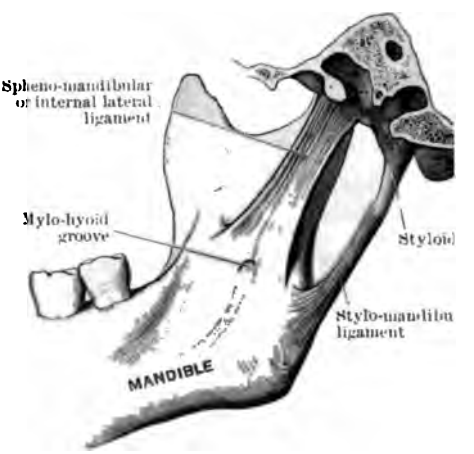

FIG. 216.—INTERNAL LATERAL LIGAMENT OF TEMPORO-MAXILLARY JOINT.

Portions of the following structures are found in the interval between the spheno-mandibular ligament and the ascending ramus of the mandible—viz. the external pterygoid muscle; internal maxillary vessels; inferior dental vessels and nerve; middle meningeal vessels; auriculo-temporal nerve; a deep portion of the parotid gland.

Movements of the Mandible.—The nature of the movements which the lower j perform is determined partly by the character of the articular surfaces of the temporo-man joint, and partly by the fact that, while the two joints always act simultaneously, th also, to some extent, perform the same movement alternately.

When movement takes place through the long or transverse horizontal axis of eacl the mandible may be elevated, as in clenching the teeth, or it may be depressed, as in In the latter movement the condyle leaves the glenoid fossa, and, along with the meni moves forwards until they rest upon the articular eminence. Meantime the chin descri arc of a circle, of which the centre or point of least movement corresponds to the positior inferior dental foramen, and thus the structures which enter at that foramen are pr against stretching. Coincidently with the forward movement of the condyle, it glid revolving manner upon the inferior aspect of the meniscus.

At any stage in the movement of depressing the chin the mandible may be protru that the inferior incisor teeth are projected in front of the upper set, a movement which from the condyles of the jaw being drawn forwards upon the articular eminences. A

elation of the condyle to the articular eminence occurs during the exaggerated depression of he mandible which results from yawning, in which position the articulation is liable to be lislocated. When the two joints perform the same movement alternately, a certain amount of ateral motion results, from the fact that the long axis of each joint presents a slight obliquity o the transverse axis of the skull, and consequently a grinding or oblique movement in the horizontal plane is produced. Excessive depression, with the risk of dislocation, is resisted by the fibres of the external lateral ligament which becomes tense.

In all movements of the mandible the meniscus conforms closely to the position of the condyle, and they move forwards and backwards together, but at the same time the meniscus does not restrict the movements of the condyle. Thus while the meniscus, along with the condyle, is gliding upon the temporal aspect of the joint, the condyle itself revolves upon the inferior surface of the meniscus.

Cranial Ligaments not directly associated with Articulations.

The **stylo-mandibular ligament** (lig. stylo-mandibulare, Figs. 214 and 216) is a specialised portion of the deep cervical fascia which extends from the anterior aspect of the tip of the styloid process of the temporal bone to the posterior border of the angle of the mandible, between the insertions of the masseter and internal pterygoid muscles.

The **pterygo-spinous ligament** (lig. pterygo-spinosum) is a membrane extending from the upper part of the posterior free margin of the external pterygoid plate, backwards and slightly outwards, to the spinous process of the sphenoid. An interval is left between its upper border and the floor of the skull for the outward passage of those branches of the inferior maxillary nerve which supply the external pterygoid, temporal, and masseter muscles. This ligament has a tendency to ossify either wholly or partially.

The **stylo-hyoid ligament** (lig. stylo-hyoideum) may be regarded as the downward continuation of the styloid process of the temporal bone. Inferiorly it is attached to the lesser cornu of the hyoid bone. It is not infrequently ossified, in which case it constitutes the epihyal bone found in many animals.

THE JOINTS OF THE THORAX.

Costo-vertebral articulations (articulationes costo-vertebrales). The typical rib articulates with the vertebral column both by its head and by its tubercle. Thus, two sets of articulations, with their associated ligaments, exist between the ribs and the vertebræ, but each set is constructed upon a common plan, with the exception of certain joints situated at the upper and lower ends of the series, where the ribs themselves deviate from the typical form.

Costo-Central Joints.

The articulations of the heads of the ribs with the centra or bodies of the vertebræ (articulationes capitulorum, Fig. 209) are all diarthroses, which, from their somewhat hinge-like action, may be classed as ginglymoid.

The head of every typical rib is wedge-shaped, and presents two articular facets, an upper and a lower, separated from each other by an antero-posterior ridge which abuts against an intervertebral disc, while the articular facets articulate with similar surfaces on the contiguous margins of the two vertebræ adjoining the disc. These surfaces form a wedge-shaped depression or cup, the bottom of which is more elastic than the sides, and thus an arrangement is provided which tends to reduce the shock of blows upon the walls of the chest.

Each of these articulations is provided with a **capsular ligament** which surrounds and encloses the joint, and is attached to contiguous non-articular margins on the head of the rib and the two vertebral bodies. On its anterior or ventral aspect the capsule presents three radiating fasciculi which collectively form the **stellate or anterior costo-vertebral ligament** (lig. capituli costæ radiatum, Fig. 209). These fasciculi radiate from a centre on the front of the head of the rib, so that the middle fasciculus becomes attached to the intervertebral disc while

the upper and lower fasciculi proceed to the adjacent margins of the two vertebræ between which the disc is situated, and with which the rib articulates. To a slight extent these radiating fasciculi pass under cover of the lateral margin of the anterior common ligament of the vertebral bodies. In those joints in which the head of the rib does not articulate with an intervertebral disc the central fasciculus of the stellate ligament is wanting, but the other two retain the same general arrangement.

The **interarticular ligament** (lig. capituli costæ interarticulare) consists of short transverse fibres within the capsule. These are attached, on the one hand, to the ridge which intervenes between the two facets on the head of the rib, and on the other to the lateral aspect of the intervertebral disc. This ligament is not a meniscus, but merely an interarticular ligament, of width sufficient to divide the joint cavity into an upper and a lower compartment. It is absent from those joints which do not articulate with an intervertebral disc, *i.e.* from those ribs which only articulate with the body of one vertebra.

The interarticular ligament is supposed to represent the outer end of a ligament which, under the name of the **lig. conjugale costarum**, connects the heads of the ribs of certain mammals across the posterior aspect of the intervertebral disc, and, in the human subject, until the seventh month of fœtal life, connects the posterior aspects of the necks of a pair of ribs with each other across the mesial plane.

Synovial membrane lines each joint cavity, and therefore, in all cases where the joint is divided into two compartments, each one has its own synovial lining.

Costo-Transverse Joints.

The tubercle of each *typical* rib articulates with the transverse process of the lower of the two dorsal vertebræ with which the head of the rib is associated (articulatio costo-transversaria). Near the tip of the transverse process there is an articular facet, on its anterior aspect, for articulation with the corresponding facet on the mesial articular part of the rib tubercle. The joint so formed is an arthrodial diarthrosis.

The joint cavity is surrounded by a comparatively feeble **capsular ligament**, which is attached immediately beyond the margins of the articular facets, and in which no special bands can be distinguished.

A simple **synovial membrane** lines the capsular ligament in all cases where the latter is present.

The following accessory ligaments, in connexion with this joint, strengthen and support the articulation:—

The **anterior** or **superior costo-transverse ligament** (ligamentum costo-transversarium anterius, Fig. 209) consists of strong bands of fibres which are attached to the upper border of the neck of the rib, extending from the head outwards to the non-articular part of the tubercle. All these fibres may be traced upwards. Those situated nearest to the head of the rib proceed obliquely upwards and outwards, to be attached to the transverse process immediately above, but with extensions to the adjoining rib and its costo-transverse capsular ligament. Others proceed almost vertically upwards to the adjoining transverse process, while those which ascend from the upper surface of the tubercle pass obliquely upwards and inwards to reach the postero-inferior aspect of the adjoining transverse process.

The **posterior costo-transverse ligament** (ligamentum costo-transversarium posterius) is a band of transverse fibres applied to the postero-external aspect of the capsule. By one end these fibres are attached to the tip of the transverse process behind its articular facet, and by the other to the external rough surface of the tubercle of the rib.

The **middle costo-transverse ligament** (lig. colli costæ) consists of short fibres which stretch from the posterior aspect of the neck of the rib, backwards and inwards, to the front of the transverse process, but, in addition, a proportion of the fibres passes to the posterior aspect of the inferior articular process of the upper of the two vertebræ with which the head of the rib articulates.

The following exceptions to the general plan of rib-articulation indicated above ust be noted:—

1. There is no articulation between the eleventh and twelfth ribs and the transverse processes of the corresponding vertebræ.
2. The superior costo-transverse ligament is wanting from the first rib, and is either rudimentary or wanting in the case of the twelfth rib.
3. The middle costo-transverse ligament is rudimentary in the eleventh and twelfth ribs.

The **ligamentum lumbo-costale** extends from the upper surface of the base of the ransverse process of the first lumbar vertebra to the under surface of the neck of he twelfth rib, as well as to the under surface of the transverse process of the welfth dorsal vertebra.

Articulations between the Ribs and their Cartilages.

Each rib possesses an unossified portion, termed its costal cartilage. As age dvances, this cartilage may undergo a certain amount of superficial ossification, ut it never becomes entirely transformed. The line of demarcation between one and cartilage is clear and abrupt, and usually the bone forms an oval cup, in hich the end of the cartilage is retained by means of the continuity which exists between the periosteum and the perichondrium. There is no articulation in the proper sense between the rib and its cartilage, although a synovial cavity has occasionally been found between the first rib and its cartilage.

Interchondral Joints.

These articulations are arthrodial diarthroses, and they are found between adjoining margins of certain of the costal cartilages, viz. from the fifth to the eighth or ninth. The cartilages which thus articulate develop flattened, somewhat conical, prolongations of their substance, and thereby the intercostal spaces are interrupted where these flat articular facets abut against each other. Each joint is closed by a surrounding **capsular ligament**, the superficial and deep aspects of which are specially strengthened by **external** and **internal interchondral ligaments**. These bands extend obliquely between adjacent cartilages.

A **synovial membrane** lines each joint capsule.

Costo-sternal Joints.

The upper seven pairs of costal cartilages, as a rule, extend to the lateral margins of the sternum (articulationes sternocostales). Of these, the first pair is implanted directly upon the manubrium sterni. The ossific process ends abruptly in connexion with the rib, and also ceases as suddenly in connexion with the sternum, and hence the cartilage does not normally present an articulation at either end.

From the second to the seventh pairs of ribs inclusive, the costo-sternal joints are constructed upon the type of arthrodial diarthroses, although, in the case of the sixth and seventh cartilages, the joint cavity is always small, and is frequently obliterated.

The sternal end of each of these costal cartilages presents a slight antero-posterior ridge which fits into a shallow V-shaped depression upon the lateral margin of the sternum. With the exception of the sixth cartilage, the others articulate opposite the lines of union between the primary segments of the sternum, whereas the sixth articulates upon the side of the lowest segment of the meso-sternum.

Each joint is enclosed by a **capsular ligament**, composed of fibrous tissue, attached to the adjacent borders of the articulating elements. Specially strong fibres distinguish the superficial and deep aspects of the capsule.

The **anterior costo-sternal ligament** (lig. costo-sternalium radiatum, Fig. 217) is composed of strong fibres which radiate from the anterior surface of the costal cartilage, near its sternal end, to the front of the sternum. The ligaments of opposite sides interlace with each other, and so cover the front of the sternum with a felted membrane—the **membrana sterni**.

The **posterior costo-sternal ligament**—also a part of the capsule—has attachments similar to the foregoing, but the arrangement of its fibres is not so powerful.

The **ligamentum costo-xiphoidea** passes from the front of the upper part of the xiphoid cartilage, obliquely upwards and outwards to the front of the seventh, and sometimes to the front of the sixth costal cartilage.

Within the capsules of these joints **interarticular ligaments** (ligg. sterno-costalia interarticularia, Fig. 217) may be found. Their disposition is somewhat uncertain, for

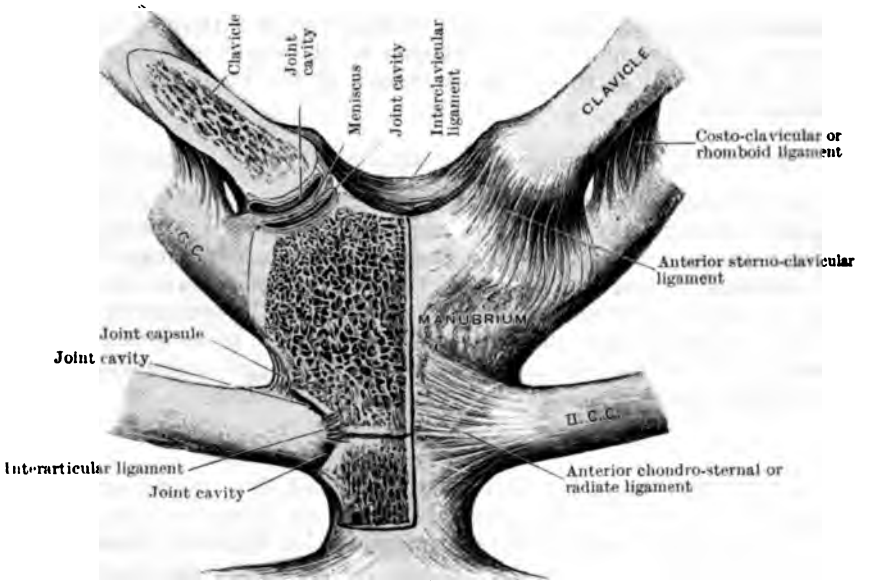

FIG. 217.—STERNO-CLAVICULAR AND COSTO-STERNAL JOINTS.

whereas, in the case of the second pair of cartilages, they invariably divide the joint cavity into two distinct compartments—an upper and a lower—such an arrangement is very uncertain in the other joints, and they occasionally, especially in the cases of the sixth and seventh cartilages, entirely obliterate the joint cavity. These ligaments extend horizontally between the ends of the costal cartilages and the side of the sternum.

Synovial membrane is found wherever a joint cavity is developed, and therefore there may be one or two synovial membranes, according to the presence or absence of a proper interarticular ligament. When the joint cavity is obliterated by the fibrous structure which represents the interarticular ligament, a synovial membrane is also absent.

STERNAL ARTICULATIONS.

Primarily the sternum consists of an elongated plate of hyaline cartilage, which becomes subdivided into segments by the process of ossification.

The four segments of which the **gladiolus** is originally composed unite with each other after the manner of typical synchondroses.

Similarly the ensiform cartilage and the gladiolus ultimately become united. It is not usual to find the manubrio-gladiolar joint obliterated by the ossification of the two bony segments. Even in advanced life it remains open, and the joint partakes of the nature of an amphiarthrosis (Fig. 217), although a joint cavity is not found under any circumstances in the plate of fibro-cartilage which intervenes between the manubrium and the gladiolus.

The **membrana sterni**, to which reference has already been made, assists in strengthening the union between the different segments of the sternum.

Movements of the Ribs and Sternum.—These movements may be considered either independently of, or as associated with, respiration.

In the former condition the ribs move in connexion with flexion and extension of the vertebral column, being more or less depressed and approximated in the former, and elevated

lled apart in the latter case. Considered in connexion with respiration, it is necessary to serve that, to all intents and purposes, the vertebral column and the sternum are rigid structures. ext we must remember that the heads of all the ribs occupy fixed positions, and similarly e anterior ends of seven pairs of cartilages are fixed to the lateral margins of the sternum. he ribs thus form arches, presenting a large amount of obliquity from behind forwards. Therefore, during inspiration, when the rib is elevated, the arch becomes more horizontal, and the ansverse diameter of the chest is increased. At the same time, the anterior ends of the sternal ibs tend to thrust the sternum forwards and upwards; but the nature of the attachment of the irst pair of ribs to the sternum, as well as the attachment of the diaphragm to the ensiform artilage, prevents this movement from becoming excessive, and hence the sternum becomes a line of resistance to the forward thrust of the ribs. As a consequence, the ribs rotate upon themselves about an oblique axis which passes downwards, outwards, and backwards through the capitular joint and the neck of the rib anterior to the costo-transverse joint.

In this way increase, both of the antero-posterior and transverse diameters of the thorax, is provided for, although the amount of increase is not equally pronounced in all planes. Thus at the level of the first rib very little eversion is possible, because the axis of rotation is nearly transverse, and therefore any increase in the transverse or antero-posterior thoracic diameters at this level may be disregarded, although a certain amount of elevation of the manubrium sterni and anterior end of the first rib is evident.

Below the level of the sixth rib elevation and rotation of the rib during inspiration are usually said to be complicated by a certain amount of backward movement, due to the character of the costo-transverse joint, until, in the case of the last two ribs, which are destitute of costo-transverse joints, a movement backwards is almost entirely substituted for elevation. It is probable, however, that the movements of the asternal ribs exactly correspond to those of the sternal series, and that by the contraction of the costal digitations of the diaphragm the anterior ends of the asternal ribs are provided with fixed positions comparable to those supplied by the sternum to the ribs of the sternal series.

We may therefore say that during inspiration the ribs move upwards and outwards between their fixed ends, while as a whole the rib rotates, and its anterior end is thrust slightly forwards.

During expiration these movements are simply reversed.

THE ARTICULATIONS OF THE SUPERIOR EXTREMITY.

The bony arch formed by the clavicle and scapula articulates directly with the axial skeleton only at one point, viz. the sterno-clavicular joint.

ARTICULATIONS OF THE CLAVICLE.

The Sterno-clavicular Joint.

The sterno-clavicular joint (articulatio sterno-clavicularis) is an example of an arthrodial diarthrosis. The articular surfaces concerned in its formation present the following appearances:—

1. The sternal end of the clavicle is somewhat triangular in outline, having its most prominent angle directed downwards and backwards. The anterior and posterior sides of the triangle are slightly roughened for the attachment of ligaments, while the base or inferior side is smooth and rounded, owing to the prolongation of the articular surface to the inferior aspect of the bone. In the antero-posterior direction the articular surface tends to be concave, while vertically it is slightly convex.

2. An articular facet, situated on the superior lateral angle of the manubrium sterni, but in a plane slightly behind the supra-sternal notch, articulates with the clavicle. This facet is considerably smaller than the clavicular facet with which it articulates.

3. The superior surface of the first costal cartilage close to the sternum also participates to a small extent in the articulation.

It should be noted that the articular surfaces of the clavicle and sternum are covered mainly by **fibro-cartilage**.

A **capsular ligament** is well marked on all sides except inferiorly, where it is very thin.

The **anterior sterno-clavicular ligament** (Fig. 217) forms part of the capsule, and consists of short fibres which extend obliquely downwards and inwards from the anterior aspect of the sternal end of the clavicle to the adjoining anterior surface of the sternum and the anterior border of the first costal cartilage.

The **posterior sterno-clavicular ligament** also forms part of the capsule, and

consists of similarly disposed, but not so strong, oblique fibres situated on t posterior aspect of the articulation.

A **fibro-cartilaginous meniscus** (discus articularis, Fig. 217) divides the joi cavity into two compartments. It is nearly circular in shape, and adapts itself the articular surfaces between which it lies. It is thickest at the circumference a thinnest at the centre, where it occasionally presents a perforation, there permitting the two synovial cavities to intercommunicate. By its circumference is in contact with, and adherent to, the surrounding capsule, but its upper margin attached to the apex of the articular surface of the clavicle, while by its low margin it is fixed to the sternal end of the first costal cartilage.

Two **accessory ligaments** are associated with this joint, viz. the interclavicul and the rhomboid.

The **interclavicular ligament** (Fig. 217) is a structure of considerable strengt forming a broad band of fibrous tissue which is attached to the superior rounded ang or apex of the sternal end of the clavicle as well as to the adjacent margins of t articular surface. Its fibres pass across the interclavicular notch to become attach to corresponding parts of the opposite clavicle, but in their course they dip down in the suprasternal notch, in which many of them are fixed to the sternum. In th way their presence neither bridges nor obliterates the notch between the t clavicles, and the ligament really becomes a superior sterno-clavicular ligament f each joint.

The **rhomboid ligament** (lig. costo-claviculare, Fig. 217) consists of short, stro fibres which are attached inferiorly to the upper surface of the first costal cartila They pass obliquely upwards and outwards to a rough impression situated on t lower aspect of the sternal end of the clavicle, and are distinct from the capsul ligament. Occasionally a bursa is found in the interior of this ligament.

As a rule there are two **synovial membranes** lining the two joint cavities (F 217), separated from each other by the interarticular meniscus. Sometimes, howev the two membranes establish continuity through a perforation in the meniscus.

The Acromio-clavicular or Scapulo-clavicular Joint.

The acromio-clavicular joint (articulatio acromio-clavicularis) is anoth instance of an arthrodial diarthrosis. It is situated between the acromial end the clavicle and the inner aspect of the acromion process of the scapula. Ea articular surface is an oval, flattened facet, covered by **fibro-cartilage.**

The **ligaments** which surround this small joint form a complete **capsu** (capsula articularis), of which the upper and lower parts are specially strong, a are therefore named the **superior** and **inferior acromio-clavicular ligaments** (Fig. 21 These consist of short fibres passing between the adjacent rough margins of t two bones in the positions indicated by their names.

A **meniscus** (discus articularis), which is nearly always incomplete, and m occasionally be wanting, is usually found within the joint cavity, where it l obliquely, with its upper margin farther from the mesial plane than its lo margin, and having its borders attached to the surrounding capsule. Frequen the meniscus is wedge-shaped, with its base directed upwards and its apex free.

A **synovial membrane** is found forming either a single or a double sac, accordin the condition of the meniscus. Complete division of the joint cavity, however, is ra

Ligamentum Coraco-claviculare.—Accessory to this articulation there is strong **coraco-clavicular ligament** which binds the acromial end of the clavicle the coracoid process of the scapula. It is readily divisible into two parts, viz. conoid and trapezoid ligaments.

The **conoid ligament** (Fig. 219) is situated internal to and slightly behind trapezoid. It is narrow and pointed at its inferior end, by which it is attacl to the upper aspect of the coracoid process, in close proximity to the suprascapu notch. Its upper end widens out in the manner expressed by its name, and attached to the conoid tubercle of the clavicle.

The **trapezoid ligament** (Fig. 219) is attached inferiorly to the upper surface of posterior half of the coracoid process, external and anterior to the attachment

ıe **conoid ligament.** Superiorly it is attached to the trapezoid ridge on the under ırface of the acromial end of the clavicle. Its outer and inner borders are free. ts anterior surface is principally directed upwards, and its posterior surface, to a imilar extent, looks downwards.

A synovial bursa usually occupies the re-entrant angle between these two ligaments.

Movements at the Clavicular Joints.—The movements of the inner end of the clavicle at the **sterno-clavicular joint** are limited in their range, owing to the tension of the ligaments. When the shoulder is raised or depressed the outer end of the clavicle moves upwards and downwards, whilst its sternal end glides upon the surface of the interarticular meniscus within the joint; when, on the other hand, the shoulder is carried forwards or backwards, the inner end of the clavicle along with the interarticular meniscus moves upon the sternal facet. In addition to these movements of elevation, depression, forward movement and backward movement of the clavicle, there is also allowed at the sterno-clavicular joint a certain amount of circumduction of the clavicle.

The part which is played by certain of the ligaments in restraining movement requires careful consideration. The **rhomboid ligament** checks excessive elevation of the shoulder, and restrains within certain limits both backward and forward movement of the clavicle. When the clavicle is depressed, as in cases where a heavy weight, such as a bucket of water, is carried in the hand, it receives support by resting upon the first rib, and the tendency for the inner end of the bone to start up out of its sternal socket is obviated by the tension of the **interarticular meniscus**, the **interclavicular ligament**, and the **anterior** and **posterior sterno-clavicular ligaments.**

The **interarticular meniscus** not only acts as a cushion which lessens the shock of blows received upon the shoulder, but it also acts as a most important bond of union, and prevents the inner end of the clavicle from being driven upwards upon the top of the sternum when force is applied to its outer end.

The movements at the **acromio-clavicular joint** are of such a kind as to allow the inferior angle, and to some extent the base of the scapula, to remain more or less closely applied to the chest-wall during the various movements of the shoulder. The strong connexion between the coracoid process and the acromial end of the clavicle, by means of the conoid and trapezoid ligaments, renders it necessary that the scapula should follow the clavicle in its various excursions. The presence of the acromio-clavicular joint, however, enables the scapula to change its position somewhat with reference to the clavicle as the shoulder is moved. Thus, when the shoulder is raised and depressed, a marked difference takes place in the angle between the two bones; again, when the shoulder is thrown forwards or backwards, these movements can be performed without altering in a material degree the direction of the glenoid cavity of the scapula, or in other words, the socket of the shoulder-joint.

The **conoid** and **trapezoid ligaments** set a limit upon the movements of the scapula at the acromio-clavicular joint. They both, but more particularly the trapezoid ligament, prevent the acromion process of the scapula from being carried inward below the outer end of the clavicle when blows fall upon the outer aspect of the shoulder.

Ligaments of the Scapula.

These ligaments are not directly connected with any articulation. The **coraco-acromial ligament** (lig. coraco-acromiale, Fig. 219) completes the arch between the coracoid and acromion processes of the scapula, and thus provides a secondary socket for the greater protection and security of the shoulder-joint. It is a flat triangular structure stretched tightly between its lines of attachment. By its base it is fixed to a varying amount of the postero-external border of the coracoid process, and by its narrower apical end to the tip of the acromion process, immediately external to the acromio-clavicular joint. Its surfaces look upwards and downwards, and its free borders outwards and inwards. It is thinnest in the centre, where it is sometimes perforated by a prolongation of the tendon of the pectoralis minor muscle.

The **suprascapular ligament** (lig. transversum scapulæ superius) is a distinct but short flat band which bridges the notch of the same name. It may be continuous with the conoid ligament, and it is frequently ossified. As a rule the foramen completed by this ligament transmits the suprascapular nerve, while the corresponding vessels travel above the ligament to reach the supraspinous fossa.

A small duplicate of this ligament may often be found bridging the foramen on its ventral aspect, subjacent to which small branches of the suprascapular artery return from the supraspinous to the subscapular fossa.

The **spino-glenoid ligament** (lig. transversum scapulæ inferius) consists of another set of bridging fibres which are situated on the posterior aspect of the

neck of the scapula. By one end they are attached to the external border of tl scapular spine, and by the other to the adjacent part of the posterior aspect the head of the scapula. The suprascapular nerve and vessels pass subjacent this ligament.

THE SHOULDER-JOINT.

The shoulder-joint (articulatio humeri) is one of the largest as well as the mo important of the joints of the upper limb. It is an example of the enarthrodia *i.e.* ball-and-socket variety of a diarthrosis, and, at the cost of a certain amount security, it has obtained an extended range of movement.

The bones which enter into its formation are the glenoid fossa of the scapu and the head of the humerus.

The glenoid fossa is a shallow pyriform articular surface, having its narrow en directed upwards and slightly forwards. The upper half of the anterior margin the fossa is characterised by a shallow notch which accommodates the narrow pa of the subscapularis muscle as it runs outwards to its insertion. At the apex of th fossa there is a flat area for the attachment of the long tendon of the biceps flex cubiti muscle. The head of the humerus is hemispherical and articular, whil external to its articular margin, there is a slight constriction (the anatomical true neck of the humerus), which is most strongly marked in relation to th greater and lesser tuberosities of the humerus.

Under ordinary conditions the two articular surfaces are maintained i apposition by muscular action, aided by atmospheric pressure, and thus, when th muscles are removed, the bones fall asunder to the full extent of the restrainin ligaments. Only a small part of the humeral head is in contact with the glenoi fossa at any particular moment, because the former is much larger than the latte but, by reason of the shallow character of this fossa, all parts of the two articula surfaces may successively be brought into contact with each other.

In the position of rest, as the limb hangs parallel to the vertical axis of th trunk, the inferior aspect of the neck of the humerus is brought into close relatio with the lower part of the glenoid fossa.

The **glenoid ligament** (labrum glenoidale, Fig. 219) deepens the glenoid foss and thus extends the articular surface. It is situated within the joint capsule, an to some slight e tent increases t security of the ar culation. It co sists of a stro ring of dense fibro tissue attached the free margin the glenoid fos Many of its fib are short, and p obliquely from t inner to the ou aspect of the rid so that its attach base is broader th its free edge, a therefore in crossa tion it appears son what triangul The long tendon the biceps, whi arises from the apex of the glenoid fossa, becomes to a considerable extent i corporated with this ligament.

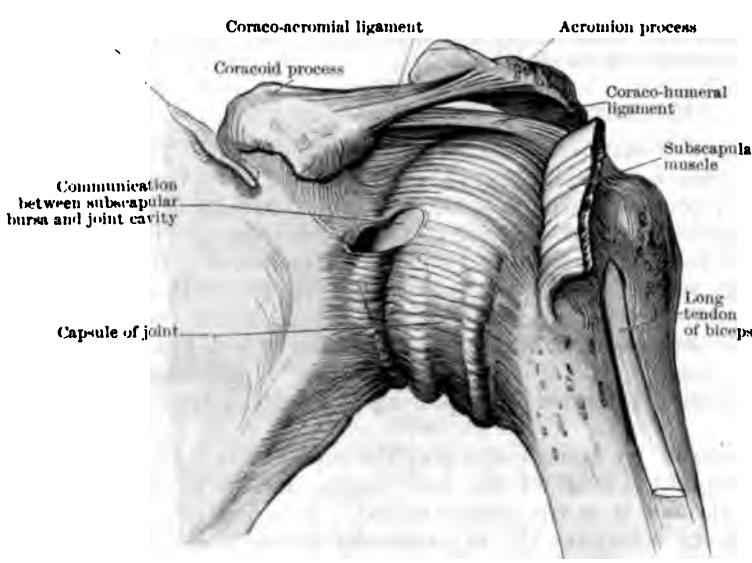

FIG. 218.—CAPSULE OF THE SHOULDER-JOINT AND CORACO-ACROMIAL LIGAMENT.

The **capsular ligament** (capsula articularis, Fig. 218) presents the general sha which is characteristic of the corresponding ligament in other ball-and-socket join

viz. a hollow cylinder. By its upper end the capsule is attached to the circumference of the glenoid fossa, external to the glenoid ligament, and also, to a considerable extent, to the glenoid ligament itself.

By its lower end it is attached to the neck of the humerus, and therefore beyond the articular area of the head. The capsule is strongest on its superior aspect, while inferiorly, where the neck of the bone is least defined, it extends downwards for a short distance upon the humeral shaft. Its fibres for the most part run longitudinally, but a certain number of them pursue a circular direction.

A prolongation of the capsule, the **transverse humeral ligament** presenting both longitudinal and transverse fibres, bridges that part of the bicipital groove which is situated between the tuberosities of the humerus. At this point an interruption in the capsule, beneath the transverse humeral ligament, permits the long tendon of the biceps to escape from its interior. In addition to the opening just referred to, there is another very constant deficiency in the upper and anterior part of the capsule, where the narrowing tendon of the subscapularis muscle is brought into contact with a bursa formed by a protrusion of the synovial membrane. This defect in the capsule has its long axis in the direction of the longitudinal fibres. Occasionally there is a similar but smaller opening under cover of the tendon of the infraspinatus muscle. Through the two latter openings the joint cavity communicates with bursæ situated between the capsule and the muscles referred to.

The tendons of the subscapularis, supraspinatus, and infraspinatus muscles fuse with, and so strengthen, the capsule as they approach their respective insertions.

On the superior aspect of the articulation the capsule is augmented by an accessory structure, the **ligamentum coraco-humerale** (Fig. 218). By its inner end, which is situated immediately above the glenoid fossa, but subjacent to the coraco-acromial ligament, it is attached to the external border of the root of the coracoid process, while its outer end is attached to the humeral neck close to the great tuberosity. This ligament forms a flattened band, having its hinder and lower border fused with the capsule, but its anterior and upper margin presents a free edge, slightly raised above the level of the capsule. This structure is believed to represent that portion of the pectoralis minor to which reference has already been made in connexion with the coraco-acromial ligament (p. 275).

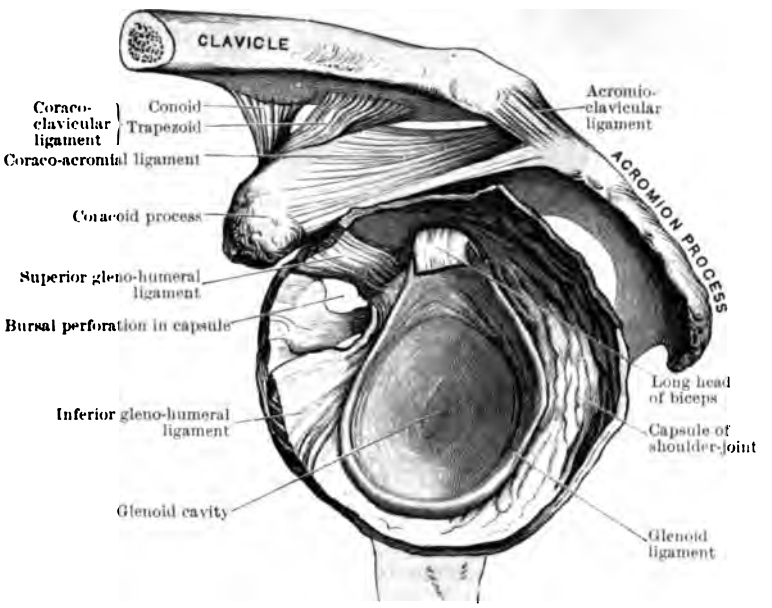

FIG. 219. CAPSULAR LIGAMENT OF SHOULDER-JOINT CUT ACROSS AND HUMERUS REMOVED.

The **coraco-glenoid ligament** is another accessory structure which is not always present. It springs from the coracoid process along with the former ligament, and extends to the upper and hinder margin of the head of the scapula.

Gleno-humeral Ligaments (Fig. 219).—If the capsule be opened from behind, and the head of the humerus be removed, it will be seen that the longitudinal fibres of the anterior part of the capsule are specially developed in the form of thick flattened bands which extend from the anterior border of the glenoid fossa to the *anterior aspect of the neck* of the humerus. These gleno-humeral

ligaments are three in number, and occupy the following positions: the **superior** is placed *above* the aperture in the front of the capsule; the **middle** and **inferior** on the antero-inferior aspect of the capsule, and *below* the aperture mentioned.

The superior gleno-humeral ligament, which some believe to represent the ligamentum teres of the hip-joint, springs, along with the middle gleno-humeral band, from the upper part of the anterior glenoid margin. The inferior band is the strongest of the three, and springs from the lower part of the anterior glenoid margin.

Intra-capsular Structures.—1. The glenoid ligament, already described. 2. The long tendon of the biceps passes outwards from its attachment to the apex of the glenoid fossa and the adjoining part of the glenoid ligament, above the head and neck of the humerus, to escape from the interior of the capsule by the opening between the tuberosities of the humerus, subjacent to the transverse humeral ligament.

Synovial membrane (Fig. 220) lines the capsule of the joint, and extends from the margin of the glenoid fossa to the humeral attachments of the capsule, where it is reflected towards the margin of the articular cartilage. It is therefore important to note that the inferior aspect of the humeral neck has the most extensive clothing of synovial membrane. Further, the synovial membrane envelops the intra-capsular part of the tendon of the biceps, and although this tubular sheath is prolonged upon the tendon into the upper part of the bicipital groove, yet the closed character of the synovial cavity is maintained. Thus, while the tendon is within the capsule, it is not within the synovial cavity. The synovial membrane is continuous with those bursæ which communicate with the joint cavity through openings in the ligamentous capsule.

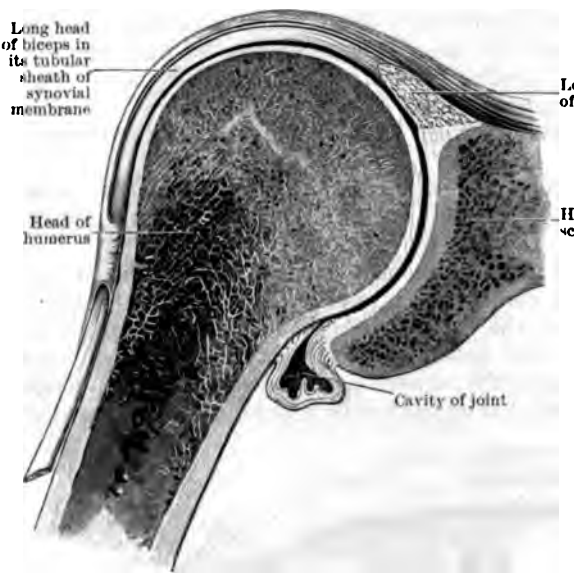
Long head of biceps in its tubular sheath of synovial membrane
Long head of biceps
Head of humerus
Head of scapula
Cavity of joint

FIG. 220.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE SHOULDER-JOINT.

Bursæ (*a*) *Communicating with the Joint Cavity.*—Practically there is only one bursa which is constant in its position, viz. the **subscapular**, between the capsule and the tendon of the subscapularis muscle. It varies considerably in its dimensions, but its lining membrane is always continuous with that which lines the capsule (Figs. 217 and 218), and therefore it may be regarded merely as a prolongation of the articular synovial membrane. Occasionally a similar but smaller bursa occurs between the capsule and the tendon of the infraspinatus muscle.

(*b*) *Not communicating with the Joint Cavity.*—The **sub-deltoid** or **sub-acromial bursa** is situated between the muscles on the superior aspect of the shoulder-joint on the one hand and the deltoid muscle on the other. It is an extensive bursa, and is prolonged subjacent to the acromion process and the coraco-acromial ligament. It does not communicate with the shoulder joint, but it greatly facilitates the movements of the upper end of the humerus against the under surface of the coraco-acromial arch.

Movements at the Shoulder-Joint.—A ball-and-socket joint permits of a great variety of movements, practically in all directions; but if these movements be analysed, it will be seen that they resolve themselves into movements about **three** primary axes at right angles to each other or about axes which are the possible combinations of the primary ones.

Thus, about a transverse axis, the limb may move forwards (**flexion**) or backwards (**extension**). About an antero-posterior axis it may move outwards, *i.e.* away from the mesial plane of the trunk (**abduction**), or inwards, *i.e.* towards, and to some extent up to, the mesial plane (**adduction**).

About a vertical axis, the humerus may **rotate** upon its axis in an inward or outward direction to the extent of a quarter of a circle.

these axes all pass through the shoulder-joint, and since each may present varying
f obliquity, it follows that very elaborate combinations are possible until the movement
duction is evolved. In this movement the head of the humerus acts as the apex of a
ovement with the distal end of the humerus, describing the base of the cone.
ange of the shoulder-joint movements is still further increased from the mobility of
ula as a whole, and from its association with the movements of the clavicle already

THE ELBOW-JOINT.

articulation (articulatio cubiti) provides an instance of a diarthrosis capable
rming the movements of flexion and extension about a single axis placed
rsely, *i.e.* a typical ginglymus diarthrosis or hinge-joint.

bones which enter into its formation are the humerus, ulna, and radius.
chlea of the humerus articulates with the greater sigmoid cavity of the
rticulatio humero-ulnaris); the capitellum of the humerus articulates with
low depression or cup on the superior aspect of the head of the radius (articu-
mero-radialis). The articular cartilage clothing the trochlea of the humerus
tes in a sinuous or concave margin both anteriorly and posteriorly, so that
not line either the
l or the olecranon
Internally, it merely
off the inner margin
trochlea, but exter-
is continuous with
crusting cartilage
g the capitellum, to
rgin of which the
e extends in all
ns, and thus it pre-
convex edge in
to the supra-capi-
r radial fossa. The
e which lines the
sigmoid cavity of
a presents a trans-
terruption, consider-
der on its inner as
ed with its outer
Thereby the coro-
nd olecranon seg-
of the fossa are
ed from each other.
tilage which clothes
ronoid segment is
ous with that which
the lesser sigmoid
The shallow cup-
depression on the
the radius is covered
ilage which rounds
margin, and is pro-
without interruption

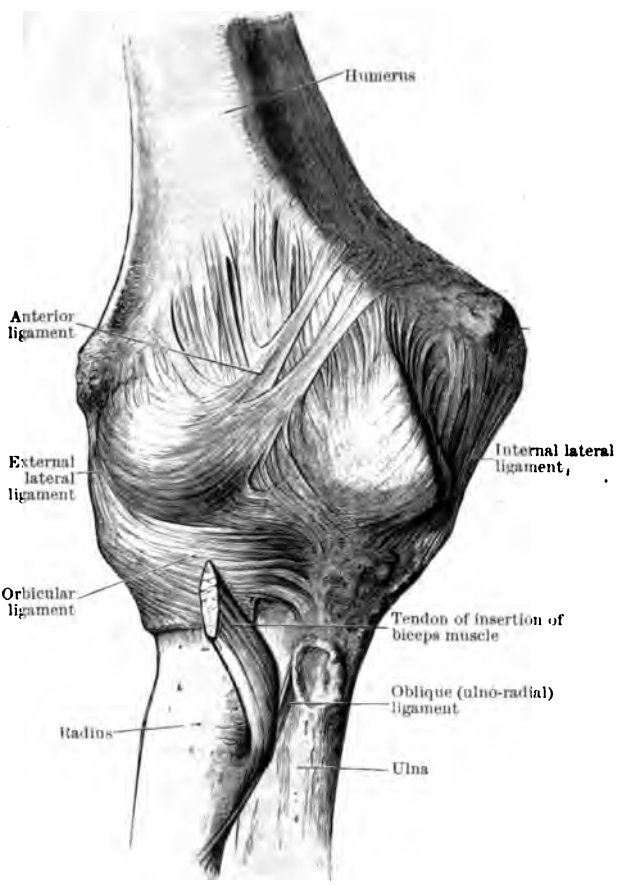

FIG. 221.—ANTERIOR VIEW OF ELBOW-JOINT.

ne vertical aspect of the head, descending to its lowest level on that part
l to the lesser sigmoid cavity.

aments.—Taken as a whole, the ligaments form a complete **capsule** (capsula
uris), which is not defective at any point, although it is not of equal thick-
roughout, and certain bands of fibres stand out distinctly because of their
strength.

anterior ligament *(Fig. 221) consists of* a layer whose fibres run in several

directions—obliquely, transversely, and vertically—and of these the vertical fibres are of most importance. It is attached above to the upper margins of the coronoid and supracapitellar fossæ; below, to the margins of the coronoid process and to the orbicular ligament of the superior radio-ulnar joint, but some loosely arranged fibres reach as far as the neck of the radius. The lateral portions of this ligament, which are situated in front of the capitellum and the inner margin of the trochlea respectively, are much thinner and weaker than the central part. Fibres of origin of the brachialis anticus muscle are attached to the front of this ligament.

The **posterior ligament** is an extremely thin, almost redundant layer. Superiorly it is attached, in relation to the margin of the olecranon fossa, at a varying distance from the trochlear articular surface, and inferiorly to the summit and sides of the lip of the olecranon process. Externally some of its fibres pass from the posterior aspect of the capitellum to the posterior border of the lesser sigmoid cavity of the ulna. This ligament derives material support from, and participates in the movements of, the triceps extensor cubiti muscle, since they are closely adherent to each other in the region of the olecranon process.

The **internal lateral ligament** (lig. collaterale ulnare, Figs. 221 and 222) is a fan-

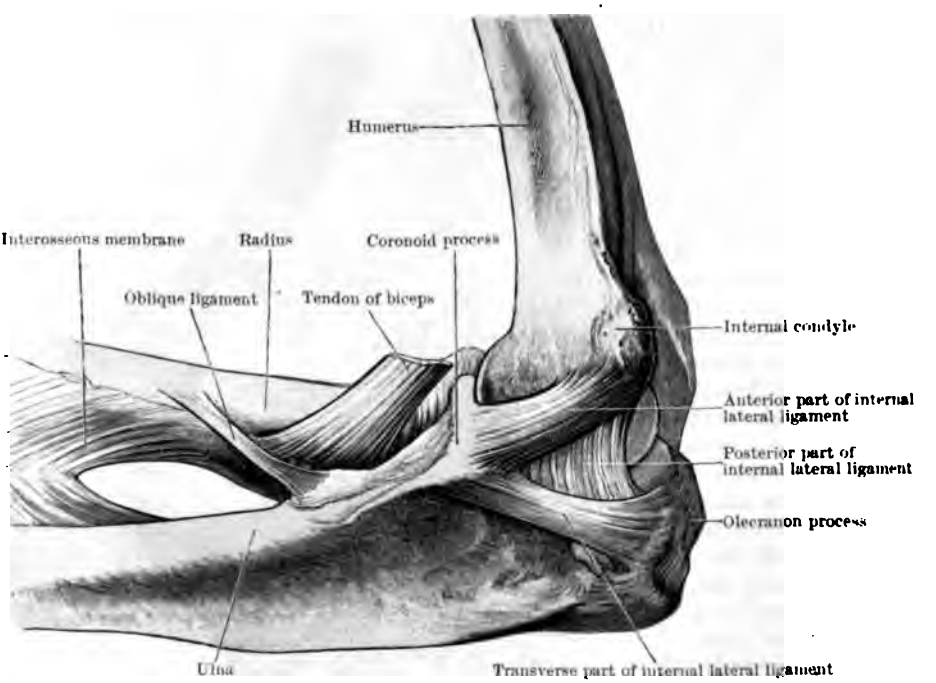

FIG. 222.—ELBOW-JOINT (inner aspect).

shaped structure of unequal thickness, but its margins, which are its strongest bands, are continuous with the adjoining parts of the anterior and posterior ligaments. By its upper end it is attached to the anterior, inferior, and posterior aspects of the internal condyle of the humerus. By its broad lower end it is attached to the inner margin of the greater sigmoid cavity, so that the *anterior band* is associated principally with the inner margin of the coronoid process, and the *posterior band* with the inner margin of the olecranon process, while the intermediate weaker portion sends its fibres downwards to join a *transverse band*, sometimes very strong, which bridges the notch between the adjoining inner margins of the coronoid and olecranon processes.

The **external lateral ligament** (lig. collaterale radiale, Fig. 221) is a strong flattened band attached superiorly to the lower and posterior aspects of the external condyle of the humerus. It completes the continuity of the capsule on the outer side, and blends inferiorly with the orbicular ligament, on the surface of which its fibres may be traced both to the anterior and posterior ends of the lesser sigmoid

ch. **Both of the lateral ligaments are intimately associated with the muscles** ich **take origin from the inner and outer condyles of the humerus.**

Synovial Pads of Fat (Fig. 223).—Internal to the capsule, there are several pads fat situated be- en it and the sy- ial membrane. all pads are so ced as to lie im- diately in front he coronoid and pra-capitellar ss, but a larger e projects to- rds the olecra- n fossa.

Synovial mem- ane (Fig. 223) es the entire psule and clothes e pads of fat ove referred to, s well as those rtions of bone closed within the psule which are ot covered by rticular cartilage. By its disposition the elbow and the uperior radio-

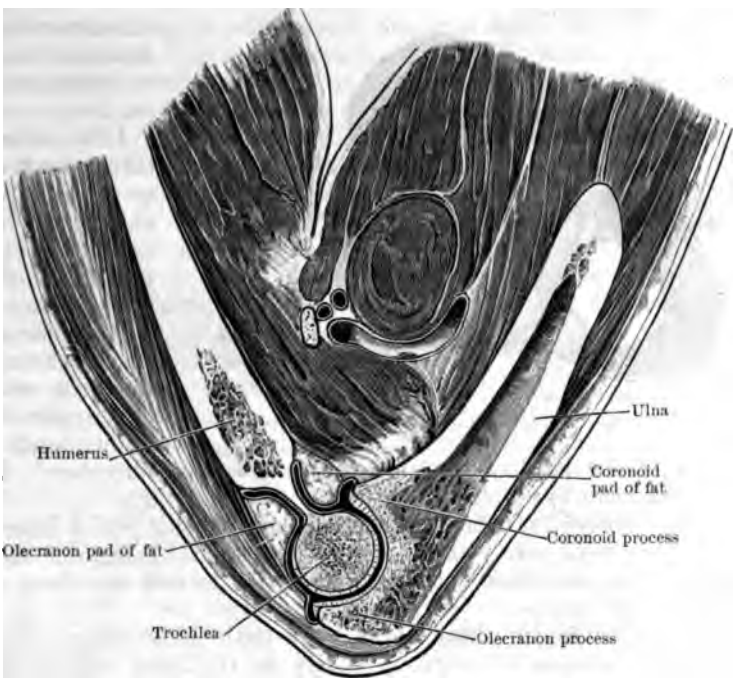

FIG. 223.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE TROCHLEAR PART OF THE ELBOW-JOINT.

ulnar joints possess a common joint cavity. It should be specially noted that the upper part of the neck of the radius is surrounded by this synovial membrane.

Movements at the Elbow-Joint.—The movements of the radius and ulna upon the humerus have already been referred to as those characterising a uniaxial joint constructed on the plan of a hinge. In this case the axis of the joint is obliquely transverse, so that in the extended osition the humerus and ulna form an obtuse angle open towards the radius, whereas in the exed position the hand is carried inwards in the direction of the mouth. Extreme flexion is hecked by the soft parts in front of the arm and of the fore-arm coming into contact, and xtreme extension by the restraining effect of the ligaments and muscles. In each case the ovement is checked before either coronoid or olecranon processes come into contact with the umerus. The anterior and posterior bands of the internal lateral ligament are important factors n these results. Lateral movement of the ulna is not a characteristic movement, although it ay occur to a slight extent, owing to a want of complete adaptation between the trochlear rface of the humerus and the sigmoid cavity of the ulna. This incongruence is noteworthy nce the inner lip of the trochlea is prominent in front, and the outer lip is prominent behind. onsequently, this latter part is associated with a surface on the outer side of the olecranon hich is only utilised in complete extension.

The capitellum and the opposing surface upon the head of the radius are always in varying egrees of contact. The head of the radius participates in the movements of flexion and exten- on, and is most closely and completely in contact with the humerus during the position of semi- exion and semi-pronation. In complete extension a very considerable part of the capitellum is covered by the radius.

THE RADIO-ULNAR JOINTS.

These articulations, which are two in number, are situated at the proximal and stal ends of the radius and ulna. They provide an adaptation whereby the radius otates around a longitudinal axis in the movements of pronation and supination, nd hence this form of uniaxial diarthrosis is termed lateral ginglymus.

Superior Radio-ulnar Joint (articulatio radio-ulnaris proximalis).—In this oint the articular surfaces which enter into its formation are the lesser sigmoid avity of the ulna and the lateral aspect of the head of the radius. In each case he articular cartilage is continuous with an articular surface entering into the ormation of the elbow-joint, *consequently the joint* cavity is continuous with that

of the elbow-joint, and therefore, in a sense, it lies within the cover of the capsule of the elbow-joint; but its special feature is the—

Orbicular ligament (lig. annulare radii, Figs. 221 and 224), which has formerly been mentioned as the inferior line of attachment of the external lateral ligament and the ligaments of the front and back of the elbow-joint.

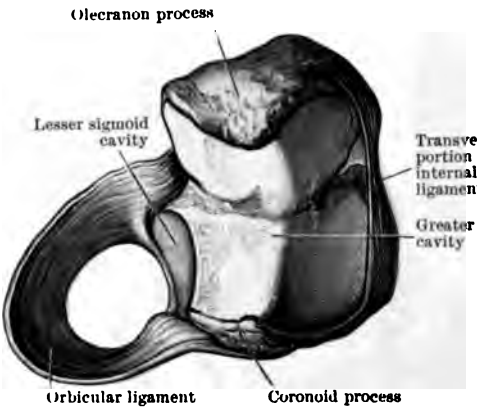

FIG. 224.—ORBICULAR LIGAMENT OF THE RADIUS.

It is a strong, well-defined structure, attached by its extremities to the anterior and posterior margins of the lesser sigmoid cavity, and thus it forms nearly four-fifths of an osseo-tendinous circle or ring. This circle is somewhat wider at the upper than at the lower margin of the orbicular ligament, which, by encircling the upper part of the neck of the radius, tends to prevent displacement of the head of that bone in a downward direction. The lower margin of this ligament is not directly attached to the radius.

The **synovial membrane** is continuous with that which lines the elbow-joint. It closes the joint cavity at the inferior unattached margin of the orbicular ligament, where it is somewhat loosely arranged in its reflexion from the ligament to the neck of the radius.

Inferior Radio-ulnar Joint (articulatio radio-ulnaris distalis).—This joint is situated between the sigmoid cavity on the inner side of the lower end of the radius and the lateral aspect of the head of the ulna. In addition, it includes the inferior surface of the head of the ulna, which articulates with the superior surface of a triangular plate of fibro-cartilage, by means of which the joint is excluded from the radio-carpal articulation

The **triangular interarticular fibro-cartilage** (discus articularis, Figs. 225 and 227), besides presenting articular surfaces to two separate joints, is an important ligament concerned in binding together the lower ends of the radius and ulna. It is attached by its apex to the depression at the outer side of the root of the styloid process of the ulna, and by its base to the sharp line of demarcation between the sigmoid cavity and the carpal articular surface of the radius.

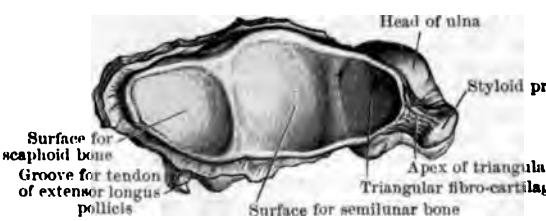
Head of ulna
Styloid process of ulna
Surface for scaphoid bone
Groove for tendon of extensor longus pollicis
Apex of triangular fibro-cartilage
Triangular fibro-cartilage
Surface for semilunar bone

FIG. 225.—CARPAL ARTICULAR SURFACE OF THE RADIUS, AND TRIANGULAR FIBRO-CARTILAGE OF THE WRIST.

The **ligamentous capsule** is very imperfect, and consists of scattered fibres, termed the **anterior and posterior radio-ulnar** ligaments (Fig. 226). These ligaments pass transversely between adjoining non-articular surfaces on the radius and ulna, and are of sufficient length to permit of the movements of the radius in pronation and supination.

The **synovial membrane** completes the closure of the joint cavity. It forms a loose bulging projection (recessus sacciformis), passing upwards between the lower ends of the shafts of the radius and ulna, and it also clothes the upper surface of the triangular fibro-cartilage (Fig. 227). The cavity of this joint is quite distinct from that of the radio-carpal articulation, except when the triangular fibro-cartilage presents a perforation.

Between the foregoing articulations there are two **accessory ligaments**, viz. the interosseous membrane and the oblique ligament, which connect together the shafts of the radius and ulna.

The interosseous membrane (Fig. 222) of the fore-arm (membrana interossea interrachii) is a strong fibrous membrane which stretches across the interval between the radius and ulna, and is firmly attached to the interosseous border of each. Below it extends downwards to the lower limit of the space between the bones, whilst above it does not reach higher than a point about one inch below the tuberosity of the radius. A gap, called the *hiatus interosseus*, is thus left above its upper margin, and through this the posterior interosseous vessels pass backwards between the bones to reach the dorsal aspect of the fore-arm. This gap is bounded above by the oblique ligament. The fibres which compose the interosseous membrane run for the most part downwards and inwards from the radius to the ulna, although on its dorsal aspect several bands may be observed stretching in an opposite direction. The interosseous membrane augments the surface available for the origin of the muscles of the fore-arm; it braces the radius and ulna together; and when shocks are communicated from the hand to the radius, owing to the direction of its fibres, the interosseous membrane transmits these, to some slight extent, to the ulna.

The oblique ligament (Fig. 222) is a slender tendinous band of very varying strength which springs from the outer part of the coronoid process of the ulna, and stretches obliquely downwards and outwards to the radius where it is attached immediately below the bicipital tuberosity.

Movements of the Radius on the Ulna.—The axis about which the radius moves is a longitudinal one, having one end passing through the centre of the head of the radius and the other through the styloid process of the ulna and the line of the ring-finger. In this axis the head of the radius is so secured that it can only rotate upon the lesser sigmoid cavity of the ulna within the orbicular ligament, and consequently the radial head remains upon the same plane as the ulna; but the lower end of the radius being merely restrained by the triangular fibro-cartilage, is able to describe nearly a half-circle, of which the apex of this ligament is the centre. In this movement the radius carries the hand from a position in which the palm is directed forwards, and in which the radius and ulna lie parallel to each other (**supination**), to one in which the palm is directed backwards, and the radius lies diagonally across the front of the ulna (**pronation**).

The ulna is unable to rotate upon a long axis, but while the radius is travelling through the arc of a circle from without inwards in front of the ulna, it will usually be seen that the ulna appears to move through the arc of a smaller circle in the reverse direction, viz. from within outwards. If the humerus be prevented from moving at the shoulder-joint, a very large proportion, if not the entire amount, of this apparent movement of the ulna will disappear. At the same time some observers maintain that it really occurs at the elbow-joint, associated with lateral movement during slight degrees of flexion and extension at that joint.

THE RADIO-CARPAL JOINT.

This joint (articulatio radiocarpea) is a bi-axial diarthrosis, frequently called a condyloid joint.

The articular elements which enter into its formation are: on its *proximal side*, the inferior surface of the lower end of the radius, together with the inferior surface of the triangular fibro-cartilage; on its *distal side*, the superior articular surfaces of the scaphoid, semilunar, and cuneiform bones. The articular surface of the radius is concave both in its antero-posterior and transverse diameters, in order to adapt itself to the opposing surfaces of the scaphoid and semilunar, which are convex in the two axes named. In the ordinary straight position of the hand the triangular fibro-cartilage is in contact with the semilunar bone, and the upper articular surface of the cuneiform bone is in contact with the capsule of the joint. When, however, the hand is bent towards the ulna, the cuneiform bone is carried outwards as well as the semilunar and scaphoid, and the triangular fibro-cartilage comes into contact with the cuneiform. The articular surface of the radius is subdivided by an antero-posterior, slightly elevated ridge, into an outer triangular facet which usually articulates with the scaphoid, and an inner quadrilateral facet for articulation with a portion of the semilunar bone.

In the intervals between the scaphoid, semilunar, and cuneiform bones, the continuity of the articular surfaces is usually maintained by the presence of interosseous ligaments which are situated upon the same level as the articular cartilage.

Ligaments.—A capsular ligament completely surrounds the joint. It is somewhat loosely arranged, and permits of subdivision into the following portions:—

The external lateral ligament (Fig. 226) is a well-defined band which is attached

by one end to the tip of the styloid process of the radius, and by the otl rough area at the base of the tubercle of the scaphoid bone, *i.e.* externa radial articular surface.

The **internal lateral ligament** (Fig. 226) is also a distinct rounded st having one end attached to the tip of the styloid process of the ulna, and the the rough non-a border of the cu bone, some of it being prolonged pisiform bone.

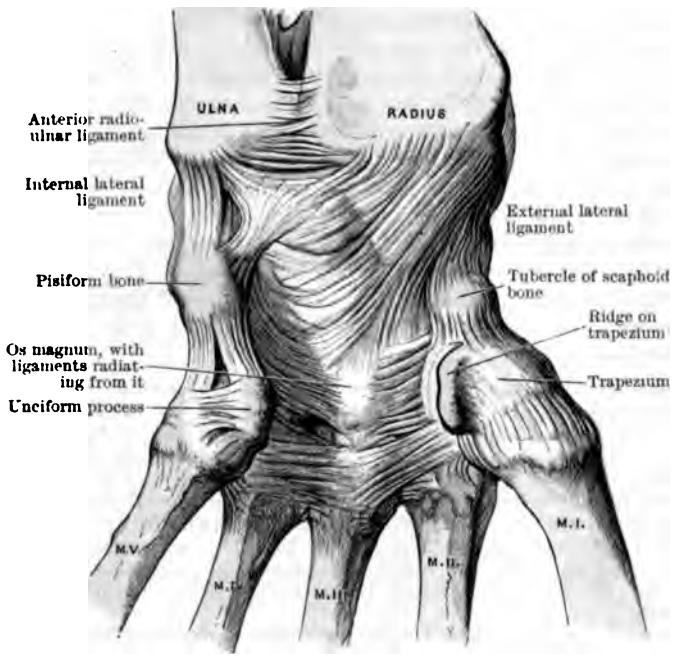

FIG. 226.—LIGAMENTS ON ANTERIOR ASPECT OF RADIO-CARPAL, CARPAL, AND CARPO-METACARPAL JOINTS.

The **anterior l** (Fig. 226) is a superiorly to the margin of the lo of the radius, as slightly to the the styloid proces ulna. Some tra fibres may be se the greater numl obliquely downwa inwards to the non-articular sur the scaphoid, sen and cuneiform while some of th even be continue as the os ma Those fibres fr ulna run oblique wards. On its aspect this ligar closely adherent to the anterior border of the triangular fibro-cartilage inferior radio-ulnar articulation.

The **posterior ligament** extends from the posterior margin of the low of the radius, obliquely downwards and inwards, to the dorsal non-a areas on the proximal row of the carpal bones. The slip to the latter as forming the fibrous sheath through which the tendon of the extensor carpi muscle travels to its insertion. The principal bundle of fibres is connect the cuneiform bone.

The **synovial membrane** (Fig. 227) is simple, and is confined to the artic except in those cases in which the triangular fibro-cartilage is perforated, or i one of the interosseous ligaments between the carpal bones of the first row is

Movements at the Radio-carpal Joint.—The radio-carpal joint affords an excellent of a biaxial articulation, in which a long transverse axis of movement is situated more c right angles to a short axis placed in the antero-posterior direction. The nature of th ments which are possible about these two axes is essentially the same in both cases, viz. and **extension**. The movements about the longer transverse axis are anterior or palmar extension, and its continuation into dorsi-flexion. About the shorter antero-posterior ax movements which result from combined action by certain flexor and extensor muscles, the radial or ulnar borders of the hand may be approximated towards the corresponding of the fore-arm. Lateral movement may also be possible to a slight extent. The range ment in connexion with either of the principal axes is largely a matter of individual pec for, with the exception of the lateral ligaments, there is no serious obstacle to the cultiv greater mobility at the radio-carpal joint.

CARPAL JOINTS.

The articulations subsisting between the individual carpal bones (articul intercarpeæ) are all diarthroses, and although the total amount of mo throughout the series is considerable, yet the extent of movement which is p

between the two rows or between any two carpal bones is extremely limited. For this reason, as well as because of the nature of the movement, these articulations are called gliding joints (arthrodia).

It is advisable to consider, *first*, the articulations between individual bones of the proximal row; *second*, the articulations between the separate bones of the distal row; *third*, the articulation of the proximal and distal rows with each other; *fourth*, the pisiform articulation.

The proximal row of carpal articulations (Fig. 226) comprises the joints between the scaphoid, semilunar, and cuneiform bones. On their adjacent lateral aspects these bones are partly articular and partly non-articular.

Three sets of simple but strong, although short ligamentous bands bind these three carpal bones together, and form an investment for three sides of their intercarpal joints. These are—(1) the **anterior** or **palmar ligaments**, two in number, which consist of transverse fibres passing between the adjacent rough palmar surfaces of the bones; (2) the **posterior** or **dorsal ligaments**, also two in number, and composed of similar short transverse fibres passing between the adjacent dorsal surfaces; (3) the **interosseous ligaments** (Fig. 227), again two in number, and transverse in direction, situated on a level with the superior articular surfaces, and extending from the palmar to the dorsal aspect of the bones, while attached to non-articular areas of the opposing surfaces. The radio-carpal joint is entirely shut off from the intercarpal joints, and also from the joint between the two rows of carpal bones, except in rare cases, when an interosseous ligament is wanting.

The **distal row of carpal articulations** (Fig. 226) includes the joints between the trapezium, trapezoid, os magnum, and unciform bones. Articular facets occur on the opposing lateral faces of the individual bones.

Associated with this row there are again simple bands of considerable strength, and presenting an arrangement similar to that seen in the proximal row. As in the former case, they invest the intercarpal articulations, except on the superior aspect, where they communicate with the transverse carpal joint, and on the inferior aspect, where they communicate with the carpo-metacarpal joint cavity.

The **anterior** or **palmar ligaments** are three in number. They extend in a transverse direction between contiguous portions of the rough palmar surfaces of the bones. The **posterior** or **dorsal ligaments**, also three in number, are similarly disposed on the dorsal aspect. The **interosseous ligaments** (Fig. 227) are two or three in number. That which joins os magnum to unciform is the strongest; that between the trapezoid and os magnum is situated towards the dorsal parts of their opposing surfaces; the third, situated between contiguous non-articular surfaces of the trapezium and trapezoid, is always the feeblest, and is frequently absent.

The **transverse carpal articulation** (Fig. 227) is situated between the proximal and distal rows of the carpus. The bones of the proximal row present the following characters on their inferior or distal aspect. The outer part of the articular surface is deeply concave, both in the antero-posterior and in the transverse directions, but the inner part of the same surface is concavo-convex, more especially in the transverse direction.

Superiorly, the articular surfaces of the distal row of carpal bones present an irregular outline. That part pertaining to the trapezium and trapezoid is concave in the antero-posterior and transverse directions, and lies at a considerably lower level than the portion belonging to the os magnum and unciform, which is, moreover, markedly convex in the antero-posterior and transverse directions, with the exception of the innermost part of the unciform, where it is concavo-convex in both of these directions.

This articulation is invested by a complete short **capsule** (Fig. 226) which binds the two rows of the carpus together, and sends prolongations to the investing capsules of the proximal and distal articulations. The ligament as a whole is very strong, and individual bands are not readily defined, although certain special bands may be described. The **palmar ligaments** radiate from the os magnum to the scaphoid, unciform, and pisiform. The interval between the os magnum and semilunar is occupied by oblique fibres, some of which pass from scaphoid to cuneiform, while these are joined by others, prolonged obliquely downwards and inwards, from the

radial end of the anterior radio-carpal ligament. By these different banc palmar aspect of the joint is completely closed.

The **dorsal ligaments** are more feeble than the palmar. They form a thin, lc arranged stratum, in which the only noteworthy bands are one which joi scaphoid to os magnum, and another which joins cuneiform to unciform.

The **external lateral ligament** (lig. collaterale carpi radiale, Fig. 227) e between contiguous rough areas on the radial aspects of the scaphoi trapezium. By its margins it is continuous both with the palmar and ligaments.

The **internal lateral ligament** (lig. collaterale carpi ulnare, Fig. 227) is ar like the former in regard to its margins, and by its ends it is attached to th tiguous rough ulnar surfaces of the cuneiform and unciform bones.

Both of these lateral ligaments are directly continuous with the corresp lateral ligaments of the radio-carpal joint.

An **interosseous ligament** (Fig. 227) is occasionally found within the c extending across the joint cavity between the os magnum and the scaphoid.

The **pisi-cuneiform articulation** is an arthroidal diarthrosis. The articular surfaces of the two bones are flattened and circular, and only perm small amount of gliding movement.

The joint is provided with a thin but complete **capsule** of fibrous tissue, is specially strengthened inferiorly by two strong bands, viz. **pisi-unciform** (lig hamatum) and **pisi-metacarpal** (lig. pisometacarpeum, Fig. 226). Both of bands extend from the lower and inner aspect of the pisiform to adjoining p the hook of the unciform and base of the fifth metacarpal bone respectively. great extent these ligamentous bands may be regarded as extensions of t sertion of the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris muscle which is attached upper part of the pisiform bone. Looked at as ligaments, however, th specially strong to prevent the displacement of the pisiform bone during c tion of the muscle inserted into it.

The **synovial membranes** (Fig. 227) of the carpal joints are two in numbe these, one is restric the pisi-cuneiform ar tion, and is correspon simple, although occasi the joint cavity ma municate with that radio-carpal joint.

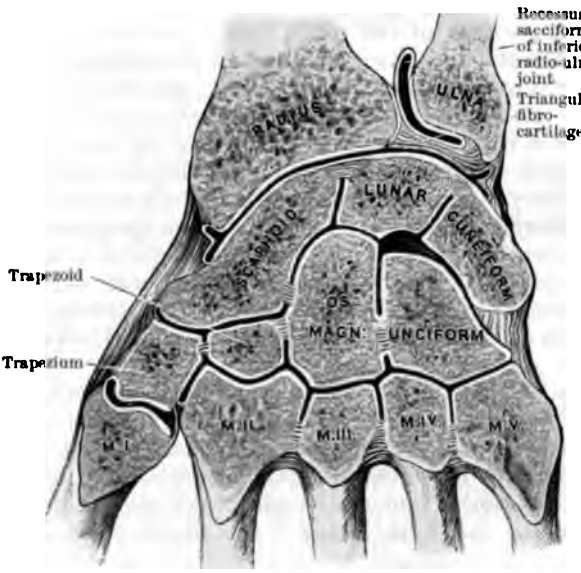

FIG. 227.—CORONAL SECTION through the radio-carpal, carpal, carpo-metacarpal, and intermetacarpal joints, to show joint cavities and interosseous ligaments (diagrammatic).

The other synovial brane is associated wi transverse carpal joint extends transverse tween the two rows of bones, with prolon into the vertical in between the adjoinin of each row, *i.e.* the carpal articulations. therefore, an elaborate which may be still extended, by the abs interosseous ligament to reach the radio-car carpo-metacarpal se joints. The first co is rare, but the second is not uncommon, and results from the absence of th osseous ligament between trapezium and trapezoid, or of that between tr and os magnum.

INTERMETACARPAL JOINTS.

The four inner metacarpal bones articulate with each other at their proximal ends or bases, between the opposing surfaces of which joint cavities are found—arthrodial diarthroses. These cavities are continuous with the carpo-metacarpal joint (not yet described), and hence the ligamentous arrangements only enclose three aspects of each joint.

Three strong **transverse ligaments** (Figs. 226 and 227) bind adjacent palmar, dorsal, and interosseous areas of the bases of the metacarpal bones, and hence they are called **ligamenta basium** (ossa metacarp.) **volaria, dorsalia et interossea.** A synovial membrane is associated with each of these joints, but it may be regarded as a prolongation from the carpo-metacarpal articulation.

CARPO-METACARPAL JOINTS.

The articulation of the metacarpal bone of the thumb with the trapezium differs in so many respects from the articulation between the other metacarpal bones and the carpus, that it must be considered separately.

(*A*) The **articulatio carpo-metacarpea pollicis** (Figs. 226 and 227) is the joint between the infero-external surface of the trapezium and the superior surface of the base of the first metacarpal bone. Both of these surfaces are saddle-shaped, and they articulate by mutual co-aptation.

The joint-cavity is surrounded by a fibrous **capsule**, in which we may recognise palmar, dorsal, external, and internal lateral bands, the last being the strongest and most important.

Synovial membrane lines the capsule, and the joint-cavity is isolated and quite separate from the other carpal and carpo-metacarpal articulations.

At this joint movements occur about at least three axes. Thus, around a more or less transverse axis, **flexion** and **extension** take place; in an antero-posterior axis **abduction** and **adduction** (movements which have reference to the middle line of the hand) are found; while a certain amount of **rotation** is possible in the longitudinal axis of the digit. The very characteristic movement of **opposition**, in which the tip of the thumb may be applied to the tips of all the fingers, results from a combination of flexion, adduction, and rotation, and by combining all the movements possible at the various axes a considerable degree of **circumduction** may be produced, in spite of the fact that this is not a ball-and-socket joint.

(*B*) The **articulationes carpo-metacarpeæ digitorum** are the joints between the bases of the four inner metacarpal bones and the four bones of the distal row of the carpus. They are all arthrodial diarthroses, and the opposed articular surfaces present alternate elevations and depressions which form a series of interlocking joints. The joint cavities between the carpal bones of the distal row, and also the more extensive intermetacarpal joint cavities, open into this articulation.

This series of joints is invested by a common capsule which is weakest on its radial side, but is otherwise well defined. Its fibres arrange themselves in small slips, which pass obliquely in different directions, and vary in number for each metacarpal bone. Thus the **oblique palmar ligaments** (ligamenta carpo-metacarpea volaria, Fig. 225) usually consist of one slip for each metacarpal bone, but there may be two slips, and the third metacarpal bone frequently has three, of which one lies obliquely in front of the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis muscle.

The **oblique dorsal ligaments** (ligamenta carpo-metacarpea dorsalia) are similar short bands, of greater strength and clearer definition, by which the index metacarpal is bound to the trapezium and trapezoid; the middle metacarpal to the os magnum, and frequently to the trapezoid; the ring metacarpal to the os magnum and unciform, and the metacarpal of the minimus to the unciform.

Interosseous ligaments, one or sometimes two in number, occur within the capsule. They are usually situated in relation to one or both of the contiguous margins of the bases of the third and fourth metacarpal bones, from which they extend upwards to adjacent margins of the os magnum and unciform. Occasionally they are sufficiently developed to divide the joint cavity into radial and ulnar sections.

The **synovial membrane** (Fig. 227) is usually single and lines the capsule, b as already explained, it has prolongations into the intermetacarpal and int carpal series of joints. In connexion with the latter, the frequent absence the interosseous ligament between the trapezium and trapezoid permits the f communication of this joint-cavity with that of the transverse carpal joint.

METACARPO-PHALANGEAL JOINTS.

In the case of the pollex this joint is constructed on the plan of a ginglym diarthrosis; the four corresponding joints of the fingers are also diarthroses o slightly modified ball-and-socket variety. With the exception of the metacar bone of the pollox, each metacarpal bone has a somewh spherical head articulating with a shallow oval cup up the base of the first phalanx. It is important to note th the articular surface upon the head of each of these me carpal bones is wider on the palmar aspect and narro on the dorsal aspect. The articulation in the thu presents features similar to those of an inter-phalang joint.

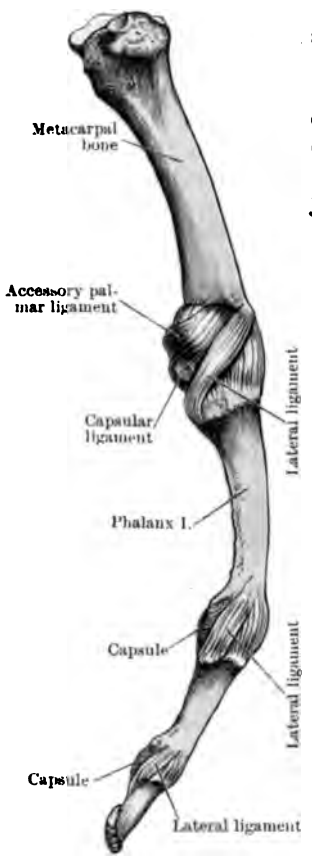

FIG. 228.—METACARPO-PHALANGEAL AND INTERPHALANGEAL JOINTS.

Each joint possesses an articular capsule (Fig. 22 which presents very different degrees of strength different aspects of the articulation. Thus, on the dor aspect, it cannot be demonstrated as an independe structure, but the necessity for dorsal ligaments is to large extent obviated by the presence of the stro flattened expansions of the extensor tendons.

The **internal** and **external lateral ligaments** (ligamen collateralia, Fig. 228) are strong cord-like bands whi pass from the tubercles and adjacent depressions on t sides of the heads of the metacarpal bones to the contiguo non-articular areas on the bases of the proximal phalang They are intimately connected on their anterior aspe with the palmar ligaments.

The **palmar ligaments** consist of thick plates of fib cartilage loosely connected to the metacarpal bones, b firmly adherent to the phalanges. They are plac between the lateral ligaments, to both of which they a in each case connected. Each plate is grooved on t palmar surface for the long flexor tendons, whilst on reverse or joint surface it supports and glides upon t head of the metacarpal bone during flexion and extensi of the joint. In the case of the thumb this plate fibro-cartilage usually develops to sesamoid bones, a in the case of the index finger one such sesamoid nod is frequently found at the radial side of the plate.

An important accessory ligament is found in connexion with the four in metacarpo-phalangeal articulations, viz. :—

The **Transverse Metacarpal Ligament.**—This structure binds together the dis extremities of the four inner metacarpal bones. The name is applied to three s of transverse fibres of great strength which are situated in front of the three in interosseous spaces. These fibres are continuous with the palmar metacar phalangeal ligaments at their lateral margins.

A **synovial membrane** lines the investing capsule of each joint.

INTERPHALANGEAL JOINTS.

Of these joints there are two for each finger and one for the thumb. They correspond, in being ginglymus diarthroses in which the trochlear character of t articular surfaces is associated with one axis of movement directed transversely

In their general arrangement they correspond with each other, and to a l extent with the metacarpo-phalangeal series already described. Each is provi

with a **definite capsule** (Fig. 228), of which the palmar and cord-like lateral portions are well marked, while on the dorsal aspect the extensor tendons act as the chief support. The palmar ligaments are fibrous plates of considerable thickness, and are attached to the two lateral ligaments and to the intervening rough surface on the distal phalanges, while their proximal margins are not attached to bone. Each ligament has its lateral margins prolonged proximally to the adjacent sharply-defined lateral ridges on the phalangeal shafts.

The **lateral ligaments** (Fig. 228) are strong, rounded, short bands, continuous with the preceding, and attached to adjacent non-articular lateral aspects of the phalanges.

Each joint possesses a **synovial membrane** which lines its capsule, but its arrangement presents no special peculiarity.

Movements of the Carpal, Intermetacarpal, Metacarpo-phalangeal and Interphalangeal Joints.

The amount of movement which is possible at individual joints of the intercarpal, intermetacarpal, and carpo-metacarpal series is extremely limited, both on account of the interlocking nature of the articular surfaces and the restraining character of the ligamentous bands. Taken as a whole, however, the movements of the carpus and metacarpus enable the hand to perform many varied and important functions. This is largely due to the greater mobility of those joints on the radial and ulnar borders of the hand, as well as to the general elasticity of the arches formed by the carpus and metacarpus. These conditions particularly favour the movements of opposition and prehension. In the opposite direction, *i.e.* when pressure is applied from the palmar aspect, the metacarpal and carpal arches tend to become flattened, but great elasticity is imparted by the tension of the various ligaments.

The four inner metacarpo-phalangeal joints are ball-and-socket joints, and movements of **palmar-flexion** and **extension** are freely performed about a transverse axis. In exceptional cases a certain amount of **dorsi-flexion** is possible. About an antero-posterior axis movements occur which are usually referred to the middle line of the hand, and hence called **abduction** and **adduction**, but in consequence of the difference in the width of the articular surface on the dorsal and palmar aspects of the heads of the four inner metacarpal bones it is only possible to obtain abduction when the joints are extended, while in the flexed position the joints become locked and abduction is impossible.

The movements of the index finger are less hampered than in the case of the others, but each of them can perform a modified kind of **circumduction**.

The metacarpo-phalangeal joint of the thumb and all the interphalangeal joints are uniaxial or hinge-joints acting about a transverse axis, which permits of **palmar-flexion** and **extension** being freely performed, but **dorsi-flexion** is, as a rule, entirely prevented by the palmar and lateral ligaments.

ARTICULATIONS AND LIGAMENTS OF THE PELVIS.

Although we may consider the pelvis as a separate part of the skeleton, yet it is essential to remember that the bones which enter into its composition belong to the spinal column (sacrum, coccyx) and the lower limb (innominate bone). Accordingly, the articulations, with their corresponding ligaments, may be arranged as follows:—

(*a*) Those by which the segments of the coccyx are joined together (already described, *v.* p. 264);

(*b*) That by which the sacrum articulates with the coccyx (already described, *v.* p. 264);

(*c*) Those by which the sacrum articulates with the last lumbar vertebra (Lumbo-sacral joints);

(*d*) Those by which the innominate bones are attached to the spinal column (Sacro-iliac joints);

(*e*) That by which the innominate bones are attached to each other (Symphysis pubis).

LUMBO-SACRAL JOINTS.

The articulation of sacrum with the fifth lumbar vertebra is constructed precisely on the principle of the articulations between two typical vertebræ, and the usual ligaments associated with such joints are repeated. There is, however, an additional accessory ligament, termed the **lateral lumbo-sacral ligament** (Fig. 229).

This extends from the front of the inferior border of the transverse process of the last lumbar vertebra, downwards and slightly outwards, to the front of the lateral aspect of the ala of the sacrum, close to the sacro-iliac joint. Further, a variable membranous band extends between the lateral aspect of the lower part of the body of the last lumbar vertebra and the front of the ala of the sacrum. This band lies in front of the anterior primary division of the fifth lumbar nerve.

SACRO-ILIAC JOINT.

Each innominate bone articulates with the sacral section of the spinal column on each side through the intervention of a diarthrosis, termed the **sacro-iliac joint** (articulatio sacro-iliaca).

This joint is formed between the contiguous auricular surfaces of the sacrum and ilium. Each of these surfaces is more or less completely clothed by hyaline articular cartilage. The joint cavity, which is little more than a capillary interval, may be crossed by fibrous bands.

The joint cavity is surrounded by ligaments of varying thickness and strength,

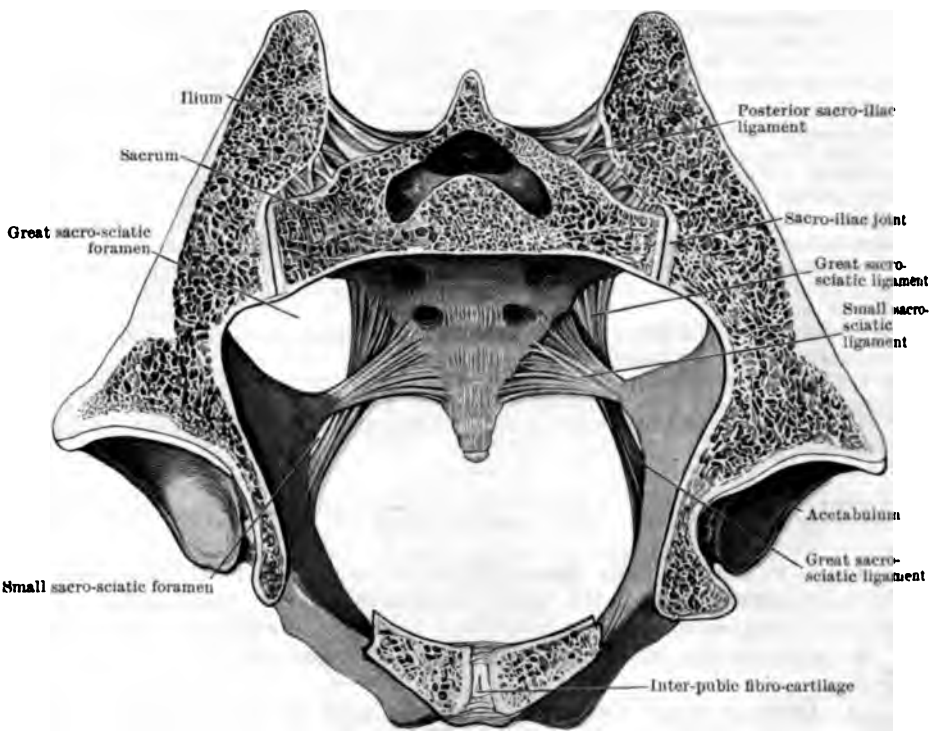

FIG. 229.—CORONAL SECTION OF PELVIS.

which constitute its **capsule**. Thus the anterior part of the investing capsule is thin, and consists of short but strong fibres which pass between adjoining surfaces on the ala of the sacrum and the iliac fossa of the innominate bone; they form the **anterior sacro-iliac ligament** (lig. sacro-iliacum anterius, Fig. 229). On the posterior aspect there are two ligaments. The **short posterior sacro-iliac ligament** (lig. sacro-iliacum posterius breve, Fig. 230) consists of numerous strong fasciculi, which pass from the rough area on the inner aspect of the ilium, above and behind its auricular surface, downwards and inwards to the transverse tubercles and the depressions behind the first and second segments of the sacrum. This ligament is of great strength, and with its fellow it is responsible for suspending the sacrum and the weight of the superimposed trunk from the innominate bones.

The **long** or **oblique posterior sacro-iliac ligament** (lig. sacro-iliacum posterius longum, Fig 230) is a superficial thickened portion of the preceding ligament.

It consists of a definite band of fibres passing from the postero-superior iliac spine to the transverse tubercles of the third and fourth segments of the sacrum.

The **synovial cavity** of this joint is very imperfect and rudimentary.

Several accessory ligaments are associated with the articulation of the innominate bone to the sacral section of the spinal column.

The **ilio-lumbar ligament** (lig. ilio-lumbale, Fig. 229), which is merely the

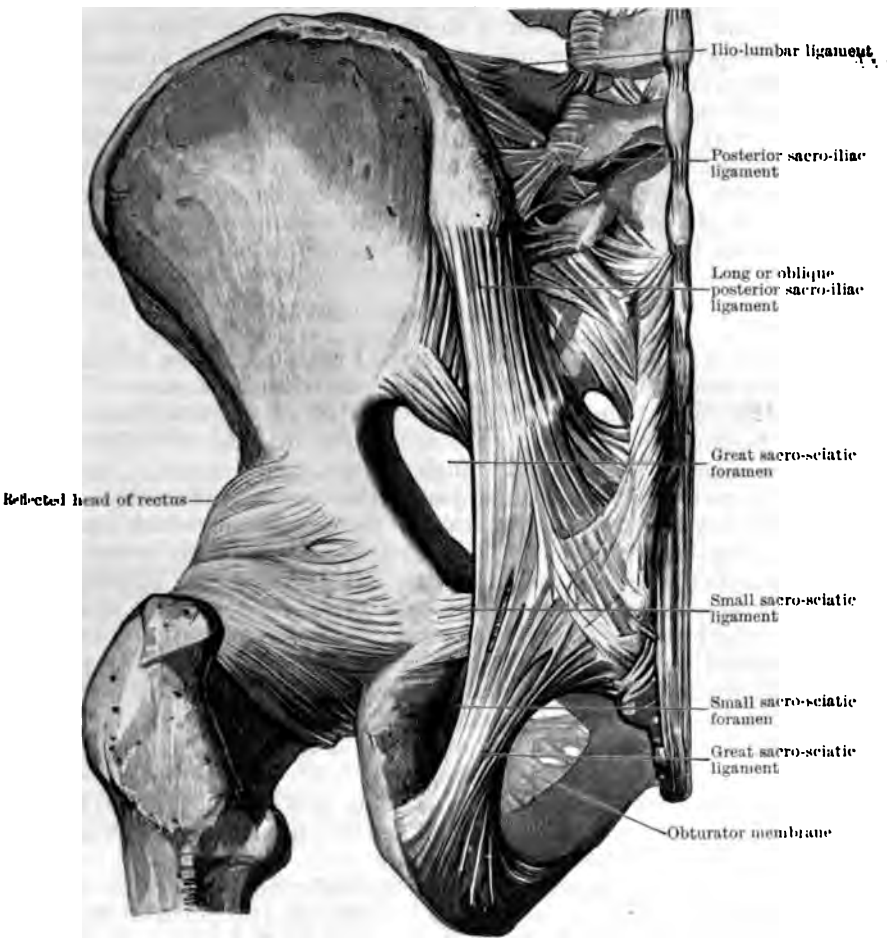

FIG. 230.—POSTERIOR VIEW OF THE PELVIC LIGAMENTS AND OF THE HIP-JOINT.

thickened anterior lamina of the fascia lumborum, extends from the tip of the transverse process of the last lumbar vertebra, almost horizontally outwards, to the inner lip of the iliac crest at a point a short distance behind its highest level. A proportion of these fibres is attached to the inner rough surface of the ilium between the iliac crest and the auricular impression. To these the name of the **lig. ilio-lumbale inferius** is applied.

The **great** or **posterior sacro-sciatic ligament** (lig. sacro-tuberosum, Fig. 230) is somewhat triangular in outline. It occupies the interval between the sacrum and the innominate bone, and is attached mesially to the posterior inferior spine of the ilium; to the posterior aspect of the transverse tubercles and lateral margins of the third, fourth, and fifth segments of the sacrum, as well as to the side of the first segment of the coccyx. It passes downwards and outwards, becoming narrower as it approaches the ischium, near to which, however, it again expands, to be attached to the inner side of the ischial tuberosity, immediately below the groove for the tendon of the obturator internus muscle, *i.e.* the lesser sciatic notch. A continuation of the *inner border* of the ligament—the **processus**

falciformis (Fig. 230)—runs upwards and forwards on the inner aspect of the ramus of the ischium.

The great sacro-sciatic ligament is believed by many to represent the original or proximal end of the long or ischial head of the biceps flexor cruris muscle.

The **small or anterior sacro-sciatic ligament** (lig. sacro-spinosum, Figs. 229 and 230) is situated in front, and in a measure under cover of the great sacro-sciatic ligament. Triangular in form, it is attached by its base to the last two segments of the sacrum and the first segment of the coccyx, and by its pointed apex to the tip and upper aspect of the ischial spine. This ligament is intimately associated with the coccygeus muscle, and by some it is regarded as being derived from it by fibrous transformation of the muscle fasciculi.

By the great and small sacro-sciatic ligaments the two sciatic notches of the innominate bone are converted into foramina. Thus the small sacro-sciatic ligament completes the boundaries of the great sciatic foramen (foramen ischiadicum majus); while the great sacro-sciatic ligament, assisted by the small sacro-sciatic ligament, closes the small sciatic foramen (foramen ischiadicum minus).

SYMPHYSIS PUBIS.

The anterior wall of the osseous pelvis is completed by the articulation of the bodies of the two pubic bones constituting the **symphysis pubis**. This joint conforms in its construction to the general plan of an amphiarthrosis. Thus it is mesial in position; each pubic bone is covered by a layer of hyaline cartilage, which closely adapts itself to the rough tuberculated surface of the pubic bone; while between these two hyaline plates there is an interposed fibro-cartilage (lamina fibro-cartilaginea interpubica), in the interior of which there is usually a vertical antero-posterior cleft. This cavity, which is placed nearer the posterior than the anterior aspect of the joint, does not appear until between the seventh and tenth years, and as it is not lined by a synovial membrane, it is supposed to result from the breaking down of the interpubic lamina.

The **anterior pubic ligament** (lig. pubicum anterius, Fig. 229) is a structure of considerable thickness and strength. Its superficial fibres, which are derived very largely from the tendons and aponeuroses of adjoining muscles, are oblique, and form an interlaced decussation. The deeper fibres are short, and extend transversely from one pubic bone to the other.

The **posterior pubic ligament** (lig. pubicum posterius, Fig. 230) is very weak, and consists of scattered fibres which extend transversely between contiguous pubic surfaces posterior to the articulation.

The **superior pubic ligament** (lig. pubicum superius, Fig. 229) is likewise weak, and consists of transverse fibres passing between the two pubic crests.

The **inferior** or **subpubic ligament** (lig. pubicum inferius vel lig. arcuatum pubis, Fig. 230) occupies the arch of the pubis, and is of considerable strength. It gives roundness to the pubic arch and forms part of the pelvic outlet. It has considerable vertical thickness immediately below the interpubic disc to which it is attached. Laterally it is attached to adjacent sides of the descending rami of the pubis. Its lower border is free, and separated from the triangular ligament of the perineum by a transverse oval interval through which the dorsal vein of the penis passes backwards to the interior of the pelvis.

The Triangular Ligament of the Perineum.

The **triangular ligament of the perineum** is a membranous structure which occupies the pubic arch below and distinct from the subpubic ligament. It assists in completing the pelvic walls anteriorly in the same manner that the obturator membrane does laterally. Indeed, these two structures occupy the same morphological plane. The triangular ligament presents two surfaces—one superficial or perineal; the other deep, or pelvic, and both of these surfaces are associated with muscles. Its lateral borders are attached to the sides of the pubic arch while its base is somewhat ill-defined, by reason of its fusion with the fascia of Colles in the urethral region of the perineum.

The apex of the triangular ligament is truncated, free, and well defined, constituting the **transverse perineal ligament**, above which there is the interval for the dorsal vein of the penis. It is pierced by a number of vessels and nerves, but the principal opening is situated mesially one inch below the pubic arch, and transmits the urethra.

The Obturator Membrane.

The **obturator membrane** (membrana obturatoria, Fig. 232) occupies the obturator or thyroid foramen. It is attached to the pelvic aspect of the circumference of this foramen. It consists of fibres irregularly arranged and of varying strength, so that sometimes it almost appears fenestrated. At the highest part of the foramen it is incomplete and forms a U-shaped border, between which and the bony circumference of the foramen, the obturator canal (canalis obturatorius) is formed. In this position the membrane is continuous with the parietal pelvic fascia which clothes the inner side of the obturator internus muscle, above the upper free margin of the muscle. From the outer or crural aspect of the membrane some of its fibres are prolonged to the antero-inferior aspect of the capsule of the hip-joint.

Mechanism and Movements of the Pelvis.—The human pelvis presents a mechanism the principal requirement of which is stability and not movement, for, through the pelvis, the weight of the trunk, superimposed upon the sacrum, is transmitted to the lower limbs. Moreover, its stability is largely concerned in the maintenance of the erect attitude. The movements of its various parts are therefore merely such as are consistent with stability, without producing absolute rigidity.

The two innominate bones, being bound together by powerful ligaments at the pubic articulation, constitute an inverted arch, of which the convexity is directed downwards and forwards, while its piers are turned upwards and backwards, and considerably expanded in relation to the hinder parts of the iliac bones. Between the piers of this inverted arch the sacrum is situated. This bone is in no sense a key-stone to an arch, because, as may readily be seen in antero-posterior transverse section, the sacrum is wider in front than behind, and the superposed weight naturally tends to make the sacrum fall towards the pelvic cavity, and so fit less closely between the innominate bones. The sacrum is in reality an oblique platform, in contact with each innominate bone through its articular auricular surfaces, and in this position it is suspended by the posterior sacro-iliac ligaments, and kept securely in place by the "grip" due to the irregularity of the opposed surfaces of the two sacro-iliac articulations. Since the weight of the trunk is transmitted to the anterior and upper end of this sacral platform, there is a natural tendency for the sacrum to revolve upon the transverse axis which passes through its sacro-iliac joints. If this were permitted, the promontory of the sacrum would rotate downwards and forwards towards the pelvic cavity, as really does occur in certain deformities. This revolution or tilting downwards of the fore-part of the sacrum is prevented by the action of the great and small sacro-sciatic ligaments, extending from the ischial tuberosity to the hinder and lower end of the suspended platform of the sacrum. Not only so, but these ligaments, acting on a rigid sacrum, tend to hold up the weight upon the sacral promontory.

The various ligaments passing between the last lumbar vertebra and the sacrum and ilium retain the weight of the trunk in position upon the anterior end of the sacrum, and resist its tendency to slip forwards and downwards towards the pelvic cavity. The entire weight of the trunk and pelvis is transmitted to the heads of the thigh bones in the most advantageous position, both for effectiveness and the strengthening of the inverted innominate arch, for it will be evident that the heads of the femora thrust inwards upon the convex side of the arch, very much at the place where the arches are weakest, viz. at the springing of the arch from its piers. The forces which tend to cause movement of the pelvic bones during parturition act from within the pelvis, and have for their object the increase of the various pelvic diameters, in order that the fœtal head may more readily be transmitted. For this purpose the wedge-like dorsal surface of the sacrum is driven backwards, and a certain amount of extra space may thereby be obtained. An important factor, however, in the increase of the pelvic capacity at this period is found in the relaxation of its various ligaments.

THE ARTICULATIONS OF THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

THE HIP-JOINT.

The human body provides no more perfect example of an enarthrodial diarthrosis than the hip-joint (articulatio coxæ). Combined with all that variety of movement which characterises a multi-axial joint, it nevertheless presents great stability, which has been obtained by simple arrangements, for restricting the range of its natural

movements. This stability is of paramount importance for the maintenance of the erect attitude, and the mechanical adaptations whereby this result is obtained are such that the erect attitude may be preserved without any great degree of sustained muscular effort.

Articular Surfaces.—The head of the femur is globular in shape, and considerably exceeds a hemisphere. It is clothed by hyaline articular cartilage on those parts which come into direct contact with the acetabulum. There is frequently more or less of extension of the articular cartilage from the head to the adjoining anterior part of the neck, an extension which is accounted for by the close and constant apposition of this portion of the neck with the hinder aspect of the ilio-femoral ligament. The limit of the articular cartilage covering the head is indicated by a sinuous border. Further, there is an absence of articular cartilage from the pit or depression on the head of the femur.

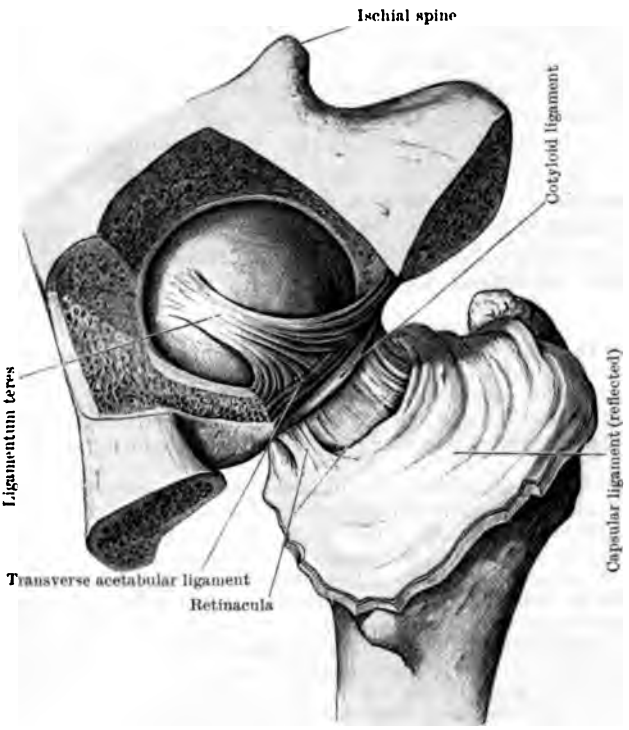

FIG. 231.—DISSECTION OF THE HIP-JOINT.
Bottom of the acetabulum removed, and capsule of the joint thrown outwards towards the trochanters.

The acetabulum is a deep cup-shaped cavity which presents an interruption or notch on its antero-inferior margin. The interior of the cup is lined by a ribbon-like band of articular cartilage which extends to the brim of the cavity, but does not cover the floor of the cup. This articular ribbon-shaped band is widest on its supero-posterior aspect, and narrowest at the anterior margin of the notch.

The **transverse ligament** (lig. transversum acetabuli, Fig. 231) bridges the acetabular notch, and consists of strong transverse fibres which are attached to both of its margins, but more extensively to the postero-inferior. This ligament does not entirely fill the notch, but leaves an open interval between its lower border and the bottom of the notch through which vessels and nerves enter the cup. The acetabular aspect of this ligament constitutes an articular surface.

The acetabulum is deepened by the **cotyloid ligament** (labrum glenoidale, Figs. 231 and 232), which consists of a strong ring of fibro-cartilaginous tissue attached to the entire rim of the cup. The attached surface of the ring is broader than its free edge, and, moreover, the latter is somewhat contracted, so that the ligament grasps the head of the femur which it encircles. Its fibres are partly oblique and partly circular in their direction. By the former it is firmly implanted on the rim of the acetabulum and the transverse ligament of the notch; by the latter the depth of the cup is increased through the elevation of its edge, and its mouth slightly narrowed. By one surface this ligament is also articular.

A **capsule** (capsula articularis, Figs. 230 and 232) completely invests the joint cavity. This is a fibrous membrane of great strength, although it is not of equal thickness throughout, being considerably thicker on the supero-anterior aspect than at any other part. Unlike the corresponding structure of the shoulder-joint, it does not permit of the withdrawal of the head of the femur from contact with the acetabular articular surfaces, except to a very limited extent. Its fibres are arranged

both in the circular and in the longitudinal direction, the former, known as the **zona orbicularis**, being best marked posteriorly, while the longitudinal fibres stand out more distinctly in front, where they constitute special ligaments. Looked at as a whole, the capsule has the following attachments: *superiorly* it surrounds the acetabulum, on the upper and hinder aspects of which it is attached directly to the innominate bone, while on the front and lower aspects it is attached to the non-articular surfaces of the cotyloid and transverse ligaments; *inferiorly* it encircles the neck of the femur, where it is attached in front to the anterior intertrochanteric line; above, to the inner aspect of the root of the great trochanter; below, to the lower part of the neck of the femur, in close proximity to the small trochanter; behind, to the line of junction of the outer and middle thirds of the neck of the femur. It is a matter of some importance to note that only part of the posterior surface of the neck of the femur is enclosed within the capsule. The femoral attachments of the capsule vary considerably in their strength, being particularly firm above and in front, but much weaker below and behind, where the orbicular fibres are well seen. Many fibres of the capsule are reflected from its deep aspect upwards upon the neck of the femur, where they form ridges, and to these the term **rectinacula** (Fig. 231) is applied.

The longitudinal fibres of the capsule are arranged so as to form certain definite bands, viz:—

(1) The **ilio-femoral ligament** (lig. ilio-femorale, Fig. 232) consists of a triangular set of fibres attached above, by their apex, to the lower part of the anterior inferior iliac spine and the immediately adjoining part of the rim of the acetabulum, and below, by their base, to the anterior intertrochanteric line of the femur. This ligament is the thickest part of the capsule, but its sides are more pronounced than its centre, especially towards its base. Consequently the ilio-femoral band presents some resemblance to an inverted Y (λ), and therefore it is very generally known as the Y-shaped ligament of Bigelow.

The outer or upper limb of the ilio-femoral ligament may be somewhat extended by the inclusion of additional longitudinal fibres, and described as the **ilio-trochanteric** ligament (lig. ilio-trochantericum). This band arises from the anterior part of the dorsum of the acetabulum, and extends to the femoral neck, close to the anterior end of the inner surface of the great trochanter.

(2) The **pubo-femoral** or **pubo-capsular ligament** (lig. pubo-femorale v. pubo-capsulare, Fig. 232) is composed of some bands of fibres of no great strength, which extend from the outer end of the horizontal ramus of the pubis, the ilio-pectineal eminence, the obturator crest and the obturator membrane, to lose themselves for the most part in the capsule, although a certain proportion of them may be traced to the inferior aspect of the femoral neck, where they adjoin the lower attachment of the Y-shaped ligament.

(3) The **ischio-capsular ligament** (lig. ischio-capsulare, Fig. 230) consists of a broad band of short, fairly strong longitudinal fibres, which, by their upper ends, are attached to the ischium between the small sciatic notch and the obturator foramen, while their lower ends become merged in the zona orbicularis of the general capsule.

Within the capsule, and quite distinct from it, there are the ligamentum teres and the Haversian gland.

The **interarticular ligament** (lig. teres femoris, Fig. 231) is a strong, somewhat flattened band of fibrous tissue, attached by one end to the upper half of the pit or depression on the head of the femur. By its inner end it is attached to the lower edge of the articular surface of the transverse ligament, with extensions to the opposite borders of the acetabular notch, but chiefly to the hinder or ischial border. This ligament varies very greatly in its strength and development in different subjects, and in certain rare cases it is absent.

The so-called **Haversian gland** occupies the bottom or non-articular area of the acetabulum. It consists of a mass of fat covered by synovial membrane. This pad of fat is continuous with the extra-capsular fat through the passage subjacent to the transverse ligament of the notch.

A synovial membrane lines the capsule from which it is reflected to the neck of the femur along a line which corresponds to the femoral attachments of the

capsule. Thus the synovial membrane clothes more of the femoral neck ante than in any other position. Posteriorly, where the capsule is feebly attach

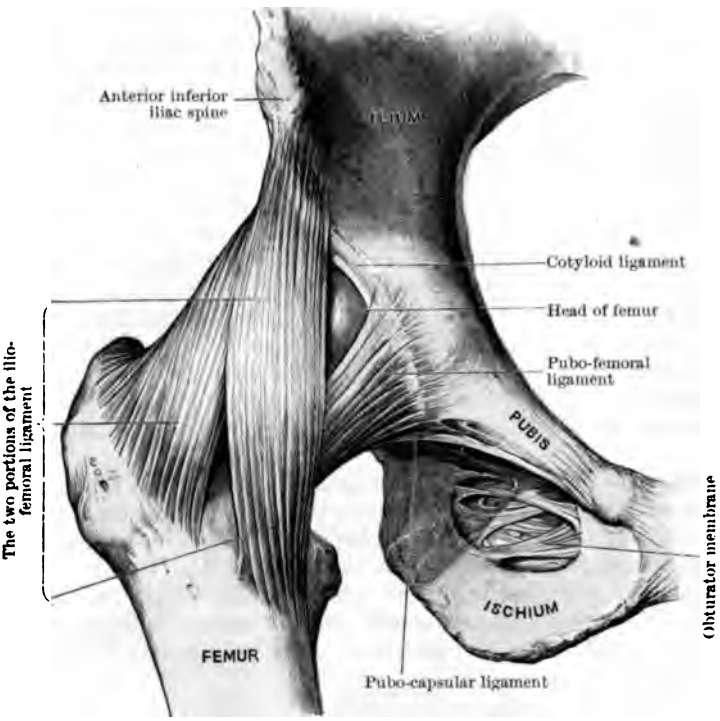

FIG. 232.—DISSECTION OF THE HIP-JOINT FROM THE FRONT.

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ments, upon which it is continued as a lining for their acetabular or art surfaces, and further, it provides a covering for the fat at the bottom o acetabular fossa, as well as a complete tubular investment for the ligamentum

Occasionally the **synovial bursa**, which is subjacent to the tendon of th psoas muscle, communicates with the interior of the hip-joint through an op in the anterior wall of the capsule (Fig. 232), situated between the pubo-fe ligament and the inner or lower limb of the ilio-femoral ligament.

Movements at the Hip-Joint.—The movements which occur at the hip-joint are t a multiaxial joint. These are **flexion, extension, abduction, adduction, rotation,** and **circumd** The range of each of these movements is less extensive than in the case of the shoulder-joi cause, at the hip, the freedom of movement is subordinated to that stability which is essentia for the maintenance of the erect attitude and for locomotion. When standing at rest in th attitude the hip-joint occupies the position of **extension,** and as the weight of the trunk is mitted in a perpendicular which falls behind the centres of the hip-joints, both the erect a and the extended position are maintained to a large extent mechanically, without sustaine cular action, by means of the tension of the ilio-femoral ligament. Moreover, the tension ligament is sustained by the pressure of the front of the head and neck of the femur aga synovial surface. In this association of parts it is important to note that the articular ca of the femoral head may be, and in certain races is, prolonged to the front of the femoral and further, that the constant friction does not destroy the synovial lining of the c Again, the same mechanism which preserves the erect attitude prevents an excessive de extension or dorsiflexion. In movement forwards, *i.e.* ventral **flexion,** the front of the is approximated to the anterior abdominal wall. The amount of this movement depend the position of the knee-joint, because when the latter is flexed the thigh may be brougl contact with the abdominal wall, whereas when the knee-joint is straightened (*i.e.* ext the tension of the hamstring muscles greatly restricts the amount of flexion at the hi **Abduction** and **adduction** are likewise much more restricted than at the shoulder-joint. tion is brought to a close by the tension of the pubo-femoral band and the lower part capsule, and, in addition, the upper aspect of the neck of the femur locks against the of the acetabulum. Excessive **adduction** is prevented by the tension of the upper band ilio-femoral ligament and the upper part of the capsule. **Rotation** or movement in a tudinal axis may be either inwards, *i.e.* towards the front, or outwards, *i.e.* toward the

In the former the movement is brought to a close by the tension of the ischio-capsular ligament and back part of the capsule, aided by the muscles on the back of the joint; in the latter—rotation outwards—the chief restraining factor is the outer or upper limb of the ilio-femoral ligament. The total amount of rotation is probably less than 60°.

Circumduction is only slightly less free than at the shoulder, but it is complicated by the preservation of the balance upon one foot.

The value and influence of the ligamentum teres are not easily estimated, because it may be absent without causing any known interference with the usefulness of the joint. In the erect attitude this ligament lies lax between the lower part of the femoral head and the acetabular fat. In the act of walking it is rendered tense at the moment when the pelvis is balanced on the summit of the supporting femur. Analysis of this position shows the femur to be adducted, with probably, in addition, a small amount of flexion (*i.e.* bending forwards) and internal rotation. Again, this ligament is said to be tense when the thigh is rotated outwards. The equivalent of this movement is doubtless found in the rotation of the pelvis, which occurs in the act of walking at the moment of transition from the toe of the supporting foot to the heel of the advancing foot. The interest connected with this ligament is perhaps morphological rather than physiological. It is believed by some to represent the tendon of a muscle which in birds occupies a position external to the joint capsule.

THE KNEE-JOINT.

The knee-joint (articulatio genu) is the largest articulation in the body, and its structure is of a very elaborate nature. The part it plays in maintaining the erect attitude materially influences its construction, and special arrangements are provided for the mechanical retention of the joint in the extended position, in view of the fact that the line of gravity falls in front of the centre of the articulation. Its principal axis of movement is in the transverse direction, consequently it belongs to the ginglymus or hinge variety of the diarthroses. At the same time a slight amount of rotation of the tibia in its long axis is permitted during extreme flexion; but while this fact is of considerable importance in the study of certain accidents to which the joint is liable, as well as in the study of its comparative morphology, it is not sufficiently pronounced to interfere with its classification as a hinge-joint.

Articular surfaces pertaining to the femur, tibia, and patella, enter into the formation of the knee-joint. The articular surface of the femur extends over a large part of both condyles, and may be divided into patellar and tibial portions by faintly-marked, almost transverse grooves, which pass across the articular surface immediately in front of the intercondylar notch. As a rule marginal indentations of the articular surface render the positions of these transverse grooves more distinct.

The **patellar portion** (Fig. 233) is situated anteriorly, and is common to both condyles, although developed to a larger extent in association with the outer condyle, on which it ascends to a higher level than on the inner condyle. This surface is trochlear, and forms a vertical groove bordered by prominent lateral borders.

The **tibial portion** of the articular surface of the femur is divided into two articular areas, in relation to the inferior aspects of the two condyles, by the wide non-articular intercondyloid notch. These two surfaces are for the most part parallel, but in front the internal tibial surface turns obliquely outwards as it passes into continuity with the patellar trochlea, while posteriorly, under certain circumstances, *e.g.* the squatting posture, the articular surface of the inner condyle may extend to the adjoining portion of the popliteal area of the bone.

When the joint is in the position of extreme flexion, the patella is brought into direct contact with that part of the articular surface on the inner condyle which bounds the intercondyloid notch upon its inner and anterior aspects. This relationship is indicated by the presence of a distinct semilunar facet on the cartilage in that situation (Fig. 233). The articular surface of the femur may therefore be regarded as presenting **femoro-patellar** and **femoro-tibial areas**.

The **patella** presents on its posterior aspect a transversely-elongated oval articular facet and an inferior rough, triangular, non-articular area. The articular facet is divided into two principal lateral portions by a prominent rounded vertical ridge. Of these the outer is the wider. A less pronounced and nearly vertical ridge marks off an additional facet called the internal perpendicular facet, close to the inner margin of the articular surface. Two faint transverse ridges cut off

narrow upper and lower facets from the general articular surface without encroaching on the narrow innermost vertical facet (Goodsir) (Fig. 233).

The head of the **tibia** presents on its superior aspect two condylar articular surfaces, separated from each other by a non-articular antero-posterior area, which is wider in front and behind than in the middle, where it is elevated to form a bifid tibial spine.

The **external condylar facet** is slightly concavo-convex from before backwards, and slightly concave transversely. This surface is almost circular, and extends to the free external border of the tibial head, where it is somewhat flattened. Posteriorly the articular surface is prolonged downwards on the tuberosity in relation to the position occupied by the tendon of the popliteus muscle. The

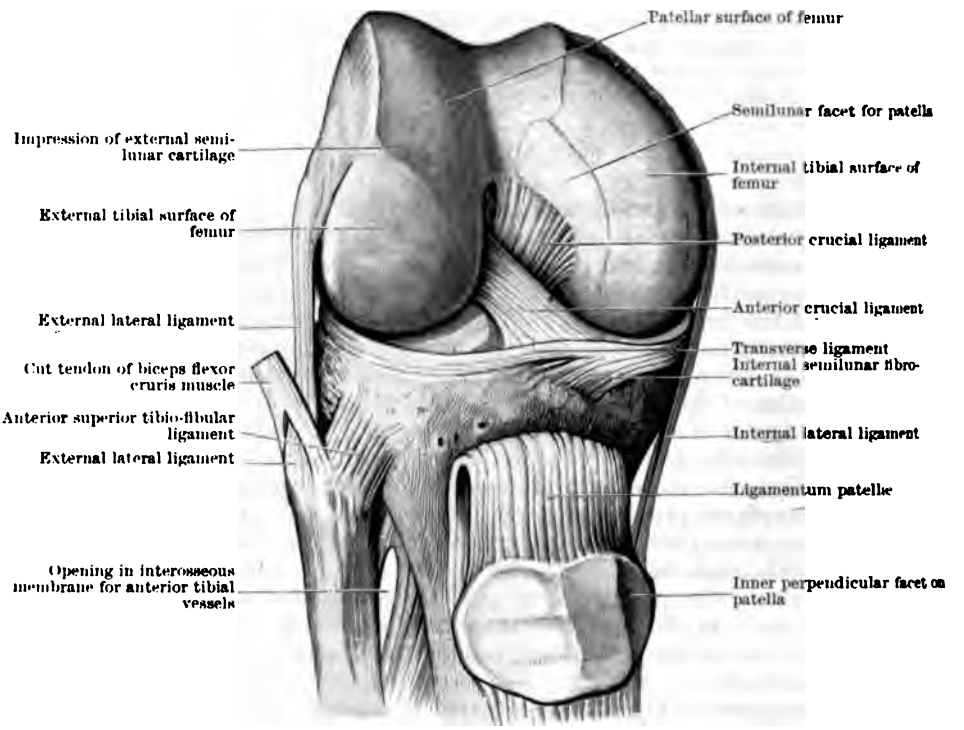

Patellar surface of femur
Semilunar facet for patella
Impression of external semi-lunar cartilage
Internal tibial surface of femur
External tibial surface of femur
Posterior crucial ligament
Anterior crucial ligament
External lateral ligament
Transverse ligament
Cut tendon of biceps flexor cruris muscle
Internal semilunar fibro-cartilage
Anterior superior tibio-fibular ligament
Internal lateral ligament
External lateral ligament
Ligamentum patellæ
Opening in interosseous membrane for anterior tibial vessels
Inner perpendicular facet on patella

FIG. 233.—DISSECTION OF THE KNEE-JOINT FROM THE FRONT: PATELLA THROWN DOWN.

internal condylar facet is oval in outline, and distinctly concave both in its antero-posterior and transverse diameters.

Ligaments.—Like all diarthroses, this joint is invested by an envelope or **capsule** (capsula articularis), which does not, however, entirely surround the joint cavity, for it is absent as a fibrous membrane above the joint cavity, subjacent to the tendon of the quadriceps extensor muscle. Its specially named bands are not of themselves sufficient to form a complete investment, and a capsular membrane, which largely consists of augmentations from the fascia lata and the tendons of surrounding muscles, supplies the defective areas. Thus, anteriorly, on each side of the patella and the ligamentum patellæ, expansions of the vasti tendons and fascia lata, constituting **lateral patellar ligaments**, are evident. On the outer side of the joint the external lateral ligament is hidden within a covering derived from the ilio-tibial band of the fascia lata. On the inner side expansions from the tendons of the sartorius and semi-membranosus muscles augment the capsule, which here becomes continuous with the internal lateral ligament. Posteriorly the capsule also receives augmentation from the tendon of the semi-membranosus muscle, but it is very thin subjacent to the origins of the gastrocnemius muscle, where it covers the hinder parts of the condyles. Not unfrequently the capsule presents an opening of communication between the interior of the joint cavity and a bursa which lies under cover of the inner head of the gastrocnemius muscle.

The **anterior ligament** (lig. patellæ, Fig. 233), also called the ligamentum patellæ, is a powerful flattened band, attached superiorly to the apex and adjoining margins of the patella, and inferiorly to the rough anterior tuberosity at the upper end of the shaft of the tibia. This ligament also serves as a tendon of insertion for the quadriceps extensor muscle, and a certain number of the fibres of the tendon may be observed to descend as a thin fibrous covering for the anterior surface of the patella. The deep surface of the tendon is separated from the front of the head of the tibia by a synovial bursa, and above this it rests upon the infrapatellar pad of fat, which is placed between the tendon and the synovial membrane of the joint.

The **posterior ligament** (Fig. 234) is a compound structure of unequal strength,

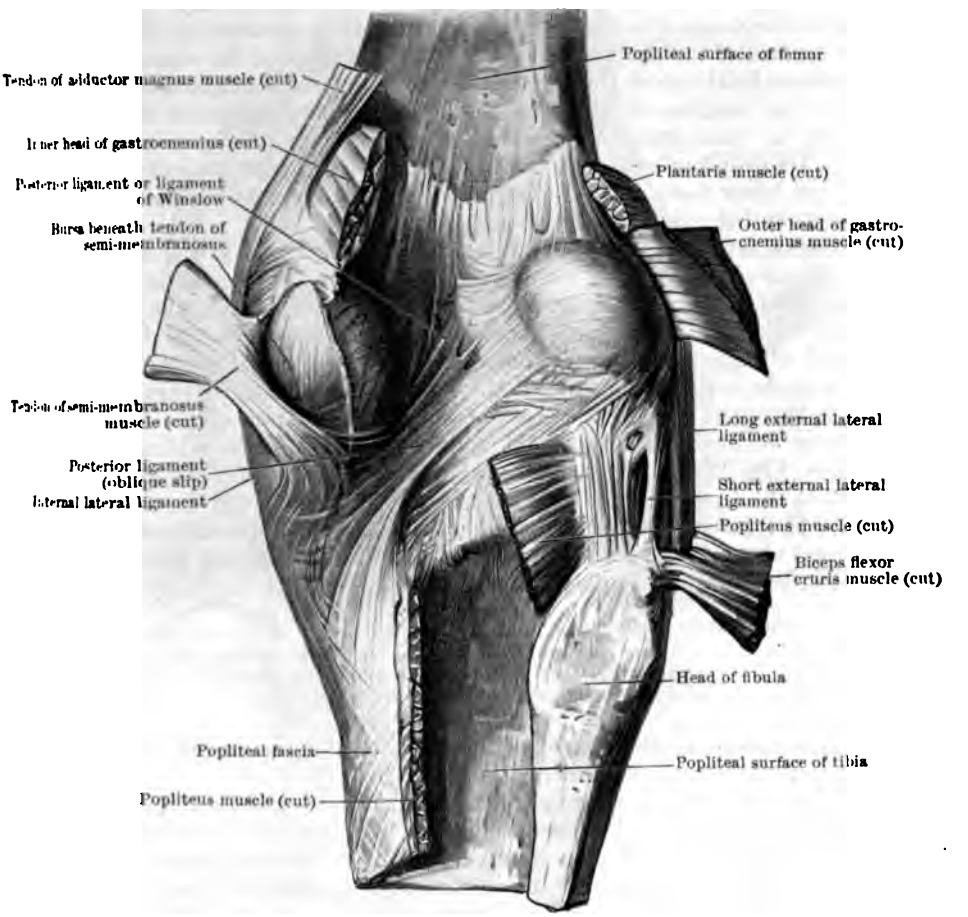

Popliteal surface of femur
Tendon of adductor magnus muscle (cut)
Inner head of gastrocnemius (cut)
Plantaris muscle (cut)
Posterior ligament or ligament of Winslow
Bursa beneath tendon of semi-membranosus
Outer head of gastrocnemius muscle (cut)
Tendon of semi-membranosus muscle (cut)
Long external lateral ligament
Posterior ligament (oblique slip)
Internal lateral ligament
Short external lateral ligament
Popliteus muscle (cut)
Biceps flexor cruris muscle (cut)
Head of fibula
Popliteal fascia
Popliteal surface of tibia
Popliteus muscle (cut)

FIG. 234.—THE KNEE-JOINT. POSTERIOR VIEW.

and those portions by which it establishes continuity with the lateral parts of the capsule are remarkably thin. It is attached superiorly to the popliteal surface of the femur, close to the intercondyloid notch, with lateral extensions to the non-articular areas immediately above the posterior articular margins of the two condyles, where it is closely associated with the origins of the gastrocnemius muscle.

Inferiorly it is attached to the rough non-articular posterior border of the head of the tibia, where, to its fibular side, it presents an opening of exit for the tendon of the popliteus muscle (Fig. 234).

The tendon of insertion of the semi-membranosus muscle contributes an important expansion which augments the posterior ligament on its superficial aspect. This expansion—**ligamentum posticum Winslowii**—passes obliquely upwards and outwards to lose itself in the general ligament, but it is most distinct in the region between the femoral condyles, where it may present upper and lower arcuate

borders. A number of vessels and nerves perforate this ligament, and hence presents a number of apertures.

The **internal lateral ligament** (lig. collaterale tibiale, Figs. 233 and 235) is a wel defined, strong, flat band which is applied to the inner side of the knee-joint, and rather wider in the middle than at either end. It is frequently regarded as consistin of two portions—an anterior or long portion, and a posterior or short one. The tv parts arise close together from the non-articular inner surface of the inner condyl immediately below the adductor tubercle. The **short** or **posterior portion** descen slightly backwards, to be attached to the postero-internal aspect of the inner part the tibia above the groove for the semi-membranosus tendon. The **long** or **anteri portion** inclines somewhat forwards, and descending superficially to the tendon the semi-membranosus, it is continued downwards, to be attached to the upper part the inner surface of the shaft of the tibia below the level of the anterior tuberosit

On its superficial aspect the internal lateral ligament is augmented by prolong tions from the tendons of the semi-membranosus and sartorius muscles, but separated by a bursa from the tendons of adductor-gracilis, semi-tendinosus, an sartorius. Its deep surface is adherent to the convex edge of the internal semilun cartilage, but lower down the inferior internal articular vessels intervene betwee the ligament and the shaft of the tibia.

The **external lateral ligament** (lig. collaterale fibulare, Figs. 233 and 235), sometim called the ligamentum laterale externum longum, is a distinct rounded band whic is under cover of the ordinary capsule, and yet well separated from the joint cavity b intervening objects. It is attached superiorly to a tubercle on the outer surface the external condyle, immediately above the groove occupied by the tendon of th popliteus muscle, superficial to which the ligament descends. By its lower end it attached to the outer side of the head of the fibula, in front of the styloid proces In its course vertically downwards it splits the tendon of insertion of the bicep flexor cruris (Fig. 233), the portions of which are fixed to the head of the fibula o either side of the ligament, and a bursa may intervene between the tendon and th ligament. The inferior external articular vessels pass forwards subjacent to th ligament and above the head of the fibula. Unlike the internal ligament, it is n attached to the corresponding semilunar cartilage.

The **ligamentum laterale externum breve seu posticum** (Fig. 234) is an inconstant structu which is attached by its upper end immediately behind the preceding, and subjacent to t outer head of the gastrocnemius muscle. It likewise descends superficial to the popliteal tend and is affixed inferiorly into the styloid process of the fibula.

The **intra-articular structures** of the knee-joint are more important and mo numerous than in any other joint of the body.

The **crucial ligaments** (ligamenta cruciata genu) are two strong, rounded, tendino bands, which extend from the non-articular area on the upper surface of the he of the tibia to the non-articular sides of the intercondyloid notch of the fem These interarticular ligaments are distinguished from each other as the anterior external and the posterior or internal. They cross each other like the limbs an X, yet they remain distinct throughout, and each has its own partial synov covering. They lie within the capsule of the joint, and extend between no articular surfaces in relation to the longitudinal axis of the limb.

The **ligamentum cruciatum anterius** (Figs. 233, 235, and 236) is attached inferio to the inner part of the rough, depressed area in front of and close to the spine the tibia. It passes obliquely upwards, outwards, and backwards to the inn non-articular surface of the external condyle, where it finds attachment far back the posterior part of the intercondyloid notch. This ligament is tense in the positi of extension, and therefore it assists in maintaining the erect attitude.

The **ligamentum cruciatum posterius** (Figs. 233, 235, and 236) is somewhat shor than the preceding. It is attached inferiorly to the hinder part of the depress surface behind the spine of the tibia and close to the popliteal notch. Its fib pass obliquely upwards, forwards, and inwards, to be inserted into the outer no articular surface of the inner condyle, far forwards towards the anterior margin the intercondyloid notch. It is rendered tense in the position of flexion.

The semilunar interarticular fibro-cartilages are two in number—an inner and an outer—placed horizontally between the articular surfaces of the femur and tibia. In general outline they correspond to the circumferential portions of the tibial facets upon which they rest. Each has a thick, convex, fixed border in relation to the periphery of the joint, and a thin, concave, free border directed towards the interior of the joint. Neither of them is sufficiently large to cover the whole of the tibial articular surface upon which it rests. The upper and lower surfaces of each semilune are smooth and free, and each cartilage terminates in an anterior and a posterior fibrous horn or cornu.

The **internal semilunar fibro-cartilage** (meniscus medialis, Figs. 235 and 236)

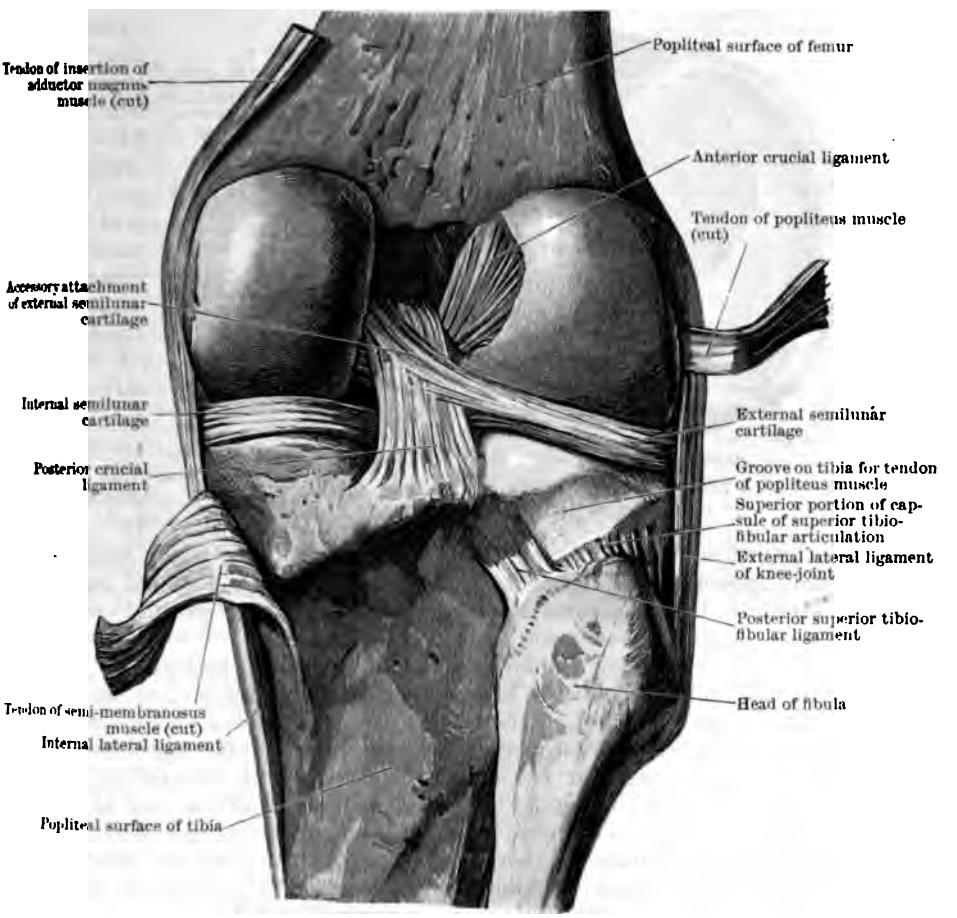

Tendon of insertion of adductor magnus muscle (cut)
Popliteal surface of femur
Anterior crucial ligament
Tendon of popliteus muscle (cut)
Accessory attachment of external semilunar cartilage
Internal semilunar cartilage
External semilunar cartilage
Posterior crucial ligament
Groove on tibia for tendon of popliteus muscle
Superior portion of capsule of superior tibio-fibular articulation
External lateral ligament of knee-joint
Posterior superior tibio-fibular ligament
Head of fibula
Tendon of semi-membranosus muscle (cut)
Internal lateral ligament
Popliteal surface of tibia

FIG. 235.—THE KNEE-JOINT OPENED FROM BEHIND BY THE REMOVAL OF THE POSTERIOR LIGAMENT.

forms very nearly a semicircle. It is attached by its anterior horn to the non-articular surface on the head of the tibia, in front of the tibial attachment of the anterior crucial ligament, and by its posterior horn to the non-articular surface immediately in front of the tibial attachment of the posterior crucial ligament. The deep or hinder part of the internal lateral ligament is attached to its periphery.

The **external semilunar fibro-cartilage** (meniscus lateralis, Figs. 235 and 236) is attached by its anterior horn to the non-articular surface of the tibia in front of the tibial spine, where it is placed to the outer side, and partly under cover of the tibial end of the anterior crucial ligament. By its posterior horn it is attached to the interval between the two tubercles which surmount the tibial spine, *i.e.* in front of the attachment of the posterior horn of the internal semilunar cartilage. This fibro-cartilage, with its two horns, therefore forms almost a complete circle. Posteriorly it is attached by its periphery to the *posterior* ligament, but on the outer side it

is separated from the external lateral ligament by the tendon of the popliteus muscle, and on this aspect its periphery is free.

The two horns of the external semilune are embraced by the two horns of the internal one, and, while the anterior crucial ligament has its tibial attachment almost between the anterior horns of the two semilunes, the tibial attachment of the posterior crucial ligament is situated behind the posterior horns of the two semilunes.

Both semilunes possess certain accessory attachments. Thus the external semilune sends a large bundle of fibres from its convex posterior border to augment the posterior aspect of the posterior crucial ligament, by which these fibres are conducted to the femur. Again, the convex or peripheral margins of each semilune possess certain attachments to the deep surface of the capsule on its inner and posterior aspects, as has already been explained, but, in addition, they are attached to the non-articular circumference of the tibial head by short fibrous bands known as the **ligamenta coronaria**. Lastly, a rounded band which varies in strength, the **transverse ligament** (lig. transversum genu, Figs. 233 and 236), stretches between the anterior convex margins of the two semilunes, crossing the front part of the non-articular area on the tibial head in its course.

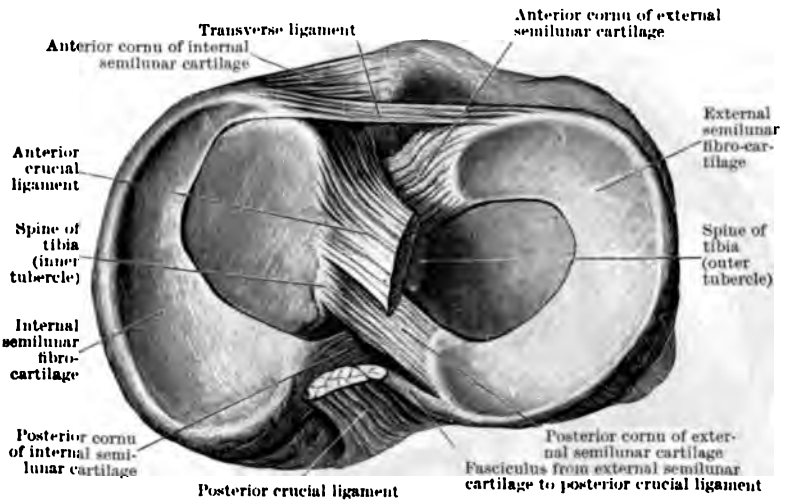

Transverse ligament
Anterior cornu of internal semilunar cartilage
Anterior cornu of external semilunar cartilage
External semilunar fibro-cartilage
Anterior crucial ligament
Spine of tibia (inner tubercle)
Spine of tibia (outer tubercle)
Internal semilunar fibro-cartilage
Posterior cornu of internal semilunar cartilage
Posterior cornu of external semilunar cartilage
Fasciculus from external semilunar cartilage to posterior crucial ligament
Posterior crucial ligament

FIG. 236.—UPPER END OF TIBIA WITH SEMILUNAR CARTILAGES AND ATTACHED PORTIONS OF CRUCIAL LIGAMENTS.

The **synovial membrane** of the knee-joint is not only the largest, but the most elaborately arranged of its kind in the body. It not only lines the capsule, but it forms a more or less extensive covering for the intracapsular ligaments and the free surface of the **infra-patellar pad of fat**. This pad acts as a wedge which fits into the interval between the patella, tibia, and femoral condyles, and the synovial membrane upon its surface forms a band or fold which extends from below the level of the patellar articular surface to the anterior part of the intercondyloid notch. This is in no sense a ligament, although it is named the **ligamentum mucosum**, or plica synovialis patellaris. At its femoral end it is narrow and attenuated, but at its patellar end it expands laterally to form wing-like fringes or membranes—the **alar ligaments** (plicæ alares)—which are often distinguished from each other as the inner (plica aliformis medialis) and the outer (plica aliformis lateralis). These folds are more or less loaded with fat.

Apart from these special foldings, the synovial membrane lines the deep surface of the common extensor tendon, and extends upwards for a variable distance above the patella. This extension of the joint cavity almost always communicates with a large bursa situated still higher on the front of the femur. Tracing the synovial membrane downwards, it will be found to cover both surfaces of the semilunar fibro-cartilages. The peripheral or convex margins of these cartilages are only covered by this membrane where they are unattached to the capsule. A prolongation invests the intracapsular portion of the tendon of the popliteus muscle, and separates this tendon from the back part of the tibial head, besides intervening between the external semilune and the head of the tibia.

From the back part of the joint cavity the synovial membrane extends forwards,

provides a partial covering for the crucial ligaments between which a bursa may ound.

This somewhat complicated arrangement of the synovial membrane may be lily comprehended if it be borne in mind that it really represents the fusion of e separate synovial cavities, which in some animals are permanently distinct. se are indicated in the two femoro-tibial and the single femoro-patellar parts of articulation.

The joint cavity may communicate with **bursæ** situated in relation to the inner d of the gastrocnemius muscle and the tendon of the semi-membranosus muscle, ides the large supra-patellar bursa already described. Lastly, there may be ercommunication between this joint cavity and that of the superior tibio-fibular iculation.

Movements at the Knee-Joint.—In studying the movements which may occur at the nan knee-joint, it is necessary to bear in mind that the lower limb of man is primarily required purposes of support and locomotion. The principal requirement of the former function is ility accompanied by rigidity, whereas in the latter function the special desideratum is regu-d and controlled mobility. Thus, in the same joint, two entirely opposite conditions have be provided. The stable conditions of support are chiefly concerned in the maintenance he erect attitude, and the mechanism associated therewith does not call for the exertion of a e degree of sustained muscular effort.

In standing erect the attitude of the limb is that of extension, which mainly concerns the oro-tibial parts of the joint. In this position the force of gravity acts along a vertical line ich falls in front of the transverse axis of the joint, and therefore any tendency to flexion, *i.e.* ding backwards, is mechanically counteracted by the application of a force which tends to duce bending forwards (so-called over-extension). This, however, is absolutely prohibited in mal states of the joint, by the tension of the posterior and lateral ligaments aided by the erior crucial ligament. The value of this fact may be seen by observing the effect produced by ing the joint a sudden push from behind, which causes an immediate reversal of the positions of transverse and vertical axes, whereby the body weight at once produces flexion of the joint.

The semilunar cartilages and the infra-patellar pad of fat also assist in maintaining extension, reason of their close adaptation to, and packing round the condyles as these rest upon the tibia. e anterior margin of the intercondyloid fossa is also brought into contact with the front of anterior crucial ligament.

In the position of extension the patella is retained at a high level in relation to the trochlear sur-e of the femur, so that the lower articular facets of the patella are in contact with the trochlea.

During locomotion the movements of the knee-joint are somewhat intricate, for both the oro-tibial and the femoro-patellar sections of the joint are brought into action. The principal vement which results is flexion, with which there is associated, both at its beginning and ding, a certain amount of screw movement or rotation. Flexion and rotation occur at the oro-tibial sections of the joint, whereas the movement at the femoro-patellar portion produces gulating and controlling influence upon flexion.

Taking these factors separately, we observe that each condyle adapts itself to a shallow cup med by the head of the tibia and the corresponding semilunar cartilage, and as the two ndyles move simultaneously and parallel to each other, there is more than the characteristic nge-joint action, for each condyle glides and rolls in its cup "like a wheel restrained by a ag" (Goodsir) when the movement of bending occurs. Thus the different parts of the condyles successively brought into relation with the transverse axis of the joint while it passes from tension to flexion and *vice versa*. From the fact that the internal condyle is longer than the ternal, it is believed that extension is completed by a movement of rotation whereby the joint omes locked, and the anterior crucial, the posterior and the lateral ligaments, become tense. A ilar rotation initiates the movement of flexion, and unlocks the joint by relaxing the liga-nts just mentioned.

Since the tibia and foot are fixed in the act of walking, it is the femur which rotates upon tibia in passing from extension to flexion and *vice versa*; and as relaxation of the ilio-femoral ment is essential for this rotation, some observers are of opinion that the body weight falls ind the transverse axis of the knee-joint, as in the case of the hip-joint, and consequently that ension of the knee-joint is maintained by the ilio-femoral ligament, as it is not possible to d the knee without first having bent the hip-joint.

During flexion and extension the semilunar cartilages glide along with the condyles, so as to ntain their close adaptation and preserve their value as packing agents. When the movement exion is completed, the condyles are retained upon the tibia, and prevented from slipping off he tension of the posterior crucial ligament. In this position a small degree of rotation of tibia, both inwards and outwards, is also permissible.

The regulating and controlling influence of the femoro-patellar portion of the articulation is ght into play during the movements of flexion and extension. In the latter position the rior pair of patellar facets is in apposition with the upper part of the femoral trochlea. As on advances, the middle pair of facets adapt themselves to a deeper area of the trochlea, into h the patellar keel fits. When flexion is still further advanced, the upper pair of patellar s will be found fitting into that *part of the trochlea* adjoining the intercondyloid notch,

and finally, when flexion is complete, the patella lies opposite the intercondyloid notch, while the forward thrust of the longer internal condyle brings its semilunar facet (Goodsir) into apposition with the somewhat vertical facet at the inner border of the patella. The wedge-like influence of the patella is most marked, for it is only in the position of extension that it can be moved from side to side. The movements of the patella may be described as gliding and co-aptation, as it slips or rocks from one pair of facets to another in its progress along the trough of the femoral trochlea.

THE TIBIO-FIBULAR JOINTS.

The upper and lower ends of the fibula articulate with the tibia. Primarily, the fibula is required to form a strong lateral support for the ankle-joint, and therefore its articulations are so arranged as to provide a certain amount of elasticity without any sacrifice of the rigidity necessary for security. Hence the amount of movement is very small, but what there is enables these joints to be classified as arthrodial diarthroses.

The **superior tibio-fibular joint** (articulatio tibio-fibularis) is formed, on the one hand, by a flat oval or circular facet which is situated upon the postero-external aspect of the outer tuberosity of the head of the tibia, and is directed downwards and backwards; on the other, by a similar facet on the upper surface of the head of the fibula in front of the styloid process.

A fibrous **capsule** (capsula articularis, Fig. 234) invests the joint, and it may be regarded as holding the articular surfaces in apposition, although certain special bands receive separate designations. Occasionally there is an opening in the capsule by which communication is established between the joint cavity and the knee-joint through the intermediation of the synovial prolongation, subjacent to the tendon of the popliteus muscle.

The **anterior superior tibio-fibular ligament** (lig. capituli fibulæ anterius, Fig. 233) is a strong flat band whose fibres extend from the anterior aspect of the fibular head, upwards and inwards, to the adjoining part of the tuberosity of the tibia.

The **posterior superior tibio-fibular ligament** (lig. capituli fibulæ anterius Fig. 234) is a similar, but weaker band, passing upwards and inwards from the posterior aspect of the fibular head to the posterior aspect of the outer tuberosity of the tibia, where they are attached immediately below the opening in the capsule of the knee-joint, from which the tendon of the popliteus muscle escapes.

Equally strong but much shorter bands are found on the superior and inferior aspects of the joint. The former is intimately associated with the tendon of the biceps flexor cruris muscle which strengthens the upper aspect of the joint, and here also is found the occasional opening by which it communicates with the knee-joint.

The **synovial membrane** is in certain cases continuous with that of the knee-joint in the manner already described.

The **interosseous membrane** (membrana interossea cruris, Figs. 234 and 237) plays the part of an accessory ligament both for the upper and the lower tibio-fibular joint. It is attached to the interosseous borders on the shafts of the tibia and fibula, and binds them together. The general direction of its fibres is from the tibia downwards and outwards to the fibula, but many fibres pass in the opposite direction. The membrane may extend upwards until it comes into contact with the ligaments of the superior tibio-fibular joint, but there is always a vertical oval aperture in its upper part for the forward passage of the anterior tibial vessels. This aperture (Fig. 234), which is about one inch long, adjoins the shaft of the fibula at a point rather less than one inch below its head. Towards the lower end of the leg the distance between the tibia and the fibula rapidly diminishes, and consequently the width of the interosseous membrane is correspondingly reduced so that it is tense throughout its entire length. In the lower part of the membrane there is a small opening for the passage of the anterior perforating vessels. There is no sharply-marked demarcation between the interosseous membrane and the interosseous ligament which connects the lower ends of the tibia and fibula—the one, indeed, may be said to run into the other.

The **inferior tibio-fibular joint** (syndesmosis tibio-fibulare) is not on all occasions provided with articular cartilage, so that it may either be a separate articu

lation, or it may merely present a series of ligaments which are accessory to the ankle-joint, because it is clear that, under any circumstances, the object aimed at in this articulation is to obtain additional security for the ankle-joint. The articular surface on the tibia, when present, constitutes a narrow articular strip on the outer side of the lower end of the bone, and the joint-cavity is practically an upward extension of the ankle-joint. The corresponding fibular facet is continuous with the extensive articular area, by means of which the fibula articulates with the astragalus. By far the greater part of the opposing surfaces of tibia and fibula are, however, non-articular and rough.

The supporting **ligaments** are of great strength.

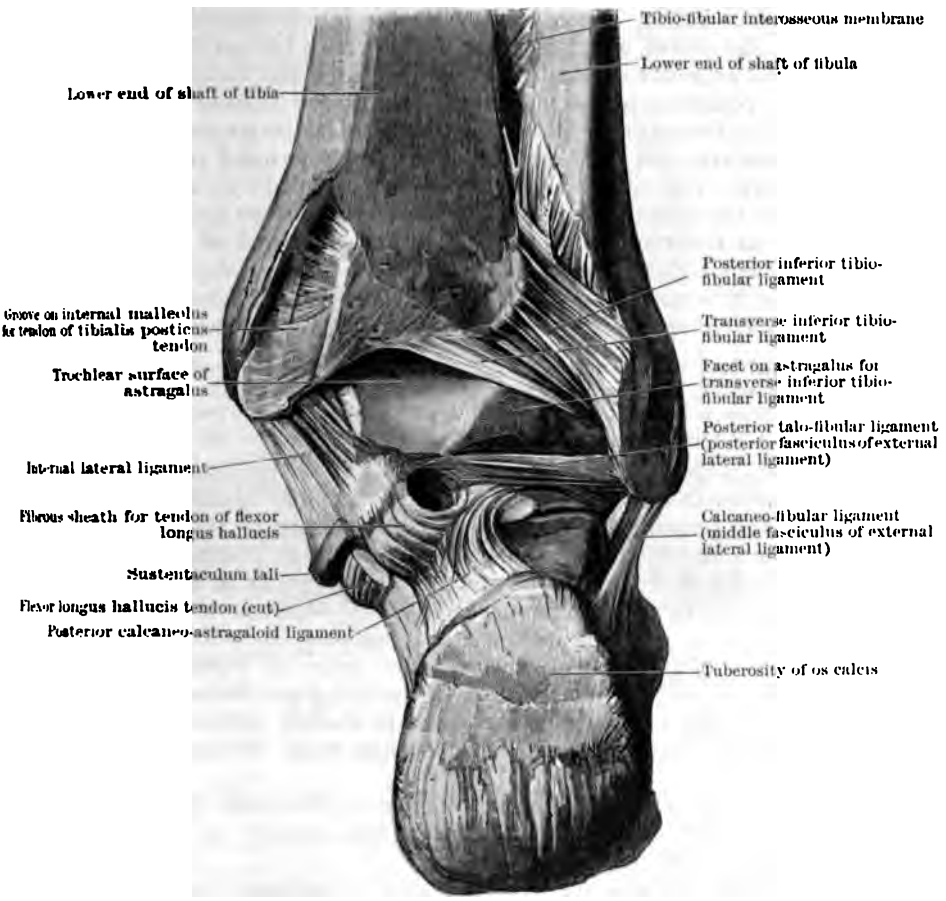

Tibio-fibular interosseous membrane
Lower end of shaft of fibula
Lower end of shaft of tibia
Posterior inferior tibio-fibular ligament
Groove on internal malleolus for tendon of tibialis posticus tendon
Transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament
Trochlear surface of astragalus
Facet on astragalus for transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament
Posterior talo-fibular ligament (posterior fasciculus of external lateral ligament)
Internal lateral ligament
Fibrous sheath for tendon of flexor longus hallucis
Calcaneo-fibular ligament (middle fasciculus of external lateral ligament)
Sustentaculum tali
Flexor longus hallucis tendon (cut)
Posterior calcaneo-astragaloid ligament
Tuberosity of os calcis

FIG. 237.—ANKLE-JOINT DISSECTED FROM BEHIND WITH PART OF THE CAPSULAR LIGAMENT REMOVED.

The **anterior inferior tibio-fibular ligament** (lig. malleoli lateralis anterius, Fig. 240) consists of strong fibres which pass obliquely downwards and outwards from the front of the lower end of the tibia to the front of the external malleolus.

The **posterior inferior tibio-fibular ligament** (lig. malleoli lateralis posterius, Figs. 237 and 238) is equally strong, and passes in a similar direction between corresponding posterior surfaces.

A **transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament** (Figs. 237 and 238) stretches, in the direction indicated by its name, between the posterior inferior border of the tibia and the upper end of the pit on the inner and posterior aspect of the external malleolus.

An **interosseous ligament**, powerful and somewhat extensive, connects the contiguous rough non-articular surfaces. Superiorly, as already mentioned, it is continuous with the interosseous membrane. Anteriorly and posteriorly it comes into contact with the more superficial ligaments. Inferiorly it descends until it comes into intimate association *with the joint-cavity.*

A **synovial membrane** is found lining the small joint-cavity, but it is always a direct prolongation from that which lines the ankle-joint.

JOINTS OF THE FOOT.

THE ANKLE-JOINT.

The ankle-joint (articulatio talo-cruralis) is a ginglymus variety of a diarthrosis. The bones which enter into its formation are the lower ends of the tibia and fibula with the articular areas on the upper, lateral, and mesial surfaces of the astragalus. The tibia and fibula, aided by the transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament, form a three-sided socket within which the astragalus is accommodated. The roof of the highest part of the socket, which is wider in front than behind, is formed chiefly by the quadrilateral articular surface which characterises the lower end of the tibia, but towards its postero-external margin the transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament assists in its formation. Here also the tibial articular surface is continuous with the narrow articular facet already described as forming part of the inferior tibio-fibular joint. The inner wall of the socket is formed by the articular facet on the outer side of the internal malleolus, and there is no interruption of the articular cartilage between the roof and inner wall. The outer wall of the socket is quite separate from the foregoing parts, and consists of a large triangular facet upon the inner side of the external malleolus. This facet is situated immediately in front of the deep pit which characterises the posterior part of this surface of the fibula.

A small lunated facet is frequently found upon the anterior surface of the lower end of the tibia, particularly among those races characterised by the adoption of the "squatting" posture. When this facet exists it is continuous with the anterior margin of the roof of the socket, and articulates with a similar facet upon the upper surface of the neck of the astragalus in the extreme flexion of the ankle-joint which "squatting" entails.

The articular surface upon the body of the astragalus adapts itself to the tibio-fibular socket, and presents articular facets corresponding to the roof and sides of the socket. Thus the superior surface of the astragalus possesses a quadrilateral articular area, wider in front than behind, distinctly convex in the antero-posterior direction, and slightly concave transversely. In addition, towards its postero-external margin, there is also a narrow antero-posterior facet corresponding to the transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament. The articular cartilage of this upper surface is continued without interruption to the tibial and fibular sides of the bone, although the margins of the superior area are sharply defined from the lateral facets, the outer of which is triangular in outline, while the inner is pyriform, but in each case the surface is vertical.

Ligaments.—The ligaments form a complete investment for the joint, *i.e.* a **capsule** in which the individual parts vary considerably in strength, and are described under separate names.

The **anterior ligament** is an extremely thin membrane, containing very few longitudinal fibres. It extends from the lower border of the tibia to the upper border of the head of the astragalus, passing in front of a pad of fat which fills up the hollow above the neck of that bone.

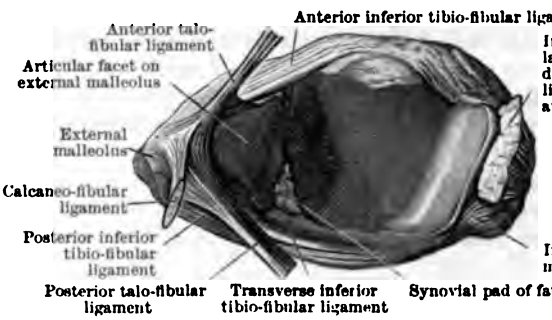


FIG. 238.—ARTICULAR SURFACES OF TIBIA AND FIBULA WHICH ARE OPPOSED TO THE ASTRAGALUS.

The **posterior ligament** is attached to contiguous non-articular borders of the tibia and astragalus. Many of its fibres radiate inwards from the external malleolus. This aspect of the joint is strengthened by the strong, well-defined, transverse ligament already described in connexion with the inferior tibio-fibular joint.

The **external lateral ligament** (Figs. 237, 238, and 240) is very powerful, and is divisible into three fasciculi, which are distinguished from each other by names descriptive of their chief points of attachment.

The *anterior fasciculus* (lig. talo-fibulare anterius) is the shortest. It extends from the anterior border of the external malleolus to the astragalus immediately in front of its external articular surface.

The *middle fasciculus* (lig. calcaneo-fibulare) is a strong and rounded cord. It is attached by one end to the front of the tip of the external malleolus, and by the other to the outer side of the os calcis, immediately above the groove for the peroneal tendons.

The *posterior fasciculus* (lig. talo-fibulare posterius) is the strongest. It runs transversely between the lower part of the fibular or digital fossa on the inner aspect of the malleolus and the posterior surface of the astragalus, where it is attached

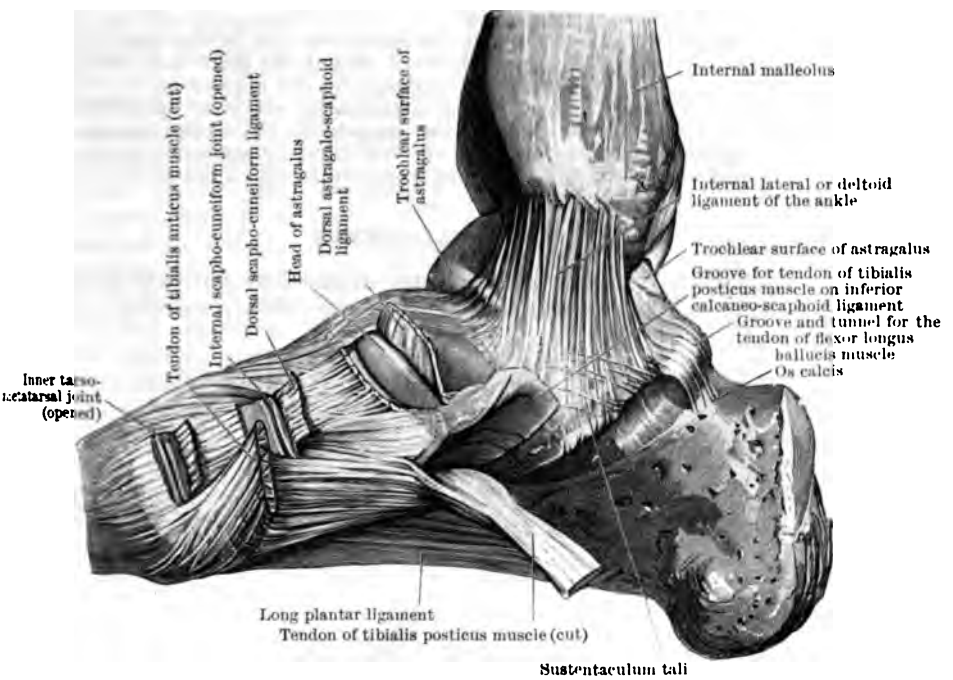

Tendon of tibialis anticus muscle (cut)
Internal scapho-cuneiform joint (opened)
Dorsal scapho-cuneiform ligament
Head of astragalus
Dorsal astragalo-scaphoid ligament
Trochlear surface of astragalus
Internal malleolus
Internal lateral or deltoid ligament of the ankle
Trochlear surface of astragalus
Groove for tendon of tibialis posticus muscle on inferior calcaneo-scaphoid ligament
Groove and tunnel for the tendon of flexor longus hallucis muscle
Os calcis
Inner tarso-metatarsal joint (opened)
Long plantar ligament
Tendon of tibialis posticus muscle (cut)
Sustentaculum tali

FIG. 239.—ANKLE AND TARSAL-JOINTS FROM THE TIBIAL ASPECT.

to the external tubercle and the adjoining rough surface. Sometimes this tubercle is detached from the astragalus, and represents a separate bone—the *os trigonum*.

The **internal lateral ligament** (lig. deltoideum, Figs. 238 and 239) has the general shape of a delta, and is even stronger than the external ligament. It is attached above to a marked impression on the lower part of the internal malleolus, and below, in a continuous layer, to the scaphoid, astragalus, and os calcis. In it we may recognise the following special bands—(*a*) the *lig. talo-tibiale anterius*, which extends from the front of the inner malleolus to the neck of the astragalus; (*b*) the *lig. talo-tibiale posterius*, stretching between the back of the inner malleolus and the postero-internal rough surface of the astragalus; (*c*) the *lig. tibio-naviculare*, which extends from the tip of the inner malleolus to the inner side of the scaphoid; (*d*) the *lig. calcaneo-tibiale*, which extends between the tip of the inner malleolus and the inner side of the sustentaculum tali; (*e*) *lig. talo-tibiale profundum*, which consists of deeper fibres extending from the tip of the internal malleolus to the inner side of the astragalus.

Synovial membrane lines the capsular ligament, and, as already described, the joint-cavity communicates directly with the inferior tibio-fibular joint. Both at the front and back of the ankle-joint, as well as superiorly in the angle formed by the three bones, the synovial *membrane covers pads* of fat.

Movements at the Ankle-Joint.—In the erect attitude the foot is placed at right angles to the leg; in other words, the normal position of the ankle-joint is **flexion**. Those movements which tend to diminish the angle so formed by the dorsum of the foot and the front of the leg are called **dorsiflexion**, while those which tend to increase the angle, *i.e.* to straighten the foot upon the leg, are called **extension**. As a matter of fact neither dorsiflexion nor extension is ever completely carried out, and the range of movement of which the foot is capable is limited to about 90°. These movements occur about an obliquely transverse axis, as is indicated by the natural outward pointing of the toes. The weight of the body falls slightly anterior to the ankle-joint, so that a certain amount of muscular action is necessitated in order to maintain the foot at right angles to the leg; but additional stability is obtained from the obliquity above mentioned.

When the foot is raised from the ground, muscular action tends naturally to produce a certain amount of extension. When the foot is extended, as in standing on the toes, the hinder narrow part of the astragalus moves forwards into the wider part of the interval between the tibia and fibula, whereas in dorsiflexion, as in raising the fore part of the foot from the ground, the widest part of the astragalus is forced back between the tibia and fibula; but notwithstanding the difference between these two movements, the fibula remains in close contact with the astragalus by reason of the action of the transverse inferior tibio-fibular ligament and the posterior talo-fibular ligament, so that lateral movement is prevented.

It is doubtful whether lateral movement at the ankle-joint can be obtained by any natural movement of the foot, although it is generally believed that in the position of partial extension a small amount of lateral movement may be produced by the application of external force. "This apparent play" of the ankle-joint during extension "is really due to oscillation of the small bones of the foot on each other, largely of the scaphoid on the astragalus, but also of the cuboid on the calcaneum. Excessive mobility of these latter is restrained by an important function of the posterior tubercle of the cuboid which locks into a notch in the os calcis" (Blake).

INTERTARSAL JOINTS.

These joints (articulationes intertarseæ) are all diarthroses in which the gliding movement is characteristic, as in the carpus. With the view of obtaining a proper con-

FIG. 240.—LIGAMENTS ON THE OUTER ASPECT OF THE ANKLE-JOINT AND ON THE DORSUM OF THE TARSU

ception of the many beautiful mechanical principles involved in the construction of th foot, it is necessary to study these articulations with considerable attention to detai

Articulatio Talo-calcanea.—The astragalus and os calcis articulate with eac other in the articulatio talo-calcanea or calcaneo-astragaloid joint.

This joint is situated between the inferior facet on the body of the astragalu

a corresponding facet on the upper aspect of the hinder part of the os calcis. each bone the articulation is limited in front by a wide, deep groove which s obliquely across each bone from within outwards and forwards.

The supporting and investing ligaments form a **capsule**, consisting for the most t of short fibres, but the joint derives additional strength from the external and ernal lateral ligaments of the ankle-joint. The capsule is subdivided into the owing astragalo-calcaneal or talo-calcaneal bands:—

The **anterior talo-calcaneal ligament** consists of a band of short fibres ced immediately in relation to the anterior end of the deep groove which inds the articular facets. ey are attached to the tero-external aspect of e neck of the astragalus, om which they extend wnwards to the adjacent perior surface of the os lcis.

The **external talo-calcaneal ligament** (Fig. 240) in continuity with the nder border of the preding ligament, and it is aced parallel to, but on deeper plane than, the iddle fasciculus of the cternal lateral ligament the ankle-joint. It consts of short fibres passing etween the adjacent rough uter margins of the two ones.

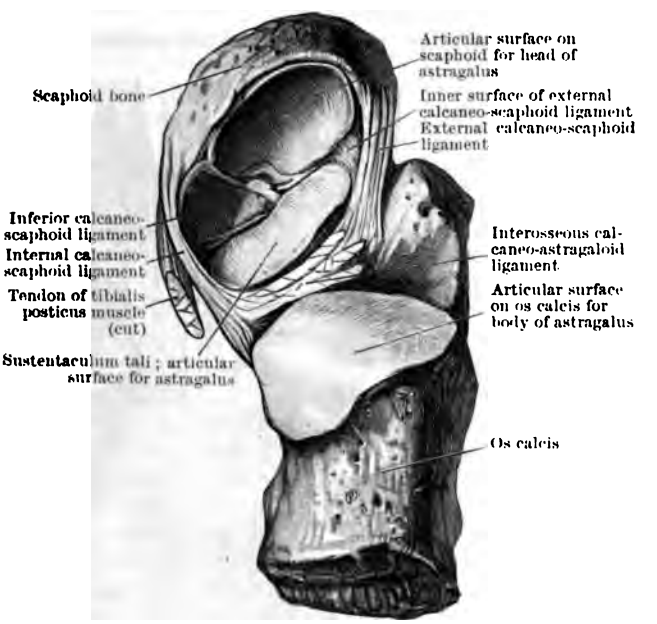

Articular surface on scaphoid for head of astragalus
Scaphoid bone
Inner surface of external calcaneo-scaphoid ligament
External calcaneo-scaphoid ligament
Inferior calcaneo-scaphoid ligament
Internal calcaneo-scaphoid ligament
Tendon of tibialis posticus muscle (cut)
Interosseous calcaneo-astragaloid ligament
Articular surface on os calcis for body of astragalus
Sustentaculum tali; articular surface for astragalus
Os calcis

FIG. 241.—THE COMPOSITE ARTICULAR SOCKET FOR THE HEAD OF THE ASTRAGALUS.

The **posterior talo-calcaneal ligament** (Fig. 240) loses the joint-cavity on its osterior aspect. It consists of fibres which radiate from the posterior aspect of he external tubercle of the astragalus to the upper surface of the os calcis, immediately behind the articular facet.

The **internal talo-calcaneal ligament** lies obliquely on the inner side of the joint, nd consists of fibres which extend from the inner posterior tubercle of the stragalus to the hinder roughened border of the sustentaculum tali. Some of its bres become continuous with the internal calcaneo-scaphoid ligament.

The **interosseous talo-calcaneal ligament** (Fig. 240) closes the antero-internal spect of the joint. It is the strongest of the series of ligaments entering into the apsule. Compared with it the other bands are, comparatively speaking, insignicant. Its attachments are to the bottom of each groove, so that it occupies the rsal canal formed by these opposing grooves.

A **synovial membrane** lines the capsule, and it is distinct from other tarsal novial membranes.

Articulatio Talo-calcaneo-navicularis.—This is one of the most important of e joints of the foot, not only because the astragalus is here situated in relation the summit of the antero-posterior arch of the foot, but because the head of e astragalus is received into a composite socket made up of sustentaculum tali, aphoid, and the inferior or internal calcaneo-scaphoid ligament.

The articular surface on the head of the astragalus presents anteriorly a nvex rounded facet for articulation with the scaphoid, inferiorly a convex facet nich rests upon the sustentaculum tali, and intermediate between these two there a triangular facet which articulates with the inferior calcaneo-scaphoid ligament. l these facets are in continuity with each other, and are in front of the tarsal ove on the under surface of the astragalus. Occasionally a fourth narrow facet is

found along the outer and hinder part of the articular surface of the head of the astragalus, whereby it articulates with superior or external calcaneo-scaphoid ligament.

The scaphoid or navicular bone presents a shallow, cup-shaped, articular cavity towards the head of the astragalus.

The articular surface of the sustentaculum tali is concave, and is usually marked off into two facets.

Two ligaments play an important part in binding together the os calcis and the scaphoid, although these bones do not directly articulate; and further, these ligaments provide additional articular surfaces for the head of the astragalus. These are the two following:--

(*a*) The **inferior** or **internal calcaneo-scaphoid ligament** (Figs. 239 and 242) is as

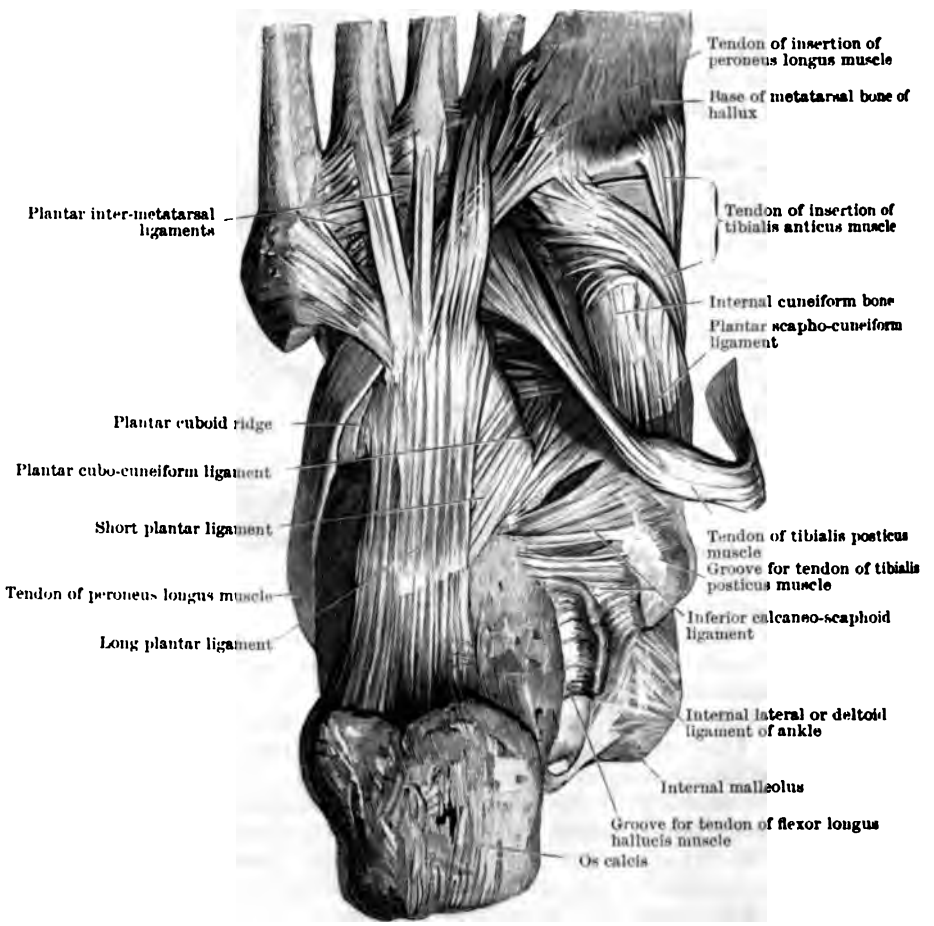

Tendon of insertion of peroneus longus muscle
Base of metatarsal bone of hallux
Plantar inter-metatarsal ligaments
Tendon of insertion of tibialis anticus muscle
Internal cuneiform bone
Plantar scapho-cuneiform ligament
Plantar cuboid ridge
Plantar cubo-cuneiform ligament
Short plantar ligament
Tendon of tibialis posticus muscle
Groove for tendon of tibialis posticus muscle
Tendon of peroneus longus muscle
Inferior calcaneo-scaphoid ligament
Long plantar ligament
Internal lateral or deltoid ligament of ankle
Internal malleolus
Groove for tendon of flexor longus hallucis muscle
Os calcis

FIG. 242.—PLANTAR ASPECT OF TARSAL AND TARSO-METATARSAL JOINTS.

extremely powerful fibro-cartilaginous tie-band. It extends between the anterior margin of the sustentaculum tali and the inferior surface of the scaphoid bone. Certain of its upper fibres radiate upwards on the inner surface of the scaphoid, and become continuous with the tibio-navicular portion of the deltoid ligament of the ankle-joint. The plantar aspect of this ligament is in contact with the tendon of the tibialis posticus muscle, through which the head of the talus receives great support. Superiorly it contributes an articular surface which forms a triangular portion of the floor of the composite socket in which the head of the talus is received.

(*b*) The **superior** or **external calcaneo-scaphoid ligament** (Fig. 241) lies deeply in the front part of the sinus tarsi, *i.e.* the interval between the astragalus and os calcis. Its fibres are short, and extend from the dorsal surface of the front part of the os calcis, immediately to the outer side of the sustentacular facet, forwards to the outer side of the scaphoid bone. Frequently the ligament presents a surface

uich articulates with the head of the astragalus, and in these cases it forms a part the composite socket.

The cavity of the talo-calcaneo-navicular joint is closed posteriorly by the terosseous talo-calcaneal ligament already described. On its inner and outer ferior aspects it is closed by the calcaneo-scaphoid ligaments.

The superior and lateral aspects are covered by an **astragalo-scaphoid membrane ligament.** This ligament is thin, and extends from the upper non-articular area i the head of the astragalus to the dorsal surface of the scaphoid bone. It may ; subdivided into *dorsal* (superior), *lateral* (external), and *medial* (internal), **tragalo-scaphoid ligaments** (Fig. 239), which, with the calcaneo-scaphoid and terosseous talo-calcaneal ligaments, complete the capsular investment of the joint.

A distinct **synovial membrane** lines all parts of the capsule of the joint.

Articulatio Calcaneo-cuboidea.—This is situated between the anterior concavo-onvex surface of the os calcis and the posterior similar surface of the cuboid.

The **ligaments** which invest this joint constitute a **calcaneo-cuboid capsule,** whose arts are arranged in relation to the four non-articular sides of the cuboid bone, nd are especially strong upon the plantar aspect, in relation to their great import-nce in resisting strains.

The **internal calcaneo-cuboid ligament** occupies part of the interval between he astragalus and os calcis—sinus tarsi. It is sometimes called the interosseous alcaneo-cuboid ligament, and, in conjunction with the superior or external alcaneo-scaphoid ligament, it forms a V-shaped structure, of which the single end s attached to the os calcis, and the double ends separate to reach contiguous reas on the scaphoid and cuboid respectively.

The **dorsal calcaneo-cuboid ligament** (Fig. 240) is a broad portion of the capsule xtending between the dorsal surfaces of the two bones.

The **external calcaneo-cuboid ligament** is another but narrower part of the apsule which extends from the outer aspect of the os calcis to the outer side of he cuboid, immediately behind the facet on the tuberosity.

The **inferior calcaneo-cuboid ligaments** are two in number—a superficial and a eep. The superficial series of fibres, the **long plantar ligament** (Fig. 242), is ttached to the under surface of the os calcis in front of its tuberosities. It forms long powerful structure which runs forwards to be fixed to the under surface of the uboid ridge, but many of its fibres pass superficial to the tendon of the peroneus ongus, and extend to the bases of the third, fourth, and fifth metatarsal bones.

The deep series of fibres, the **short plantar ligament** (Fig. 242), is distinctly separated rom the former by a layer of areolar tissue. It forms a broad but short band of great trength, which is attached to the under surface of the front end of the os calcis, nd extends to the under surface of the cuboid just behind the ridge. Both of hese ligaments are of great importance in maintaining the longitudinal arch of the oot, and in this respect are only second to the inferior calcaneo-scaphoid ligaments.

A **synovial membrane** lines the capsule.

Transverse Tarsal Articulation.—This is a term sometimes applied to the stragalo-scaphoid and calcaneo-cuboid joints. These articulations do not com-unicate with each other; and although there is an occasional direct articula-ion between the scaphoid and cuboid, it does not constitute an extension of the ransverse tarsal joint, but is a prolongation from the series of scapho-cuneiform nd cuneo-cuboid articulations.

Nevertheless there is always a set of **ligaments** which bind the scaphoid and uboid bones together, and these may be regarded as accessory to the various ransverse tarsal joints.

The **dorsal scapho-cuboid ligament** (Fig. 240) consists of short oblique fibres which ttach the contiguous dorsal surfaces of the cuboid and scaphoid bones.

The **plantar scapho-cuboid ligament** is transverse in direction, and extends etween adjacent plantar areas of the cuboid and scaphoid bones.

The **interosseous scapho-cuboid ligament** intervenes between contiguous surfaces the same bones. When there is an extension of the scapho-cuneiform joint back-ards between the scaphoid and cuboid, it is situated in front of the last-men-oned ligament, and is called the **articulatio scapho-cuboidea.** Around this joint

the preceding ligaments are grouped. Since, however, the joint is inconstant while the ligaments are always present, it is preferable to consider them as above indicated.

Scapho-cuneiform Articulation (articulatio cuneo-navicularis).—This joint is situated between the scaphoid and the three cuneiform bones. The anterior surface of the scaphoid presents facets for each of the cuneiform bones, but its articular surface is not interrupted. These facets form a somewhat convex anterior surface which fits into the shallow articular concavity presented by the proximal ends of the three cuneiform bones. This joint may be extended by the occasional scapho-cuboid articulation already referred to.

The **capsule** is composed of short, strong bands which are distinctly visible on all sides except towards the cuboid bone, where the joint may communicate with the cuneo-cuboid and scapho-cuboid joints. Anteriorly the joint communicates with the intercuneiform articulations. The dorsal parts of the capsule are short longitudinal bands termed **dorsal scapho-cuneiform ligaments** (Figs. 239 and 240). These extend without interruption to the inner aspect of the joint. Inferiorly there are similar bands, known as **plantar scapho-cuneiform ligaments**, also longitudinal in direction, but intimately associated with offsets from the tendon of the tibialis posticus muscle.

The **synovial membrane** which lines the capsule sends prolongations forwards on each side of the middle cuneiform bone, and in addition it often communicates with the cuneo-cuboid joint cavity, and it always communicates with the scapho-cuboid cavity when that joint exists.

Intercuneiform Articulations.—These are two in number, and exist between adjacent contiguous surfaces of the three cuneiform bones. These surfaces are partly articular and partly non-articular. The small size of the middle cuneiform bone allows the internal cuneiform as well as the external cuneiform to project forwards beyond it on both sides, and therefore the articular surfaces turned towards the middle cuneiform are not entirely occupied by that bone. They form a recess towards the metatarsus, into which the base of the second metatarsal bone is thrust.

Dorsal intercuneiform ligaments constitute fairly strong transverse bands which extend between adjacent dorsal surfaces and invest the joint cavities in this direction.

The plantar or **interosseous intercuneiform ligaments** are two strong bands which pass from the rough non-articular areas on opposite sides of the middle cuneiform to the opposing surfaces of the inner and outer cuneiform bones. These ligaments shut in the joint cavities inferiorly, and also anteriorly in the case of the outer of the two joints.

The **synovial membrane** is an extension of that which lines the scapho-cuneiform joint; but while it is restricted to the outer of the two joints, in the case of the inner one it is prolonged still farther forward to the tarso-metatarsal series of joints.

Cubo-cuneiform Articulation.—This occurs between the rounded or oval facet on the opposing surfaces of the cuboid and external cuneiform.

The **dorsal cubo-cuneiform ligament** is a flat, somewhat transverse band which closes the joint on its superior aspect, and extends between the dorsal surfaces of the two bones.

The **plantar cubo-cuneiform ligament** is difficult to determine. It is situated subjacent to the long plantar ligament, and extends between adjacent rough surfaces of the two bones.

The **interosseous cubo-cuneiform ligament** is the strongest. It closes the joint cavity anteriorly, and is attached to the contiguous non-articular surfaces of the two bones.

The **synovial membrane** is frequently distinct, but at other times the joint cavity communicates with those of the scapho-cuneiform and scapho-cuboid articulations.

Synovial Membranes of the Intertarsal Joints.—Four and sometimes five distinct and separate synovial membranes may thus be enumerated in connexion with the tarsal articulations, viz.: (1) talo-calcaneal; (2) talo-calcaneo-navicular; (3) calcaneo-cuboid; (4) scapho-cuneiform and its extensions; (5) occasionally cubo-cuneiform.

TARSO-METATARSAL JOINTS.

The tarso-metatarsal joints are found between certain articular facets on the boid and three cuneiform bones on the one hand, and others on the bases of the e metatarsal bones. These articulations are associated with three distinct novial cavities—namely, an inner, middle, and outer.

(1) The **inner tarso-metatarsal articulation** occurs between the distal convex niform surface of the internal cuneiform bone and the concavo-reniform surface n the proximal aspect of the base of the first metatarsal bone.

Ligaments which form a **capsule** surround the articulation. In the capsule the **orsal** and **plantar tarso-metatarsal bands** are its strongest parts, but it is not efficient either on the inner or on the outer aspects.

A separate **synovial membrane** lines the capsule.

(2) The **middle tarso-metatarsal articulation** is an elaborate joint. It nvolves the three cuneiform bones and the bases of the second, third, and part of he fourth metatarsal bones.

The articulation presents the outline of an indented parapet both on its tarsal nd its metatarsal aspects. Thus, on its tarsal side, the inner and the outer cunei- orm bones project in front of the middle cuneiform, so that the latter only presents distal surface to the articulation; while the internal cuneiform presents a portion f its external surface, and the external cuneiform presents both its distal and portions of its outer and inner surfaces, since it projects in front of the cuboid one. On its metatarsal side the base of the second metatarsal bone fits into the ndentation between the outer and inner cuneiforms, to which it presents external nd internal articular facets, but its proximal facet rests upon the distal facet of the middle cuneiform. The base of the third metatarsal bone rests its proximal facet upon the outer cuneiform. The fourth metatarsal base presents part of its internal facet to the external side of the outer cuneiform. In this way the indentations alternate on the two sides of the articulation, and an extremely powerful interlock- ing of parts is provided, which places any marked independent movement of these metatarsal bones entirely out of the question.

The **dorsal tarso-metatarsal ligaments** are broad, flat bands which represent the most distinct part of an investing **capsule**. They pass from behind forwards, and while the second metatarsal bone receives three, *i.e.* one from each cuneiform, the third metatarsal only receives one—from the external cuneiform.

The **plantar tarso-metatarsal ligaments** correspond with the foregoing in their general arrangement, but they are weaker. That for the second metatarsal is the strongest. Oblique bands extend from the inner cuneiform bone to the second and third metatarsals.

The **interosseous cuneo-metatarsal ligaments** are three in number. The *inner* connects the outer side of the internal cuneiform with the inner side of the base of the second metatarsal bone. The *middle* connects the inner side of the external cuneiform with the outer side of the base of the second metatarsal. The *outer* connects the adjacent outer sides of the external cuneiform and third metatarsal.

The **synovial membrane**, which lines this articulation, sends a prolongation back- wards between the inner and middle cuneiform bones, where it opens into the scapho-cuneiform joint. It is likewise prolonged forwards upon both sides of each of the bases of the second and third metatarsal bones.

(3) The **external tarso-metatarsal articulation** is found between the proximal surfaces of the bases of the fourth and fifth metatarsal bones and the distal surface of the cuboid.

The investing **capsule** may be resolved into the following ligaments:—

The **dorsal tarso-metatarsal ligaments** resemble those already described. The base of the fourth metatarsal receives one from the external cuneiform and one from the cuboid. The base of the fifth metatarsal receives one from the cuboid.

The **plantar tarso-metatarsal ligaments** are the weakest bands of the series, and consist of scattered fibres passing from the cuboid to the bases of the two metatarsals. Some fibres, which are almost transverse, extend from the

external cuneiform to the fifth metatarsal, and additional fibres reach the meta tarsals in question from the long plantar ligament (calcaneo-cuboid).

Occasionally the tarsal end of the external interosseous (cuneo-metatarsal) liga ment is attached to the inner margin of the cuboid.

The **synovial membrane** is restricted to this articulation, and merely sends a prolongation forwards between the opposing articulate aspects of the fourth and fifth metatarsal bases.

INTERMETATARSAL JOINTS.

The intermetatarsal articulations are found between adjacent lateral aspects o the bases of the four outer metatarsal bones. The articular facets are small, oval or rounded surfaces which occupy only a limited portion of the flattened contiguous surfaces of the bones. Each joint is provided with a **capsule**, which, however, is not a complete investment, because the three joint cavities are in free communication on their proximal aspects with the tarso-metatarsal joint cavities—one with the outer and two with the middle. The definite fibres of each capsule are situated chiefly in the transverse direction.

The **dorsal ligaments** are short bands which extend from one base to the other.

The **plantar** and **interosseous ligaments** are similarly arranged, but the latter are the strongest and most important members of this series.

The **synovial membranes** are extensions from those which line the outer and middle tarso-metatarsal joint cavities.

Frequently a bursa is found between the bases of the first and second metatarsal bones. It produces an appearance of indistinct facetting upon these bones, and it may communicate with the inner tarso-metatarsal (cuneo-metatarsal) joint.

The **transverse metatarsal ligament** lies upon, and is attached to, the non articular plantar aspects of the heads of all the metatarsal bones. It differs from the corresponding ligament in the palm in the fact that it binds all the metatarsal bones together, whereas in the palm the thumb is left free. It is closely associated with the plantar fibrous plates of the metatarso-phalangeal joints to the plantar surfaces of which it contributes prolongations termed ligamenta accessoria plantaria.

METATARSO-PHALANGEAL JOINTS.

Each of these joints is a modified ball-and-socket in which a shallow cup upon the bases of the first phalanges receives the somewhat globular head of a metatarsal bone.

Each joint retains a modified **capsule** which invests the joint. Its only distinct bands are the **ligamenta collateralia**. These are strong cord-like bands which are situated on the inner and outer sides of each joint, where they extend between adjacent rough surfaces.

On the dorsal aspect ligaments distinct from the dorsal expansion of the ex tensor tendons can hardly be said to exist. The plantar aspect of the capsule consists of a thick **fibrous plate**, which in the case of the great toe present developed within it two large sesamoid bones. In the other toes this plate remains fibrous throughout, and is grooved on its plantar aspect for the accommodation of the long flexor tendons. It will thus be seen that the metatarso-phalangeal joints are constructed upon a plan very similar to that of the corresponding joints in the hand.

A **synovial membrane** lines the capsule of each articulation.

INTERPHALANGEAL JOINTS.

Each toe possesses two interphalangeal joints except the great toe, which has only one. Not unfrequently in the little toe the distal joint is obliterated through ankylosis. All the joints of this series are uniaxial or hinge joints. The natural of the articular surfaces closely resembles the corresponding joints in the fingers.

Each joint possesses a **capsule** which is either very thin or limited to synovial membrane on the dorsal aspect. The plantar surface of the capsule is strengthl

ned by a **fibrous plate.** The **lateral ligaments** (ligamenta collateralia) are well-lefined bands similar to those already described in connexion with the metatarso-)halangeal joints.

A **synovial membrane** lines each capsule in the series.

Mechanism of the Foot.—The bones of the foot are arranged in the form of a longitudinal nd a transverse arch. The longitudinal arch is built on a very remarkable plan. Posteriorly he mass of the os calcis constitutes a rigid and stable pier of support, while anteriorly, by increasing he number of component parts, the anterior pier acquires great flexibility and elasticity without acrificing strength or stability. The summit of the arch is formed by the astragalus, which receives the weight of the body from the tibia, and the resilience of the arch is assured by the calcaneo-scaphoid and calcaneo-cuboid ligaments, together with the plantar fascia, which act as powerful braces or tie bands, preventing undue separation of the piers of the arch, and consequent flattening of the foot. The weight of the body is distributed over all the five digits, owing to the arrangement of the bones of the foot in two parallel columns, an **inner** and an **outer.** The former, consisting of the astragalus, scaphoid, and the three cuneiforms, with the three inner metatarsal bones, distributes weight through the talo-scaphoid joint, while the latter (*i.e.* the outer column), comprising the calcaneum, cuboid, and the two outer metatarsal bones, acts in a similar manner through the talo-calcanean joint. The main line of immobility of this arch passes from the heel forwards through the middle toe, but its anterior section, which is slender, is supported on either side by two metatarsal bones, with their proximal tarsal associations, in all of which greater freedom of movement is found. The transverse arch is most marked at the level of tarso-metatarsal articulations. The intersection of these two arches at right angles to each other introduces an architectural feature of great importance in connexion with the support of heavy weights. These longitudinal and transverse arches of the foot are in effect "vaults" intersecting each other at right angles, and in relation to the area which is common to both "vaults" the body weight is superposed exactly as the dome of a cathedral is carried upon two intersecting vaults.

Movements at the Joints of Tarsus, Metatarsus, and Phalanges.—Considered in detail, the amount of movement which takes place between any two of these bones is extremely small, and, so far as the tarsus and metatarsus are concerned, it is mostly of the nature of a gliding motion.

At the metatarso-phalangeal and interphalangeal joints movement is much more free, and is of the nature of **flexion** (bending of the toes towards the sole of the foot, *i.e.* plantar flexion) and **extension.** The latter movement when continued so as to raise the toes from the ground, and bend or approximate them towards the front of the leg, is termed **dorsiflexion.** Coincident with dorsiflexion there is always associated a certain amount of spreading of the toes, which is called **abduction,** and similarly with prolonged flexion there follows a diminution or narrowing of the transverse diameter of the front part of the foot by drawing the toes together—a movement termed **adduction.** In the foot the movements of abduction and adduction take place in regard to a plane which bisects the foot antero-posteriorly through the second toe, for this toe carries the first and second dorsal interosseous muscles.

Notwithstanding the small amount of possible movement in connexion with individual tarsal and metatarsal joints, yet the sum total of these movements is considerable as regards the entire foot. In this way the movements of **inversion** and **eversion** of the foot result. By inversion we mean the raising of the inner border of the foot so that the sole looks inwards, while the toes are depressed towards the ground, and the outer border of the foot remains downwards. This takes place chiefly at the talo-calcanean joint, but the transverse tarsal joints also participate.

Eversion is chiefly the opposite of inversion, and the return of the foot to the normal position of the erect attitude; but under certain conditions it may be carried further, so that the outer border of the foot is raised from the ground, while the inner border is depressed. In both of these movements there is **rotation** between the astragalus and os calcis about an oblique axis which passes from the inner side of the neck of the astragalus to the outer and lower part of the os calcis.

Of course all the movements of the foot are subordinated to its primary functions as an organ of support and progression. For these purposes its longitudinal and transverse arches are of extreme importance. The longitudinal arch resting on the os calcis behind and the heads of the metatarsal bones in front receives the weight of the body, as already explained, on the summit of the astragalus in the line of the third toe. Hence it is that the inner malleolus appears to be unduly prominent on the inner side of the ankle. The transverse arch buttresses the longitudinal one, and therefore, whether the body weight fall to the outer or the inner side of the longitudinal arch, it is supported by a mechanism at once stable, flexible, and elastic, or resilient, and capable of reducing to a minimum all jars that may be received by the fore-part of the foot. As the heel is raised in the act of walking, the weight is gradually transferred from the outer to the inner side of the foot, until the foot finally leaves the ground with a propulsive movement, which results from flexion of the phalanges of the great toe. In this connexion it is worthy of note that the longitudinal line of greatest strength is on the inner side of the longitudinal arch, *i.e.* in relation to the great toe.

THE MUSCULAR SYSTEM.

MYOLOGY.

By A. M. PATERSON.

THE movements of the various parts and organs of the body are brought about by the agency of muscle-cells, which are characterised by a special histological structure and by the special function of contracting in length under the influence of a proper stimulus.

There are three classes of muscle-cells: (1) the striated, and usually voluntary muscle-cells, out of which the skeletal muscular system is constructed; (2) the non-striated, involuntary muscle-cells, occurring in the walls of vessels and hollow viscera, etc.; and (3) the cardial muscle-cells, striated but involuntary, of which the substance of the heart is composed.

The following section deals solely with the skeletal muscles, the structure, arrangement, and mechanical action of which are based upon a common plan.

The cells of which the skeletal muscles are composed are long, narrow, and characterised by a peculiar striation, which is different from the striation of the muscle-cells of the heart; they also differ both in structure and function from the non-striated muscle-cells which occur in viscera and vessels.

A **typical skeletal muscle** consists of a fleshy mass enveloped in a membranous aponeurosis or fascia, and provided at its extremities or borders with membranous or tendinous attachments to bone, cartilage, or fascia.

Each muscle is made up of a number of **fasciculi** or bundles, arranged together in different muscles in different ways, so as to give rise to the particular form of the muscle in question. These fasciculi are connected together by a delicate connective tissue, the **perimysium externum**, continuous externally with the aponeurosis enclosing the muscle.

Each muscular bundle or fasciculus is composed of a number of narrow, elongated **muscle-cells** or fibres, held together by a still more delicate connective tissue, the **perimysium internum**. This tissue is connected on the one hand with the **sarcolemma** or cell-wall of the muscle-cell, and on the other hand with the coarser tissue of the perimysium externum enclosing the muscular bundles.

By means of these connective tissue envelopes the muscle-cells, the essential agents of motor activity, are brought into firm and intimate relation with the osseous or other attachments of the muscle. Through the agency of sarcolemma, perimysium internum, perimysium externum, aponeurosis, and tendon, the muscle-cell when it contracts can produce a precise and definite effect upon the weight to be moved.

Each muscle is supplied by one or more nerves, which, in their course through the muscle, separate into smaller and smaller branches, ultimately, by their terminal filaments (axons), forming special end-organs in relation to each muscle-cell.

While a muscle may thus be looked upon as an organ endowed with particular properties, and executing a definite movement in response to a stimulus by the simultaneous contraction of its constituent cells, the various muscles may further be considered in groups, associated together by mode of development, nerve-supply, and co-ordination of action. For example, we speak of the hamstring muscles of

the thigh, the muscles of the back, and the prævertebral muscles—groups in which separate muscles are associated together by development, nerve-supply, and action. In their development the separate muscles arise from the subdivision of a larger stratum, as in the limbs, or from the fusion of segmental elements (myotomes), as in the case of the axial muscles; the peripheral nerves supplying skeletal muscles are distributed, through the plexuses or directly, so as to associate particular muscles morphologically and physiologically, and to secure a co-ordinated movement by the simultaneous contraction of several muscles together.

FASCIÆ.

Beneath the skin there are two (or in some regions three) layers of tissue which require consideration: the superficial fascia (panniculus adiposus), the deep fascia (fascia lata), and, in animals, the panniculus carnosus (rudimentary in man, and represented chiefly by the *platysma myoides* in the neck).

Superficial Fascia.—The superficial fascia is a continuous sheet of areolar tissue which underlies the skin of the whole body. It is closely adherent to the cutis vera, and is sometimes termed **panniculus adiposus**, from the fact that, except beneath the skin of the eyelids, penis, and scrotum, it is always more or less impregnated with fat. It is traversed by the cutaneous vessels and nerves; and its deep surface, membranous in character, is in loose connexion with the subjacent deep fascia. It is in this layer that dropsical effusions chiefly occur.

Deep Fascia.—Underneath the skin and superficial fascia is a fibrous membrane, bluish white in colour, devoid of fat, and in closest relation to skeleton, ligaments, and muscles. This is the deep fascia. It covers, invests, and in some cases forms the means of attachment of the various muscles. It has a special tendency to become attached to all subcutaneous bony prominences, and to be continuous with the connecting ligaments. It forms septal processes, which separate groups of muscles and individual muscles; enclose glands and viscera; and form sheaths for vessels and nerves. Around joints it gives rise to bands which strengthen the capsule or limit the mobility of the joint, or, as in the case of annular ligaments, bind down the tendons passing over the joint. It not only unsheathes vessels and nerves, but is perforated by those which pass between superficial and deeper parts.

The term **aponeurosis** is used in relation to muscles. It is synonymous with deep fascia, either as an investing fascia, or as a membranous layer which (*e.g.* vertebral aponeurosis) performs at one and the same time the purpose of a deep fascia and the expanded membranous attachment of a muscle.

The **panniculus carnosus** is a thin muscular layer enveloping the trunk of animals with a hairy or furry coat. It is strongly developed in the hedgehog. In man it is represented mainly in the (rudimentary) platysma myoides. It is placed between the superficial and the deep fascia.

Bursæ.—Where a tendon passes over a bony surface, or where the superficial fascia and skin cover a bony prominence, there is generally formed a synovial sac, or bursa, containing fluid, for the purpose of lubricating the surface over which the tendon or fascia glides. Allied to these are the synovial sheaths which envelop tendons beneath the annular ligaments in relation to the several joints.

Description of Muscles.—In studying the muscular system it is necessary to note the following characters in reference to each individual muscle: (1) The *shape* of the muscle—flat, cylindrical, triangular, rhomboidal, etc.—and the character of its extremities—membranous, tendinous, or fleshy. (2) The *attachments* of the muscle. The *origin* is the more fixed or central attachment: the *insertion* is the more movable or peripheral attachment. (3) The *relations* of the surfaces and borders of the muscle to bones, joints, other muscles, and other important structures. (4) Its *vascular* and *nervous supply*: and (5) *its action*. It must be borne in mind that hardly any single muscle acts alone. Each muscle, as a rule, forms one of a group acting more or less in harmony with, and antagonised by, other and opposite groups.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MUSCLES.

The skeletal muscles may be divided into two series: axial and appendicular. The **axial** muscles comprise the muscles of the trunk, head, and face, including the **panniculus carnosus** (platysma myoides). These muscles are more or less segmental in arrangement, grouped around the axial skeleton. The **appendicular muscles**, the muscles of the limbs, are grouped around the appendicular skeleton. They are not segmental in arrangement, they are clearly separate from the axial muscles, and they are arranged in definite strata in relation to the bones of the limbs.

APPENDICULAR MUSCLES.

THE UPPER LIMB.

FASCIÆ AND SUPERFICIAL MUSCLES OF THE BACK.

Fasciæ.

The **superficial fascia** of the back presents no peculiarity. It is usually of considerable thickness, and contains a quantity of fat.

The **deep fascia** closely invests the muscles. It is attached in the middle line of the back to the ligamentum nuchæ, supraspinous ligaments, and vertebral spines; laterally it is attached to the spine of the scapula and the clavicle, and is continued over the deltoid region to the arm. In the neck it is attached above to the superior curved line of the occipital bone, and is continuous laterally with the deep cervical fascia. Below the level of the arm it is continuous round the border of the latissimus dorsi muscle, with the fascia of the axilla and of the abdominal wall. In the back and loin it constitutes the **vertebral aponeurosis** or aponeurosis of the latissimus dorsi. It conceals the erector spinæ muscle, forming the posterior layer of the **lumbar fascia**, and it is attached internally to the vertebral spines, and externally to the angles of the ribs, to the lumbar fascia, and to the iliac crest.

The Superficial Muscles of the Back.

The muscles of the back are arranged in four series according to their attachments: (1) vertebro-scapular and vertebro-humeral; (2) vertebro-costal; (3) vertebro-cranial; and (4) vertebral. The first of this series consists of the posterior muscles connecting the upper limb to the trunk, and comprises the first two layers of the muscles of the back—(1) trapezius and latissimus dorsi, and (2) levator anguli scapulæ and rhomboidei (major and minor). The deeper (axial) muscles of the back are dealt with later.

The **trapezius** (m. trapezius, cucullaris) is a large triangular muscle occupying the upper part of the back. It **arises** from the superior curved line of the occipital bone in its inner third, from the external occipital protuberance (Fig. 312, p. 397), from the ligamentum nuchæ, from the spines of the seventh cervical and all the thoracic vertebræ, and the corresponding supra-spinous ligaments. The origin is by direct fleshy attachment, except in relation to the occipital bone, the lower part of the neck, and the lower thoracic vertebræ, in which places the origins are tendinous. From their origin the muscular fibres converge towards the bones of the shoulder to be **inserted** continuously from before backwards as follows: (1) The occipital and upper cervical fibres—into the posterior surface of the clavicle in its outer third (Figs. 243, p. 319, and 248, p. 324); (2) the lower cervical and upper thoracic fibres—into the inner border of the acromion process, and the upper border of the spine of the scapula; and (3) the lower thoracic fibres, by a triangular flat tendon, beneath which a bursa is placed—into a rough tuberosity at the base of the spine of the scapula (Fig. 299, p. 383). The fibres inserted into the clavicle, acromion, and the upper border of the spine of the scapula, spread over the adjacent subcutaneous surfaces of these bones for a variable distance

he occipital portion of the muscle may be in the form of a separate slip, or may e entirely absent.

The trapezius is superficial in its whole extent. Its upper lateral border forms he posterior limit of the posterior triangle of the neck. The lower lateral border, passing over the upper edge of the latissimus dorsi and the vertebral border of the scapula, forms a boundary of the so-called *triangle of auscultation* completed below by the latissimus dorsi, and externally by the vertebral border of the scapula. This space is partly filled up by the rhomboideus major. The deep surface of the muscle is in contact with the complexus, splenius capitis, omohyoid, supraspinatus, levator anguli scapulæ, rhomboidei, serratus posticus superior, erector spinæ, and latissimus dorsi muscles. The spinal accessory nerve, branches of the cervical plexus (C. 3. 4.), and of the superficial cervical and posterior scapular arteries, are situated beneath the muscle.

The **latissimus dorsi** is a large triangular muscle occupying the lower part of the back. It has a triple origin. The greater part of the muscle **arises**—(1) from

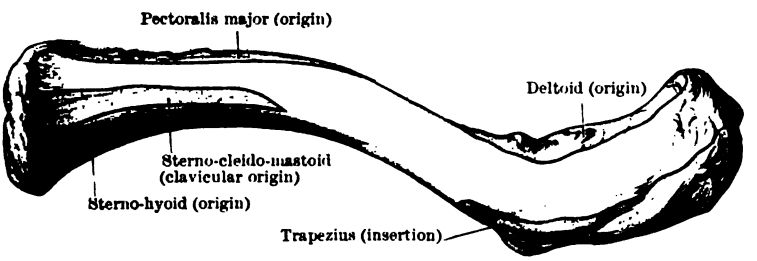


FIG. 243.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE CLAVICLE (Upper Surface).

the *vertebral aponeurosis* (posterior layer of the lumbar fascia or aponeurosis of the latissimus dorsi). This is a thick membrane which conceals the erector spinæ in the lower part of the back. Through it the latissimus dorsi gains attachment to the spines of the lower six thoracic vertebræ, the spines of the lumbar vertebræ, and the tendon of the erector spinæ with which the aponeurosis blends below. It also arises more externally by fleshy fibres from the posterior part of the iliac crest. From this origin the muscle is directed upwards and outwards, its fibres converging to the lower angle of the scapula. In relation to its upper and outer borders additional fibres arise. (2) *Along the outer border* muscular slips arise from the lower three or four ribs, inter-digitating with the origins of the obliquus externus abdominis. (3) As *the upper border* of the muscle passes horizontally over the lower angle of the scapula, an additional fleshy slip usually takes origin from this part of the bone to join the muscle on its deep surface (Fig. 245, p. 321).

Beyond the lower angle of the scapula the latissimus dorsi, greatly narrowed, curves spirally round the teres major muscle, and forms the prominence of the posterior axillary fold. It ends in a ribbon-like tendon, closely adherent at first to the teres major, which is **inserted** into the floor of the bicipital groove of the humerus, extending for about three inches below the lower and outer part of the lesser tuberosity (Fig. 253, p. 329). It is placed behind the coraco-brachialis and biceps, and the axillary vessels and nerves, and in front of the insertion of the teres major, from which it is separated by a bursa.

In the back the latissimus dorsi is superficial, except in its upper part, which is concealed by the trapezius. It lies upon the lumbar fascia, serratus posticus inferior, the ribs, and lower angle of the scapula, and at its borders two triangular spaces are formed; at the upper border is the so-called *triangle of auscultation*; at the outer border is the *triangle of Petit*, a small space bounded by the iliac crest, the latissimus dorsi, and the obliquus externus abdominis. This is the site of an occasional lumbar hernia.

The **levator anguli scapulæ** (levator scapulæ) is a strap-like muscle, **arising** by tendinous slips from the posterior tubercles of the transverse processes of the first three or four cervical vertebræ, between the attachments of the scalenus medius in front and the splenius colli behind. It is directed downwards along the

side of the neck, to be **inserted** into the vertebral border of the scapula in its upper fourth, from the superior angle to the spine (Fig. 245, p. 321). It is concealed in its upper third by the sterno-mastoid and deep muscles of the neck. In its middle third it occupies the floor of the posterior triangle. In its lower third it is again

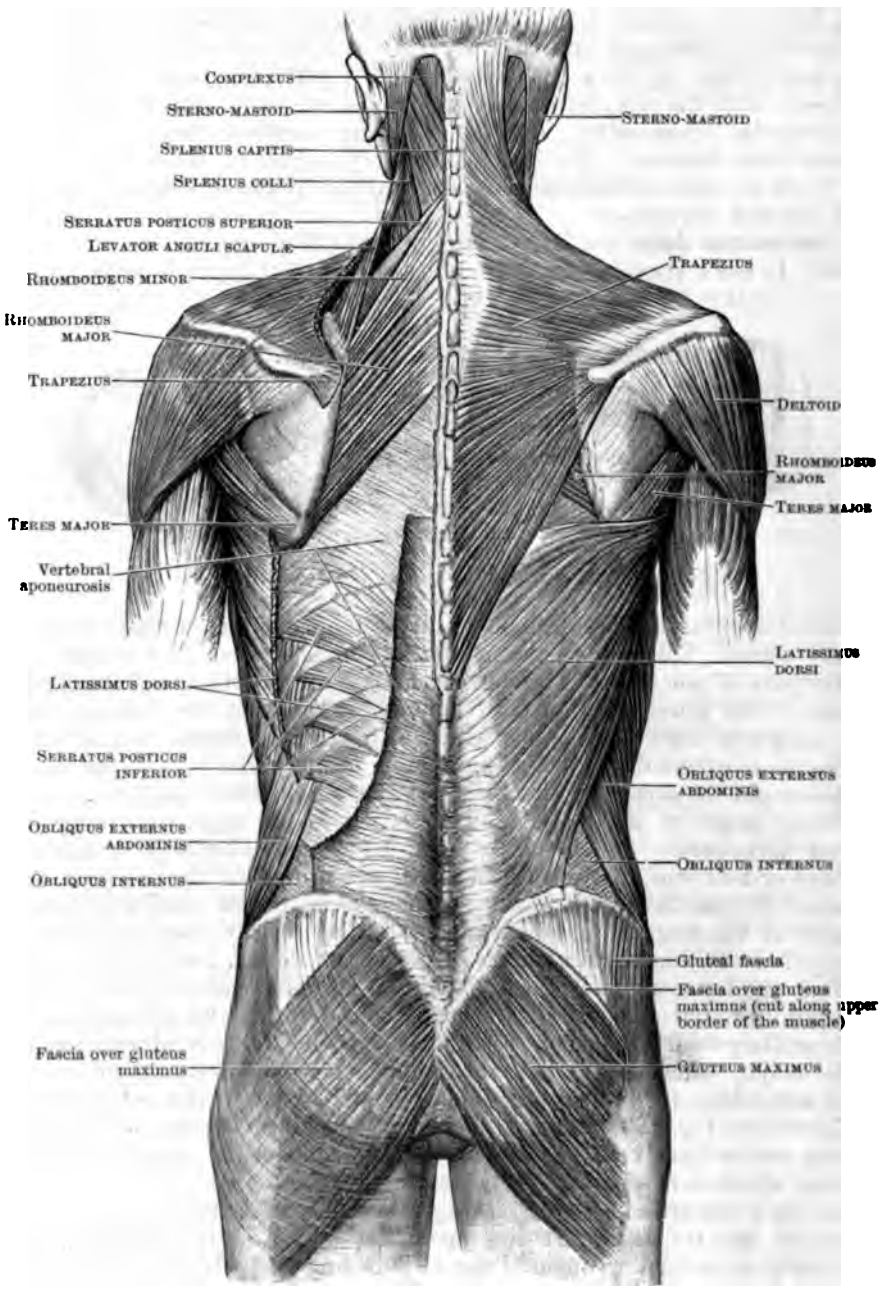


Fig. 244.—Superficial Muscles of the Back.

hidden from view by the trapezius. It conceals the splenius colli and cervical ascendens muscles.

The **rhomboideus minor** may be regarded as a separated slip of the rhomboideus major, with which it is often continuous. It **arises** from the *ligamentum nuchæ* and the spines of the seventh cervical and first thoracic vertebræ. Passing obliquely downwards and outwards, it is **inserted** into the vertebral border of the

apula below the levator anguli scapulæ muscle, and opposite to the base of the pine (Fig. 245, p. 321).

The **rhomboideus major arises** from the spinous processes of the thoracic vertebræ from the second to the fifth inclusive, and from the corresponding supraspinous ligaments. Passing downwards and outwards, it is **inserted** below the rhomboideus minor into the vertebral border of the scapula, between the spine and the lower angle (Fig. 245, p. 321). The muscle is only inserted directly into the scapula by means of its lower fibres. Its upper part is attached to a membranous band, which, connected for the most part by loose areolar tissue to the vertebral border of the scapula, is fixed to the bone at its extremities, above near the base of the spine, and below at the inferior angle.

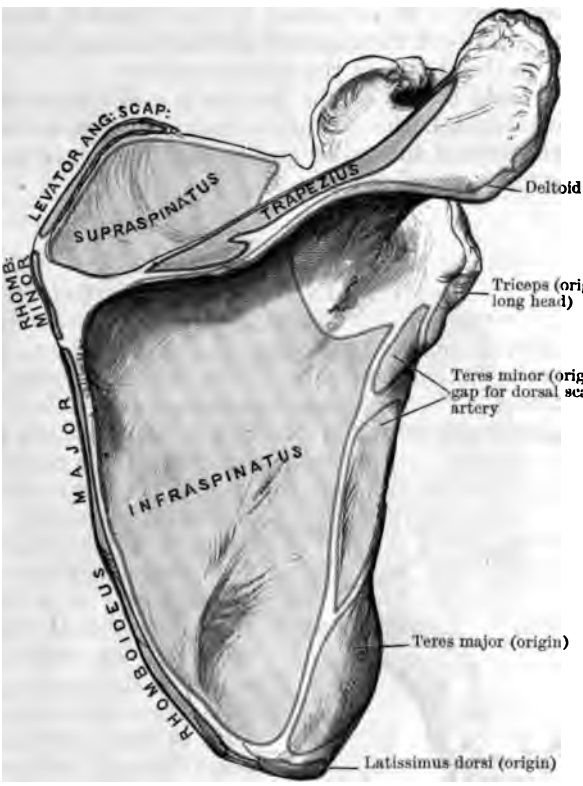


FIG. 245.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE SCAPULA (Posterior Surface).

The rhomboid muscles are concealed for the most part by the trapezius. The lower part of the rhomboideus major is superficial in the *triangle of auscultation*. The muscles cover the serratus posticus superior and vertebral aponeurosis.

THE FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE PECTORAL REGION.

FASCIÆ.

The **superficial fascia** of the chest usually contains a quantity of fat, in which the mamma is embedded. The origin of the platysma myoides muscle lies beneath its upper part.

The **deep fascia** is attached above to the clavicle, and internally to the sternum. Below it is continuous with the fascia of the abdominal wall. It gives origin to the platysma myoides, and invests the pectoralis major. At the outer border of the great pectoral muscle it is thickened, and forms the floor of the axillary space **(axillary fascia)**, continued posteriorly on to the posterior fold of the axilla (teres major and latissimus dorsi), and externally into connexion with the deep fascia of the arm.

Costo-Coracoid Membrane.—Beneath the pectoralis major a deeper stratum of fascia invests the pectoralis minor muscle. At the upper border of this muscle it forms the costo-coracoid membrane, which passes upwards to the lower border of the subclavius muscle, where it splits into two layers, attached in front of and behind that muscle to the borders of the under surface of the clavicle. The membrane traced inwards along the subclavius muscle is attached to the first costal cartilage; passing outwards along the upper border of the pectoralis minor it reaches the coracoid process. The part of *the membrane* extending directly between the first

costal cartilage and the coracoid process is thickened and forms the **co ligament.** The costo-coracoid membrane is otherwise thin and of coı small importance. It is pierced by the cephalic vein, thoracic axis vein, and branches of the external anterior thoracic nerve. By its deep connected to the sheath of the axillary vessels.

At the lower border of the pectoralis minor there is a further exten deep fascia beneath the pectoralis major. It passes downwards to joi forming the floor of the axilla, and is continued externally into the fasc the biceps and coraco-brachialis muscles.

MUSCLES OF THE PECTORAL REGION.

The anterior muscles connecting the upper limb to the axial skeletc the pectoralis major, pectoralis minor, subclavius, serratus magnus, ε cleido-mastoid. The last is described in a later section.

The **pectoralis major** is a large fan-shaped muscle **arising** in three *a clavicular portion* arising from the front of the clavicle in its inner l thirds (Figs. 248, p. 324, and 243, p. 319); (2) *a costo-sternal portion*, part of the muscle, arising from t surface of the pre-sternum and me by tendinous fibres decussating wit the opposite muscle (Fig. 246, p. more deeply from the cartilages of t ribs; (3) *an abdominal portion*, a separate slip, arising from the apo the obliquus externus muscle. The slip, at first separate, soon merges costo-sternal portion, but a distinc usually remains between the two f parts of the muscle. The fibres conve the upper part of the arm, and are blended at a point half an inch fro sertion into the humerus. The muscl into (1) the outer border of th groove of the humerus, extending the great tuberosity, and blending with the insertion of the deltoid, with the insertion of the latissimus 253, p. 329); (2) from the upper bo insertion a membranous band exten to the capsule of the shoulder-joint, at the same time the tendon of the l (3) from the lower border a band of fi downwards to join the fascia of the a

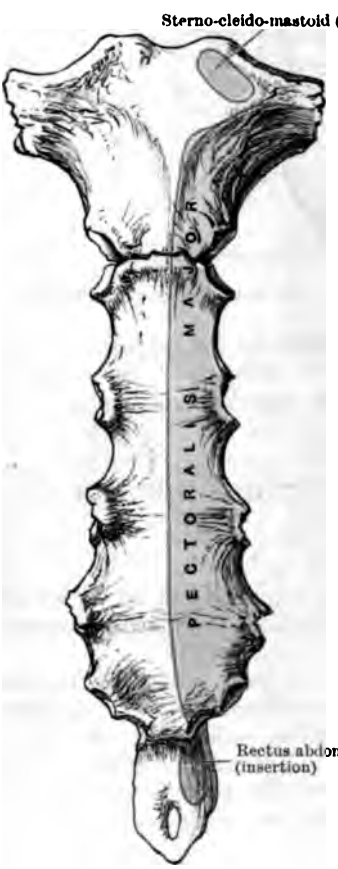


FIG. 246.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE FRONT OF THE STERNUM.

The arrangement of the fibres of at its insertion is peculiar. The muscl on itself, so that the lower (*costo-ste* are directed upwards and outwards upper (*clavicular*) part of the muscle quence the clavicular part is attac humerus lower down than the co portion, and is inserted also into the f arm. The twisting of the fibres is specially found in the lower costo-st of the muscle and the abdominal fibres. These curve upwards behind costo-sternal fibres, and are inserted highest to the shaft of the humerus form the fascial expansion which extends upwards over the biceps ten capsule of the shoulder-joint. In this way a bilaminar tendon is produ

ng its lower border; and consisting of a superficial lamina formed by the upper sto-sternal fibres, blending for the most part with the tendon of the clavicular rtion; and a deep lamina, composed of the twisted lower costo-sternal and dominal fibres. The disposition of the muscular fibres at their insertions is the

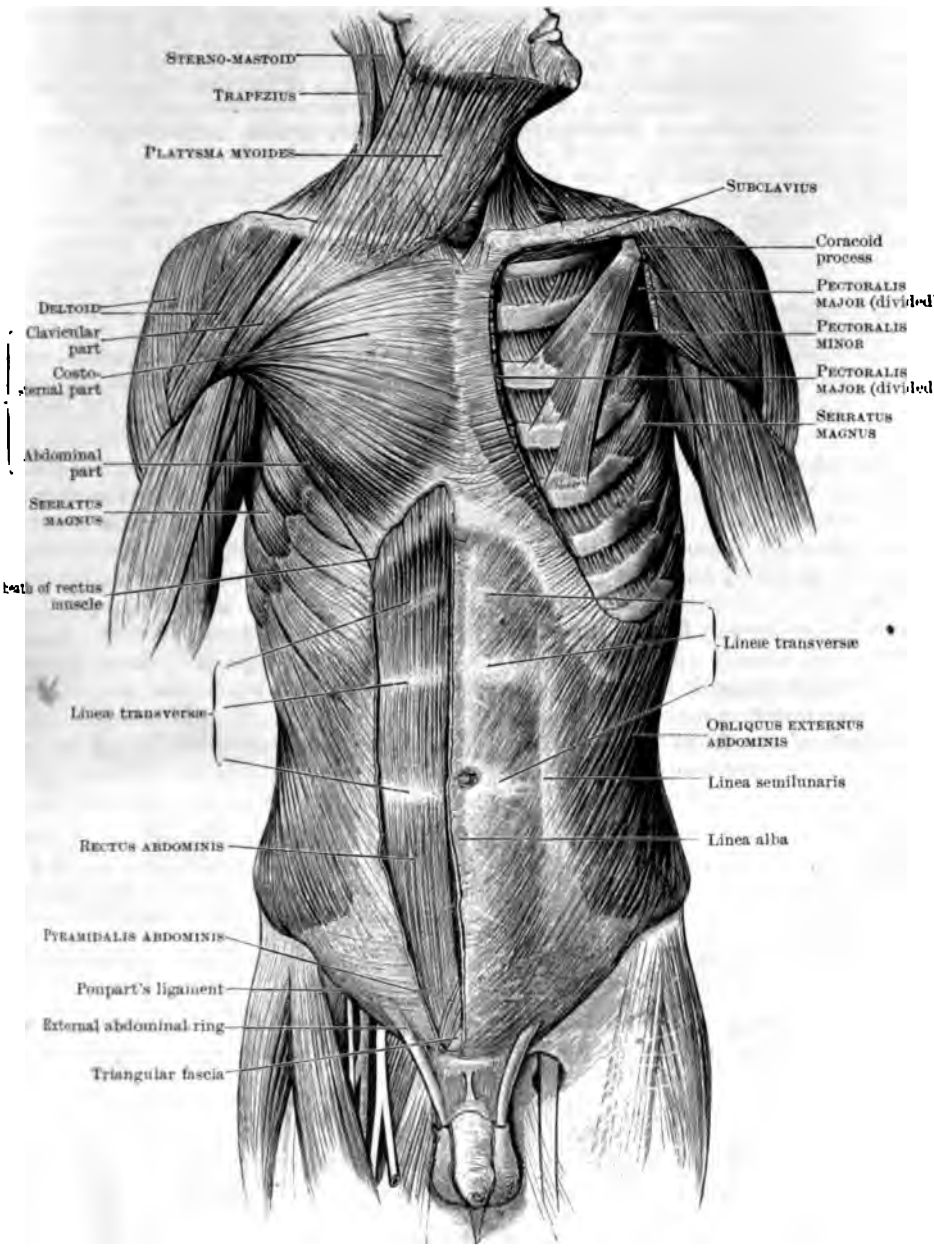


Fig. 247. Anterior Muscles of the Trunk.

ason for the application of the terms *portio attollens* to the clavicular portion, d *portio deprimens* to the costo-sternal and abdominal portions of the muscle.

Placed superficially on the chest wall, the pectoralis major forms the front ll of the axilla, and by its lower or outer border, the anterior fold of the space. s upper border is separated from the edge of the deltoid muscle by an interval which lie the cephalic vein and humeral artery. Its deep surface is in lation with the ribs and intercostal muscles, the costo-coracoid membrane and

the structures piercing it, the pectoralis minor, the axillary vessels, and the nerves of the brachial plexus.

Sternalis muscle.—The sternalis is an occasional muscle placed, when present, parallel to the sternum upon the sterno-costal origin of the pectoralis major. It has attachments which are very variable both above and below, to the costal cartilages, sternum, rectus sheath, sterno-mastoid, and pectoralis major. Its **nerve-supply** is from one or both of the anterior thoracic nerves. In certain rare cases it has been said to be innervated by intercostal nerves. It is present in 4·4 cases out of 100, and it is slightly more frequent in the male than in the female. It has been regarded by different observers as (1) a vestige of the panniculus carnosus, (2) a homologue of the sterno-mastoid, or (3) a displaced slip of the pectoralis major.

Chondro-epitrochlearis, dorso-epitrochlearis, axillary arches, costo-coracoideus.—One or other of the above-named slips is occasionally present, crossing the floor of the axilla in the interval between the latissimus dorsi and the pectoralis major. They take **origin** from the costal cartilages, ribs, or borders of the pectoralis major (*chondro-epitrochlearis, axillary arches, costo-coracoideus*), or from the border of the latissimus dorsi (*dorso-epitrochlearis, axillary arches, costo-coracoideus*). Their **insertion** is variable. The *chondro-epitrochlearis* and *dorso-epitrochlearis* are inserted into the fascia of the arm on the inner side, the internal intermuscular septum, or the internal condyle of the humerus. The *axillary arches* are inserted into the border of the pectoralis major, the fascia of the arm, or the coraco-brachialis or biceps muscle. The *costo-coracoideus*, arising from the ribs or the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus, or detaching itself from the border of the pectoralis major or latissimus dorsi, is attached to the coracoid process, alone or along with one of the muscles attached to that bone. These variable slips of muscle are supplied by the internal anterior thoracic nerve, the lesser internal cutaneous nerve, or the intercosto-humeral.

The **pectoralis minor** is a narrow, flat, triangular muscle. It **arises** from (1) the outer surfaces and upper borders of the third, fourth, and fifth ribs near their anterior ends, and (2) from the fascia covering the third and fourth intercostal spaces between these ribs. It may have an additional origin from the second rib (Fig. 330, p. 420); and that from the fifth rib is often absent. Directed obliquely outwards and upwards, it is **inserted** by a short, flat tendon into the outer half of the anterior (inner) border and upper surface of the coracoid process (Fig. 250, p. 325), and usually also into the conjoint origin of the biceps and coraco-brachialis. It is wholly concealed by the pectoralis major, except when the arm is raised, when the outer border of the muscle becomes superficial. It enters into the formation of the front wall of the axilla, and gives attachment along its upper border to the costo-coracoid membrane. It crosses the axillary vessels and the cords of the brachial plexus, and is pierced by branches of the anterior thoracic nerves.

Either in part or wholly the pectoralis minor may pass over the coracoid process of the scapula, separated from it by a bursa, to be inserted into the coraco-acromial ligament, or the acromion process; or piercing the coraco-acromial ligament, it may be attached to the capsule of the shoulder-joint (coraco-humeral ligament).

Pectoralis minimus.—This is a slender slip, rarely present, which extends between the first costal cartilage and the coracoid process.

The **subclavius muscle arises** from the upper surface of the first costal cartilage in front of the costo-clavicular ligament, and from the upper surface of the

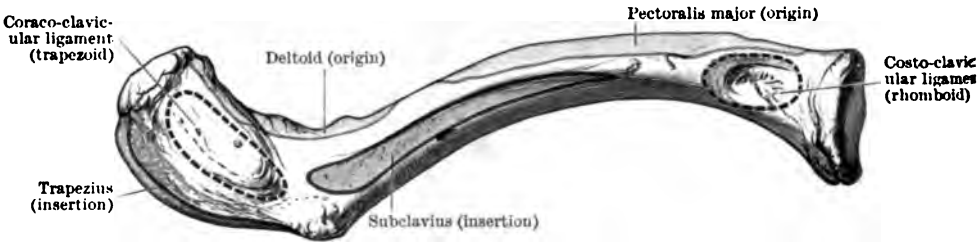


FIG. 248.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE CLAVICLE (Under Surface).

distal end of the first rib (Fig. 330, p. 420). It is **inserted** into a groove in the middle third of the under surface of the clavicle (Fig. 248, p. 324). The muscle is invested by the fascia which forms the costo-coracoid membrane, and is concealed by the clavicle and the clavicular origin of the pectoralis major.

sterno-clavicularis is a small separate ly present, extending beneath the pector- r from the upper part of the sternum to cle.

serratus magnus (m. serratus r) is a large curved quadrilateral occupying the side of the chest ier wall of the axilla. It **arises** by slips from the external aspect of per eight and occasionally (as in ure) from nine ribs. The first slip uble one, arising from the first two d the fascia covering the inter- space (Fig. 330, p. 420). The n of the muscle is threefold. (1) st portion of the muscle (from the nd second ribs) is directed back- to be inserted into the ventral of the upper angle of the scapula. e next three slips of the muscle he second, third, and fourth ribs) erted into the vertebral border of apula. (3) The last four slips he fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth re directed obliquely upwards and rds, to be inserted on the ventral aspect of the lower angle of the scapula (Fig. 250, p. 325).

FIG. 249.—THE SERRATUS MAGNUS MUSCLE.

. 250.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE SCAPULA (Anterior Aspect).

The external surface of the muscle is partly superficial below the axillary space, on the side wall of the chest, where its slips of origin are seen interdigitating with those of the obliquus externus abdominis. Higher up it forms the inner wall of the axilla, and is in contact with the pectoral muscles in front and the subscapularis behind. Its upper border appears in the floor of the posterior triangle, and over it the axillary artery and the cords of the brachial plexus pass in their course through the armpit. The lower border is oblique, and is in contact with the latissimus dorsi muscle. The deep surface of the muscle is in contact with the chest wall, so that the serratus magnus along with the subscapularis muscle separates the scapula from the ribs. The muscle may extend higher than usual, so as to be continuous in the neck with the levator anguli scapulæ.

Nerve-Supply.

The nerves supplying the muscles connecting the upper limb to the trunk are given in the following table:—

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Trapezius	Spinal accessory nerve	Spinal Cord
	Cervical plexus	C. 3. 4.
Latissimus dorsi	Long subscapular	C. 6. 7. 8.
Levator scapulæ	Cervical plexus	C. 3. 4.
	Posterior scapular	C. 5.
Rhomboidei	Posterior scapular	C. 5.
Pectorales	External anterior thoracic	C. 5. 6. 7.
	Internal „ „	C. 8. T. 1.
Subclavius	Brachial plexus	C. 5. 6.
Serratus magnus	Posterior thoracic	C. 5. 6. 7.

Actions.

The muscles of this group (together with the sterno-cleido-mastoid and omohyoid muscles) act for the most part in the movements of the shoulder girdle at the sterno-clavicular and acromio-clavicular joints. At the former joint they produce the various movements of the clavicle on the sternum, and cause the shoulder to move in an arc the centre of which is the sterno-clavicular joint. At the acromio-clavicular articulation they produce a rotation of the scapula on the clavicle, and a consequent alteration in the direction of the glenoid fossa. At the same time the several muscles are agents in other equally important movements, when the shoulder girdle is fixed; movements of the head and neck; movements of the trunk and ribs; and, in addition in the case of the pectoralis major and latissimus dorsi, important movements of the arm at the shoulder-joint.

1. **Movements of the Shoulder Girdle.**—The action of this group of muscles on the shoulder girdle (mainly corresponding to movements at the sterno-clavicular joint) may be expressed in the following table:—

a. Movement in a Vertical Plane.		*b.* Movement in a Horizontal Plane.	
Elevation.	**Depression.**	**Forwards.**	**Backwards.**
Trapezius (upper fibres)	Trapezius (lower fibres)	Serratus magnus	Trapezius
Levator scapulæ	Subclavius	Pectoralis major	Rhomboidei
Rhomboidei	Pectoralis minor	Pectoralis minor	Latissimus dorsi
Sterno-mastoid	Latissimus dorsi		
Omohyoid	Pectoralis major (lower fibres)	*c.* **Rotation**—a combination of these muscles.	

2. **Movements of the scapula on the clavicle** produce an alteration of the direction of the glenoid fossa of the scapula, and are accompanied by movements, inwards or outwards, forwards or backwards, of the inferior angle of the scapula. By the combined action of the muscles acting upon the shoulder girdle a **rotatory movement** of the scapula at the acromio-clavicular joint is effected, by which the relation of the glenoid fossa to the head of the humerus is preserved in movements of the arm.

3. **In forced inspiration,** the sterno-mastoid, trapezius, levator scapulæ, rhomboidei, subclavius, omohyoid, serratus magnus, pectoral muscles, and latissimus dorsi, acting together, raise and fix the shoulder girdle; while those of them which have costal attachments—subclavius, pectoral muscles, serratus magnus, and latissimus dorsi, simultaneously elevate the ribs and expand the thorax.

4. **Lateral flexion and rotation of the spine** in the neck is effected partly by the action of the trapezius, levator scapulæ, and rhomboid muscles (with the shoulder fixed). The latissimus dorsi and pectoralis major act in climbing in a similar way, raising up the trunk towards the shoulder.

5. **Action on the Upper Limb.**—By reason of their insertion into the humerus the pectoralis major and latissimus dorsi muscles assist the movements of the upper limb. Acting together, the two muscles depress the shoulder, and draw the arm to the side of the body, at the same time rotating the humerus inwards. The two parts of the pectoralis major have slightly different actions on the humerus. The clavicular part of the muscle (*portio attollens*) draws the arm inwards and upwards; the costo-sternal part of the muscle (*portio deprimens*) draws it inwards and downwards. The latissimus dorsi acting alone, besides rotating the limb, draws it inwards and backwards, as in the act of swimming.

FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE SHOULDER.

The **deep fascia** covering the scapular muscles presents no feature of special ıportance. Attached to the clavicle, acromion, and scapular spine, it is thin over e deltoid muscle. Below the deltoid it is thicker; it encases and gives origin to .e infraspinatus muscle, and is continuous with the fasciæ of the axilla and the ıck.

Muscles.

The **muscles** proper to the shoulder comprise the deltoid, supraspinatus, infra-

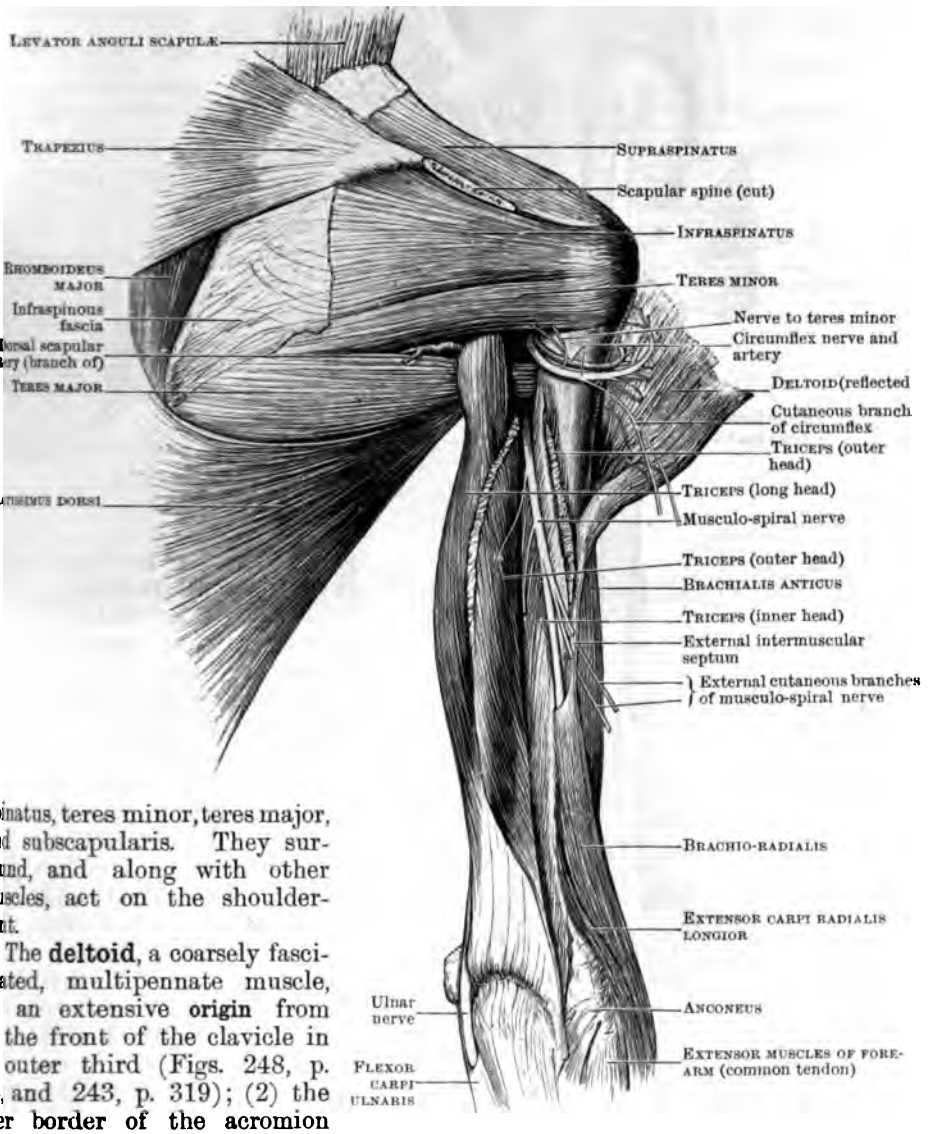


Fig. 251.—Deltoid Region and Back of the Arm.

spinatus, teres minor, teres major, and subscapularis. They surround, and along with other muscles, act on the shoulder-joint.

The **deltoid**, a coarsely fasciculated, multipennate muscle, has an extensive **origin** from (1) the front of the clavicle in its outer third (Figs. 248, p. 324, and 243, p. 319); (2) the outer border of the acromion process; (3) the lower edge of the free border of the spine of the scapula (Figs. 254, p. 330, and 250, p. 325); and (4) from the deep fascia covering the infraspinatus muscle. Its origin embraces the insertion of the trapezius. The fibres of the muscle converge to the outer side of the shaft of the humerus, to be **inserted** into a well-marked V-shaped impression above the spiral groove (Figs. 257 and 258, p. 335). The insertion is partly united with the tendon of the **pectoralis major**. The deltoid is superficial *in its* whole extent, and forms the prom-

inence of the shoulder. Its anterior border is separated from the pectoralis maj by a narrow interval, in which the cephalic vein and humeral artery are placed. Tl deep surface of the muscle is separated by a bursa from the capsule of the shoulde

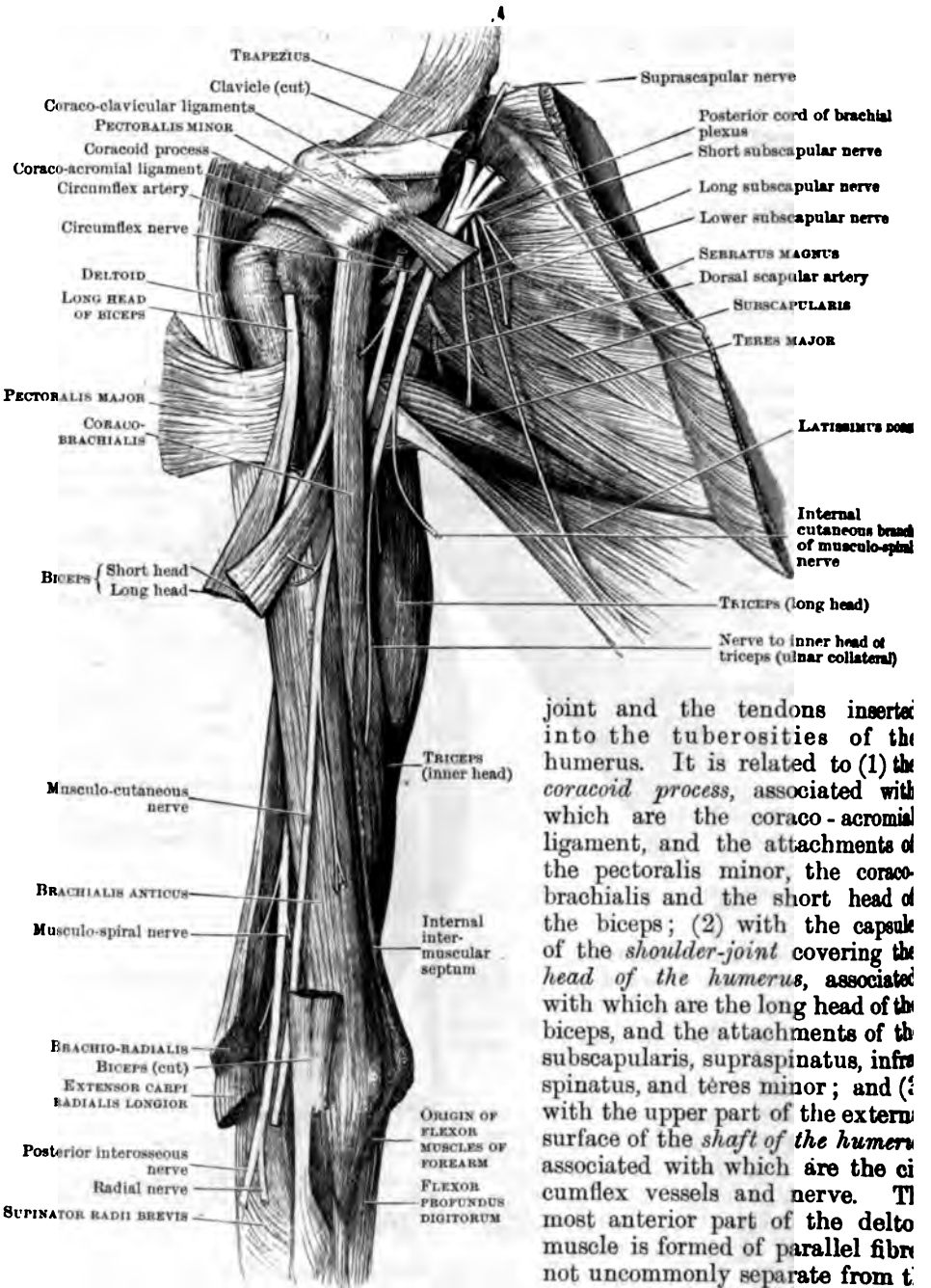


Fig. 252.—The Posterior Wall of the Axilla and the Front of the Arm (the biceps being divided).

joint and the tendons inserte into the tuberosities of th humerus. It is related to (1) th *coracoid process*, associated with which are the coraco-acromia ligament, and the attachments o the pectoralis minor, the coraco-brachialis and the short head o the biceps; (2) with the capsul of the *shoulder-joint* covering th *head of the humerus*, associated with which are the long head of th biceps, and the attachments of th subscapularis, supraspinatus, infra spinatus, and teres minor; and (3 with the upper part of the extern surface of the *shaft of the humer* associated with which are the ci cumflex vessels and nerve. Th most anterior part of the delto muscle is formed of parallel fibr not uncommonly separate from t rest of the muscle at their orig from the clavicle. These fibres m be continuous with the trapezi over the clavicle. The most posterior part arises by a fascial origin from the spi of the scapula and the fascia over the infraspinatus muscle. These portions a attached respectively to the front and back of the main tendon of insertion. Th intermediate fibres are multipennate, attached above and below to three or fo

ndons, which extend for a variable distance from the origin and insertion uscle.

supraspinatus arises by fleshy fibres from the supraspinous fossa (except e neck of the bone) and from the deep fascia over it (Fig. 254, p. 330). rected outwards under the acromion process and coraco-acromial ligament **serted** by a broad thick tendon into the uppermost facet on the great ty of the humerus, and capsule of the shoulder- ig. 253, p. 329).

muscle is entirely con- om view by the trapezius, omion process, and the muscle. It covers the the scapula, the supra- vessels and nerves, and er surface of the capsule houlder-joint.

infraspinatus arises from raspinous fossa of the (excepting near the neck one and the flat surface he axillary border) and ie thick fascia over it 4, p. 330). The fibres of cle converge to the neck capula; and are **inserted** on into the middle facet great tuberosity of the s, and into the capsule shoulder-joint (Fig. 258,

A bursa separates the from the neck of the and in a minority of ommunicates with the l cavity of the shoulder-

upper part of the muscle n from view by the del- Its lower part is super- d its outer border is in with the teres minor. insertion it crosses the the scapula and the f the capsule of the -joint.

teres minor is a small **arising** by fleshy fibres upper two-thirds of the ace on the dorsal aspect axillary border of the and from fascial septa

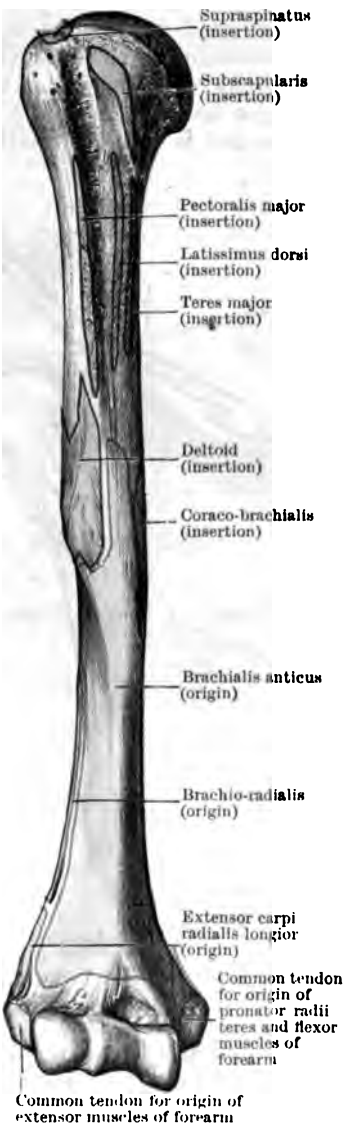

Supraspinatus (insertion)
Subscapularis (insertion)
Pectoralis major (insertion)
Latissimus dorsi (insertion)
Teres major (insertion)
Deltoid (insertion)
Coraco-brachialis (insertion)
Brachialis anticus (origin)
Brachio-radialis (origin)
Extensor carpi radialis longior (origin)
Common tendon for origin of pronator radii teres and flexor muscles of forearm
Common tendon for origin of extensor muscles of forearm

FIG. 253.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE FRONT OF THE HUMERUS.

ng it from the infraspinatus and teres major muscles (Fig. 254, p. 330). longside the outer border of the infraspinatus, it is **inserted** under cover eltoid by a thick flat tendon into the lowest of the three facets on the uberosity of the humerus and into the capsule of the shoulder-joint, and y fibres into the posterior aspect of the surgical neck and shaft of the s, below the tuberosity for about an inch (Fig. 258, p. 335). It is d from the teres major by the scapular head of the triceps, and by the r circumflex vessels and the circumflex nerve. Its origin is pierced by

the dorsal scapular artery. The muscle is invested by the deep fascia enclos infraspinatus, and is sometimes inseparable from that muscle.

The **teres major** is much larger than the preceding muscle. It **arises** by fibres from the lower third of the flat surface on the dorsum of the scapula al axillary border (except for a small area at the lower angle), and from fascial which separate it on the one side from the subscapularis, and on the other fr infraspinatus and teres minor (Fig. 254, p. 330). The muscle is directed the axillary border of the scapula to the front of the shaft of the humerus, it is **inserted** by a broad flat tendon into the inner border of the bicipital internal to the latissimus dorsi muscle (Fig. 257, p. 335). Just before its in it is closely adherent to the tendon of the latissimus dorsi.

The teres major helps to form the posterior wall of the axilla. It lies the subscapularis, and is in close relation with the latissimus dorsi muscle, conceals its origi teriorly, winds rou outer border, and pa separates its anteri face from the a vessels and nerves muscle forms the boundary of a lar angular interval, b externally on the po wall of the axilla surgical neck o humerus, and abo the borders of th scapularis and teres muscles. The lon of the triceps passes the teres major an divides this spac two, a quadrilatera limited by the trice surgical neck o humerus for the p of the circumflex and posterior circ vessels, and a smal angular space boun the triceps, subscap and teres major, t dorsal scapular art

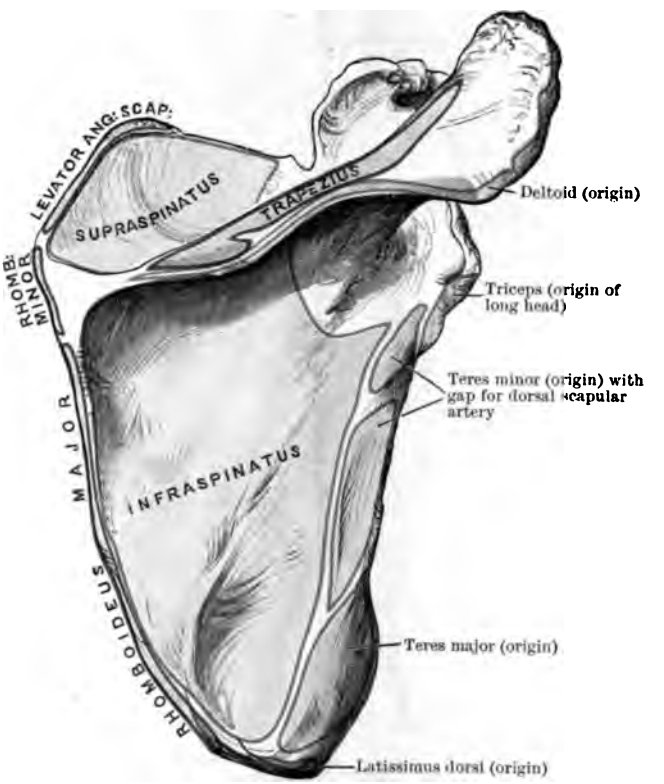


Fig. 254.—Muscle-Attachments to the Scapula (Posterior Surface).

The **subscap** is a large triangular muscle occupying the venter of the scapula. It by fleshy fibres from the whole of the subscapular fossa and the groove the axillary border, excepting the surfaces at the angles of the bone (Fig p. 325). Springing from several ridges in the fossa are septa projectin the substance of the muscle, which increase the extent of its attachment. verging to the head of the humerus, the muscular fibres are **inserted** by a broad tendon into the lesser tuberosity of the humerus and into the capsule of the sho joint, and by fleshy fibres into the surgical neck and the shaft of the hu below the tuberosity for about an inch, under cover of the coraco-brachial short head of the biceps (Fig. 257, p. 335). This muscle forms the greater p the posterior wall of the axilla. Its inner or anterior surface is in contact wi serratus magnus and the axillary vessels and nerves. Its deep surface is sep from the neck of the scapula by a bursa, which is in direct communication wi synovial cavity of the shoulder-joint. Its upper border passes beneath the co process; its outer border is separated from the teres major by the **posterior c**

flex vessels and the circumflex nerve, the long head of the triceps muscle, and the dorsal scapular artery.

The **subscapularis minor** is an occasional muscle situated below the capsule of the shoulder-joint. It **arises** from the axillary border of the scapula below the subscapularis, and is **inserted** into the capsule of the joint or the upper part of the shaft of the humerus.

Nerve-Supply.

The muscles of this group are all supplied by the fifth and sixth cervical nerves, through nerves arising from posterior trunks of the brachial plexus.

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Deltoid, Teres minor	Circumflex	C. 5. 6.
Supraspinatus, Infraspinatus	Suprascapular	
Teres major	Lower subscapular	
Subscapularis	Lower and upper subscapular	

Actions.

The principal action of this group of muscles is on the shoulder-joint. They have also secondary actions in relation to movements of the trunk and limbs.

1. Movements at the Shoulder-Joint.

a. **Abduction.**	**Adduction.**	*b.* **Flexion** (Forwards).	**Extension** (Backwards).
Deltoid Supraspinatus	Teres major Teres minor Pectoralis major Latissimus dorsi Coraco-brachialis Biceps (short head) Triceps (long head) (Weight of limb)	Deltoid (anterior fibres) Subscapularis Pectoralis major Coraco-brachialis Biceps	Deltoid (posterior fibres) Teres major Infraspinatus Latissimus dorsi Triceps

c. **Rotation Outwards.**	**Rotation Inwards.**
Deltoid (posterior fibres) Infraspinatus Teres minor	Deltoid (anterior fibres) Teres major Pectoralis major Latissimus dorsi

d. **Circumduction**—combination of previous muscles.

The various movements at the shoulder-joint are greatly aided by the muscles acting on the shoulder girdle. In raising the arm above the head, for instance, the humerus is brought to the horizontal position by the deltoid and supraspinatus, and the movement is continued by the elevators of the shoulder girdle. Again, in forward and backward movements at the shoulder-joint, great assistance is derived from muscles acting directly on the shoulder girdle—pectoralis minor and serratus magnus; trapezius and rhomboidei.

2. **In relation to the trunk and limbs,** the shoulder muscles, by fixing the humerus, have auxiliary power on the one hand in movements of the trunk, such as forced inspiration; on the other hand, acting along with muscles fixing the elbow-joint, they stiffen the limb so as to permit of the more refined movements of the wrist and fingers.

FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE ARM.

FASCIÆ.

The **superficial fascia** presents no features of importance. There is a bur beneath it over the olecranon process, and occasionally another over the inn condyle of the humerus.

The **deep fascia** forms a strong tubular investment for the muscles on the fron and back of the humerus. It is continuous above with the deep fascia of th shoulder and axilla, and is further strengthened by fibres derived from the insertion of muscles attached to the upper part of the humerus, viz., from the pectoralis major, latissimus dorsi, and deltoid. At the elbow it becomes continuous with the deep fascia of the forearm, and gains attachment to the condyles of the humerus and the olecranon process of the ulna; it is strengthened also by important bands associated with the insertions of the biceps in front and the triceps behind, to which reference will be made in the account of these muscles.

About the middle of the upper arm in front of the inner border, the deep fascia is perforated for the passage of the basilic vein and the internal cutaneous nerve.

The **intermuscular septa** are processes of the deep fascia attached to the supracondyloid or epicondylic ridges of the humerus. The **internal** and **stronger septum** is placed between the brachialis anticus in front and the inner head of the triceps behind, and gives origin to both. It extends upwards to the insertion of the coraco-brachialis (which is often continued into it), and the ulnar nerve and inferior profunda vessels pass down over its inner edge. The **external septum** is thinner. It separates the brachialis anticus and brachio-radialis in front from the inner and outer heads of the triceps behind, and gives origin to these muscles. It extends upwards to the insertion of the deltoid, and is pierced by the musculo-spiral nerve and superior profunda vessels.

MUSCLES.

The **coraco-brachialis** is a rudimentary muscle placed on the front and inner aspect of the arm. It **arises** in common with the short head of the biceps from the tip of the coracoid process of the scapula (Fig. 250, p. 325), and is commonly connected at its origin with the insertion of the pectoralis minor. The origin of the muscle is by fleshy fibres attached (1) to the tip of the coracoid process below and internal to the biceps tendon, and (2) to the tendon of the biceps itself. The muscle is partially subdivided into two parts by the musculo-cutaneous nerve, and ends in a flat tendon **inserted** into a faint linear impression about an inch in length on the middle of the inner border of the shaft of the humerus (Fig. 257, p. 335). It is often continued into the internal intermuscular septum.

The muscle lies on the inner side of the biceps, and is concealed at first by the deltoid and pectoralis major. In the lower part of its extent it is superficial, and forms a swelling beneath the skin on the inner side of the arm which serves as a guide to the axillary and brachial arteries.

The **coraco-brachialis** is the remains of a *threefold muscle*, of which only two elements are usually present in man, but of which in anomalous cases all the parts may be more or less fully developed. The passage of the musculo-cutaneous nerve through the muscle is an indication of its natural separation into two parts, which represent the persistent middle and inferior elements. The commonest variety is one in which the more superficial (inferior) part of the muscle extends farther down the arm than usual, so as to be inserted into the internal intermuscular septum, or even into the internal condyle of the humerus. A third slip (**coraco-brachialis superior** or **brevi rotator humeri**) may more rarely be present, forming a short muscle **arising** from the root of the coracoid process, and **inserted** into the inner side of the humerus just below the capsule of the shoulder-joint.

The **biceps** (m. biceps brachii) is the large superficial muscle which lies on the front of the upper arm. It **arises** by two tendinous *heads*. (1) The **short head** (caput breve) is attached in common with the coraco-brachialis to the tip of the coracoid process of the scapula (Fig. 250, p. 325). Tendinous at first, this head forms a separate fleshy belly, which is united to the long head by an investment of the deep fasci

long head (caput longum) arises by a round tendon from the supra-glenoid ɔn at the root of the coracoid process and from the glenoid ligament on ;ide. Its tendon the cavity of the -joint, and emerging e capsule beneath ɜverse ligament (in- y a prolongation of ɔvial membrane), it the bicipital groove umerus, covered by prolongation of the of the pectoralis In the upper arm a fleshy belly united derived from the ad by an envelope ascia.

nsertion of the muscle se twofold. (1) The es become connected strong *tendon*, at- leeply in the hollow elbow to the rough portion of the tubercle of the Figs. 264, p. 343, , p. 351). A bursa s the tendon from rior portion of the (2) From the inner erior part of the and partly in con- vith the fleshy fibres uscle, a strong *mem- band* (the **semilunar ital fascia**) extends rds and inwards over w of the elbow to join fascia covering the f the flexor and pro- uscles of the forearm. r part is thickened e felt subcutaneously centic border.

pt at its origin and the biceps muscle superficially on the the arm, concealing hialis anticus muscle musculo-cutaneous The brachial artery lian nerve lie along border. The origin uscle is deeply placed ɔver of the deltoid ɔoralis major.

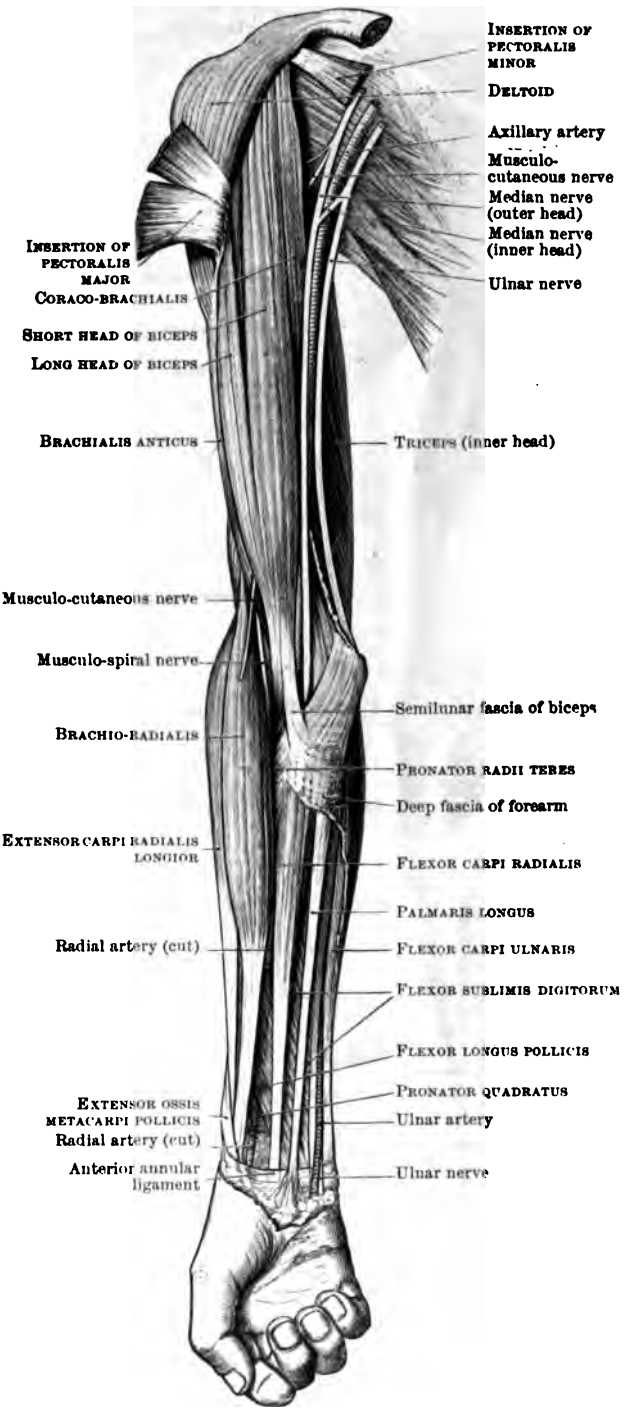


FIG. 255.—SUPERFICIAL MUSCLES ON THE FRONT OF THE ARM AND FOREARM.

The tendon of insertion in the hollow of the elbow lies the end of the brachial and the beginning of the radial artery. The fascia separates the brachial artery from the median basilic vein.

The **biceps** is an extremely variable muscle. Its chief anomalies are due to an increase diminution in the number of origins. A third **head of origin** is common (10 per cent), a usually arises from the humerus, between t insertions of the deltoid and coraco-brachia Two or even three additional heads may present at the same time. The long head the muscle may be absent, or may take orig from the bicipital groove. The muscle m have an additional insertion into the intern condyle of the humerus, or into the fascia the forearm.

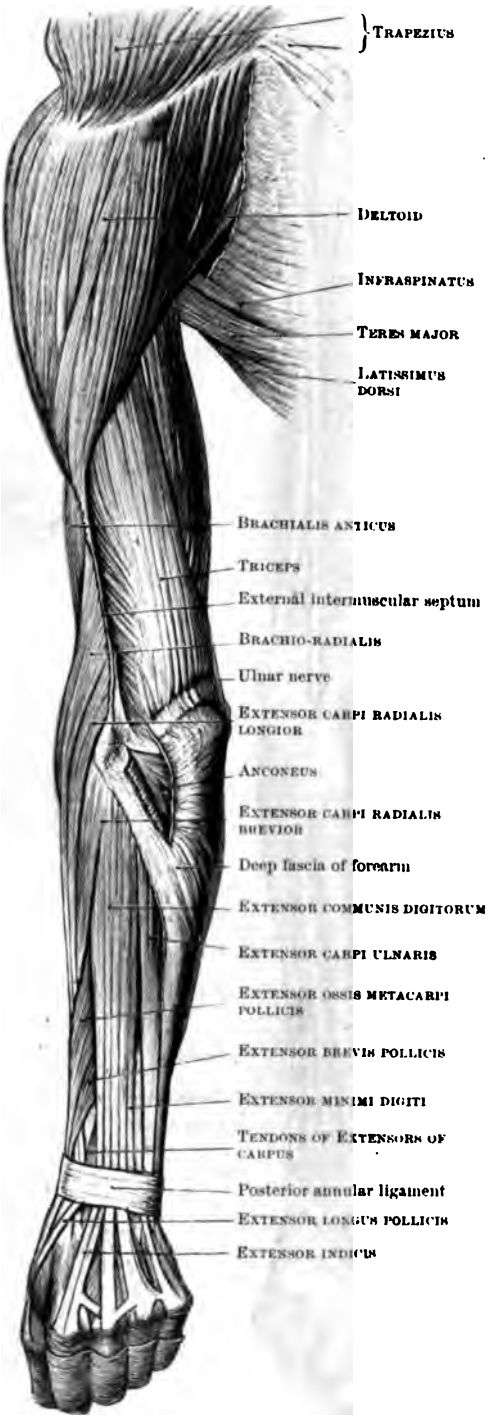


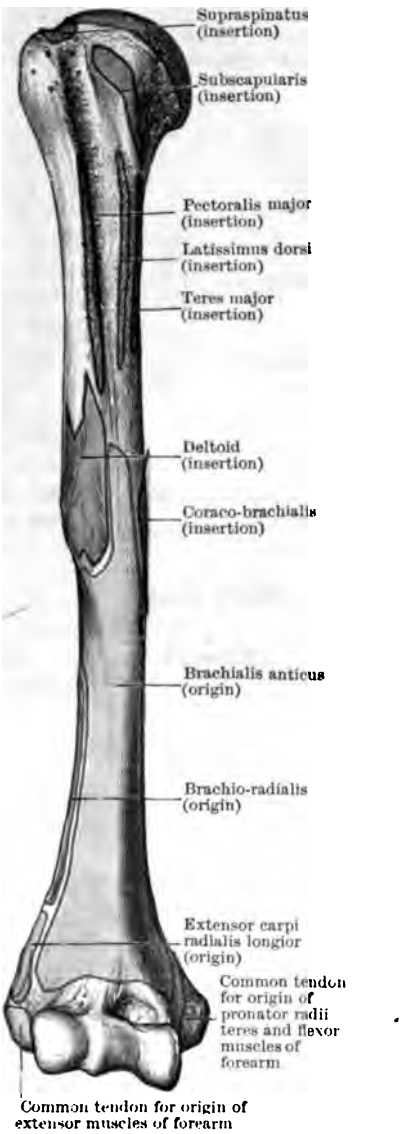
Fig. 256.—The Muscles on the Back of the Arm, Forearm, and Hand.

The **brachialis anticus** (m. brach alis) is a large muscle **arising** fro the lower two-thirds of the front the shaft of the humerus, and fro the inter-muscular septum on ea side (Figs. 257 and 258, p. 33 Clasping the insertion of the delto above, it ends below in a strong tend **inserted** into the rough inferior surfa of the coronoid process of the ulna a into the anterior surface of the shaft the bone immediately below (Fig. 26 p. 343). A few of the deep fibres a inserted into the anterior ligament the elbow-joint. The outer part of t muscle arising from the external ep condylic ridge and external intermu cular septum forms a slip more or le separate, which may be partially fuse with the brachio-radialis muscle.

The brachialis anticus is almo wholly concealed from view by th biceps in front, the brachio-radiali externally, and the brachial vessels i ternally.. It covers the elbow-joint, an forms part of the floor of the hollo of the elbow. It is separated from th brachio-radialis and extensor muscl of the carpus by the musculo-spir nerve.

The **triceps** (m. triceps brachii) the only muscle on the back of t arm. It **arises** by three heads: an out and an inner head, from the humer and a middle or long head from t scapula. (1) The **middle, long or scapu head** (caput longum) begins as a stro tendon attached to a rough triangu surface on the axillary border of t scapula just below the glenoid fo (Figs. 254, p. 330, and 250, p. 32 This gives rise to a fleshy belly wh occupies the middle of the back of t arm. (2) The **outer head** (caput latera is attached by fibres, partly tendin and partly fleshy, to the curved ou border of the humerus from the insertion of the teres minor above to the muscu spiral groove below, and receives additional fibres from the back of the exter intermuscular septum (Fig. 258, p. 335). This origin is thick above and becon

r below. Its fibres are directed downwards and inwards over the musculo-spiral
e and the inner head of the muscle to the tendon of insertion (3) The inner
(caput mediale) arises by fleshy fibres from an elongated triangular area on the
of the humerus, extending upwards to the level of the insertion of the teres
r on the inner side, and downwards nearly to the margin of the olecranon fossa.
258, p. 335). Externally it is limited above by the musculo-spiral groove;


Supraspinatus (insertion)
Subscapularis (insertion)
Pectoralis major (insertion)
Latissimus dorsi (insertion)
Teres major (insertion)
Deltoid (insertion)
Coraco-brachialis (insertion)
Brachialis anticus (origin)
Brachio-radialis (origin)
Extensor carpi radialis longior (origin)
Common tendon for origin of pronator radii teres and flexor muscles of forearm
Common tendon for origin of extensor muscles of forearm

257.—Muscle-Attachments to the Front of the Humerus.

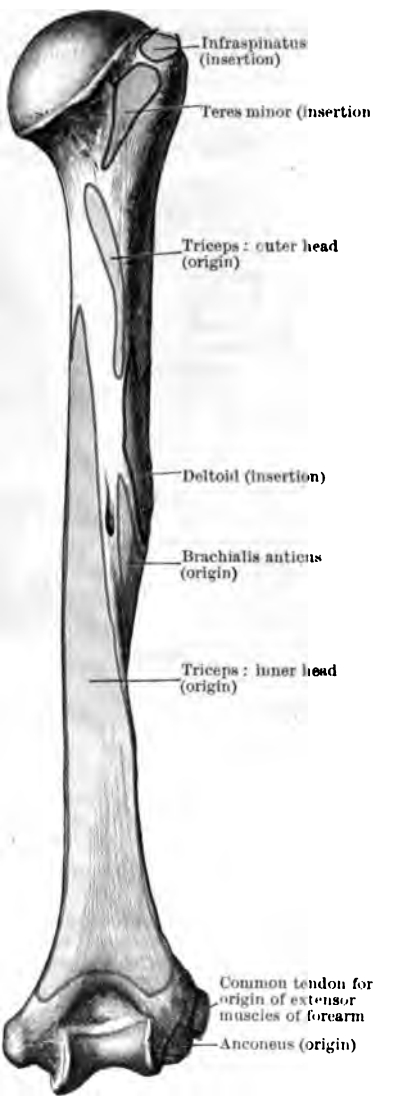


Fig. 258.—Muscle-Attachments to the Back of the Humerus.

below it extends downwards on either side of the olecranon fossa almost to
condyles of the humerus. It also arises on each side from the intermuscular
a,—from the whole length of the external septum, and from the part of the
rnal septum which is below the passage of the musculo-spiral nerve.
The three heads of origin are **inserted** by a common tendon, broad and membranous,
an impression occupying the posterior part of the upper end of the olecranon
ess of the ulna (Fig. 271, p. 351), and into the deep fascia of the forearm
ither side of it. The long and outer heads join the borders of the tendon of

insertion, and the inner head is attached to its deep surface. A small thick-walle bursa separates the tendon of the triceps from the posterior ligament of the elbo joint and the anterior part of the upper end of the olecranon process.

The long head of the triceps is concealed at first by the teres major and tes minor, and by the deltoid muscle. Along with the outer head it conceals the muscul spiral nerve and superior profunda artery, and covers the inner head of the musc The inner is the deep head, and is only visible at the lateral borders of the musc

The **subanconeus** is a small muscle occasionally present, which consists of scattered fib **arising** from the lower end of the humerus beneath the triceps, and **inserted** into the poster ligament of the elbow-joint.

NERVE-SUPPLY.

The following nerves supply the muscles of the arm :—

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Coraco-brachialis Biceps Brachialis anticus	Musculo-cutaneous	C. 7. C. 5. 6. C. 5. 6.
Brachialis anticus Triceps Outer head Middle and inner heads	Musculo-spiral	C. (5) 6. C. (6) 7. 8. C. 7. 8.

ACTIONS.

(1) The chief action of these muscles (excepting the coraco-brachialis) is on the elbow-joi producing along with other muscles flexion and extension. The flexor muscles are much m powerful than the extensors.

Table of Muscles acting on the Elbow-Joint.

Flexors.	Extensors.
Biceps	Triceps
Brachialis anticus	Anconeus
Brachio-radialis	Extensors of wrist and fingers (in supination)
Pronator radii teres	
Flexors of wrist and fingers	
Extensors of wrist (in pronation)	

(2) **The coraco-brachialis** muscle acts only on the shoulder-joint, assisting the biceps as adductor and flexor of the humerus.

(3) **Subordinate** and **accessory movements** are performed by all the muscles of this gro except the brachialis anticus. The **biceps** supinates the forearm, flexes the elbow, and with t aid of the **coraco-brachialis** adducts and flexes the humerus at the shoulder-joint. The tric through its scapular head adducts and extends the humerus, besides extending the elbow-join

FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE FOREARM AND HAND.

FASCIÆ.

The **superficial fascia** in the forearm presents no exceptional features. the dorsum of the hand it is loose and thin; in the palm it is generally v furnished with fat, forming pads for the protection of the vessels and nerves. I closely adherent to the palmar fascia and to the skin, especially along the lines flexure.

The **palmaris brevis** is a quadrilateral subcutaneous muscle occupying inner side of the hand under the superficial fascia. It **arises** from the inner bor of the thick central portion of the palmar fascia and from the front of the ante annular ligament of the wrist, and is **inserted** into the skin of the inner borde the hand for a variable distance. It covers the ulnar artery and nerve, branc of which supply it. Its action is to wrinkle the skin of the inner border of

d, and by raising up the skin and superficial fascia, to deepen the hollow of hand.

The **deep fascia** of the forearm and hand is continuous above with the deep ia of the arm. At the upper part of the forearm it is strengthened by additional es around the elbow; in front by fibres from the semilunar fascia of the ps, behind by the fascial insertions of the triceps, and laterally by fibres derived a the humeral lyles in rela- to the com- tendons of gin of the or and ex- or muscles of forearm. It ely invests gives origin hese muscles. attached to posterior ler of the ulna the whole th of the fore- , and affords eased attach- nt to the flexor l extensor pi ulnaris and flexor pro- dus digitorum scles. Above wrist the ia is pierced eriorly by the tendon of the palmaris longus, and by the ulnar artery and nerve. the wrist it gains attachment to the bones of the forearm and carpus, is greatly ngthened by addition of transverse fibres, and constitutes **the annular ligaments.**

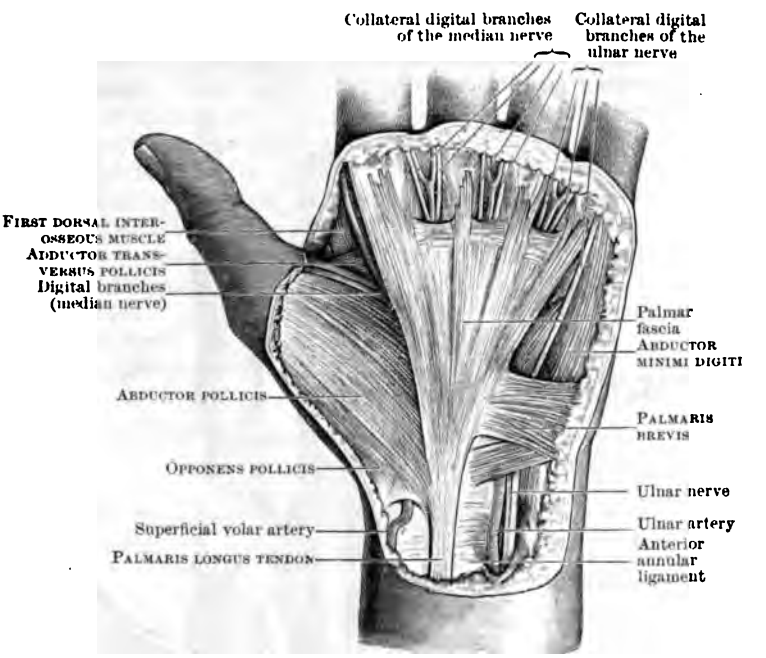


Fig. 259.—The Palm of the Hand (Superficial Dissection).

The **anterior annular ligament** of the wrist is a band about an inch and a f in depth, continuous above and below with the deep fascia of the forearm and palm of the hand. It is attached to the scaphoid and trapezium externally: the pisiform and unciform bones internally; and it forms a membranous arch ding down in the hollow of the carpus the flexor tendons of the fingers and the lian nerve. It is divided into *two compartments*, the larger accommodating the lons of the flexors of the digits and the median nerve, the smaller (placed rnally) containing the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis. There are *three rial membranes* in these compartments: one for the flexor carpi radialis lon, and two others, which often communicate together, enveloping the tendon he flexor longus pollicis and the flexor tendons of the fingers respectively. surface of the ligament is crossed by the palmar branches of the median and r nerves; by the tendon of the palmaris longus muscle, which is attached to urface; and by the ulnar artery and nerve, which are again bridged over and ected by a band of fibrous tissue passing from the pisiform bone and the rficial fascia to the surface of the ligament. To the lower border of the ment are attached the palmar fascia in the centre, and the superficial muscles e thumb and the muscles of the little finger on each side.

The **posterior annular ligament** of the wrist is placed at a higher level the previous ligament. It consists of an oblique band of fibres about an broad, continuous above and below with the deep fascia of the forearm and l. It is attached externally to the outer side of the lower end of the radius, internally to the lower end of the ulna (styloid process), the carpus, and the nal lateral ligament of the wrist. It is covered by veins, by the radial nerve,

and by the dorsal branch of the ulnar nerve. *Six compartments* are f beneath it by the attachment of septal bands to the lower ends of the and ulna. Each compartment is provided with a *synovial membrane*, and serve to transmit the extensor tendons of the wrist and fingers in the foll order from without inwards:—

1. Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis and extensor brevis pollicis.
2. Extensores carpi radiales, longior and brevior.
3. Extensor longus pollicis.
4. Extensor communis digitorum and extensor indicis.
5. Extensor minimi digiti.
6. Extensor carpi ulnaris.

Fig. 260.—The Muscles and Tendons in the Palm of the Hand.

The thin deep fascia of the dorsum of the hand is lost over the expansi the extensor tendons on the fingers. Between the metacarpal bones a strong of fascia covers and gives attachment to the interossei muscles.

The **palmar fascia** is of considerable importance. In the centre of the it forms a thick triangular membrane, the apex of which joins the lower e the anterior annular ligament, and receives the insertion of the tendon palmaris longus muscle. The fascia separates below into four slips, one fo finger, connected together by transverse fibres, forming beneath the webs fingers the **superficial transverse metacarpal ligament**. Beyond this eac separates into two parts, to be connected to the sides of the metacarpo-phal joints and the first phalanx of the inner four digits. In the cleft between t halves of each slip the **digital sheath** is attached and extends downwards on finger. The lateral borders of this triangular central portion of the palmar

ontinuous with thin layers of deep fascia, which cover and envelop the muscles e thenar and hypothenar eminences. The inner border gives origin to the *aris brevis muscle.*

he **digital sheaths** are tubular envelopes extending along the anterior aspect e digits and enclosing the flexor tendons. Each consists of a fibrous sheath hed to the lateral borders of the phalanges and inter-phalangeal joints, and nuous above with the palmar fascia. Opposite each inter-phalangeal ılation the digital sheath is loose and thin; opposite the first two phalanges irst only in the case of the thumb) it becomes extremely thick, and gives o the **ligamenta vaginalia**, which serve to keep the tendons closely applied e bones during flexion of the fingers. Within each digital sheath are the flexor ns, enveloped in a synovial membrane which not only envelops the tendon, lso lines the interior of the sheath. The synovial membranes of the digital hs extend a short distance upwards in the palm, and in some cases comcate with the large synovial membranes lining the flexor tendons beneath nnular ligament. There may be a separate distinct synovial membrane for digit; but most commonly only the sheaths for the three middle digits have ate synovial membranes; those for the flexor longus pollicis and for the r tendons of the little finger communicate usually with the synovial mem-es placed beneath the anterior annular ligament.

THE MUSCLES ON THE FRONT AND INNER ASPECT OF THE FOREARM.

he pronator and flexor muscles which lie on the front of the forearm occupy rent levels, and are divisible into two main groups, **superficial** and **deep.**

Superficial Muscles.

he **superficial muscles** form the prominence on the front and inner side of forearm, and all take origin in whole or part by means of a common tendon the internal condyle of the humerus. The group comprises five muscles—ator radii teres, flexor carpi radialis, palmaris longus, flexor carpi ulnaris, and r sublimis digitorum.

he **pronator radii teres** (m. pronator teres) is the most external and shortest cle of this group. It has a double **origin**: (1) a *superficial head*, the main origin, ly fleshy, partly tendinous, from the lowest part of the internal supracondyloid e of the humerus and from the internal intermuscular septum, from the internal lyle of the humerus, from the fascia over it, and from an intermuscular septum een it and the flexor carpi radialis (Fig. 257, p. 335); (2) a *deep head*, a ler tendinous slip from the inner side of the coronoid process of the ulna, h joins the superficial origin of the muscle on its deep surface (Fig. 264, 3). The median nerve separates the two heads from one another. The muscle irected downwards and outwards to be **inserted** by tendon into an oval ession on the middle of the outer surface of the shaft of the radius (Figs. p. 343, and 271, p. 351). The fibres of the muscle are twisted on themselves, hat the highest humeral fibres form the lowest fibres of the tendon of tion, and the lowest humeral fibres and those arising from the coronoid ss are highest at the insertion of the muscle.

he muscle forms the inner boundary of the hollow of the elbow. It is superly placed, except near its insertion, where it is covered by the brachio-radialis le and by the radial vessels and nerve. The flexor carpi radialis is on its inner

The muscle conceals the ulnar and radial origins of the flexor sublimis orum, and the median nerve and ulnar artery, which are separated from one her by the deep head of origin.

he **flexor carpi radialis** muscle takes its **origin** from the common tendon from nternal condyle of the humerus, from the fascia over it, and from the interular septa on either side. Its fleshy belly gives place to a strong round on in the lower half of the forearm, which, at the wrist, enters the hand in a

special compartment beneath the anterior annular ligament, and after occ the groove on the trapezium, is **inserted** into the upper ends of the seco third metacarpal bones on their anterior surfaces. The chief tendon is that second metacarpal bone gives off a small slip inner side to be attac the third metacarpal Each is inserted a quarter of an inch be carpo-metacarpal join 267, p. 346).

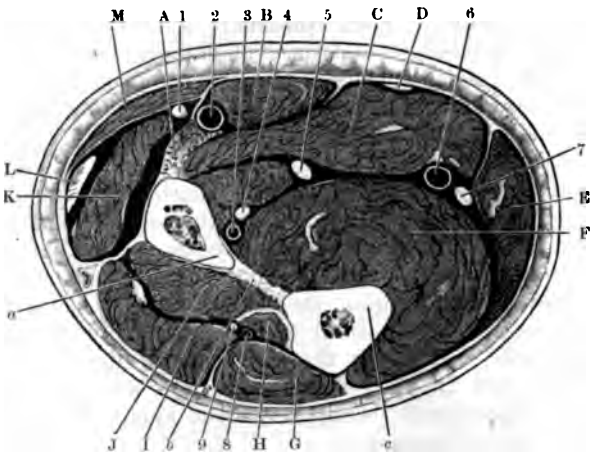


FIG. 261.—SECTION ACROSS THE FOREARM IN THE MIDDLE THIRD.

A, PRONATOR RADII TERES (insertion); B, FLEXOR CARPI RADIALIS; C, FLEXOR SUBLIMIS DIGITORUM; D, PALMARIS LONGUS; E, FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS; F, FLEXOR PROFUNDUS DIGITORUM; G, EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS; H, EXTENSOR LONGUS POLLICIS; I, EXTENSOR COMMUNIS DIGITORUM AND EXTENSOR MINIMI DIGITI; J, EXTENSOR OSSIS METACARPI POLLICIS; K, EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS BREVIOR; L, EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS LONGIOR; M, BRACHIO-RADIALIS. *a*, Radius; *b*, Interosseous membrane; *c*, Ulna. 1, Radial nerve; 2, Radial Artery; 3, Anterior interosseous artery; 4, Anterior interosseous nerve (underneath flexor longus pollicis); 5, Median nerve; 6, Ulnar artery 7, Ulnar nerve; 8, Posterior interosseous artery; 9, Posterior interosseous nerve.

The flexor carpi ra superficial except near sertion. Its fleshy bell upper half of the fores between the pronato teres and the palmaris and conceals the flex limis digitorum. Its in the lower half of th arm is subcutaneous, outer side of the palmari tendon. It is an im guide to the radial which are placed in the external to it. Just at wrist it crosses obliqu tendon of the flexor pollicis. After passing the anterior annular li the tendon is concealed origins of the short muscles of the thumb, and is crossed from within outw the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. Besides the synovial bursa env the tendon beneath the annular ligament, another is found beneath the at their insertion.

The **palmaris longus arises** also from the common flexor tendon, fr internal condyle of the humerus, from the fascia over it, and from interm septa on either side. It forms a short fusiform muscle, which ends in the of the forearm in a long flat tendon. This pierces the deep fascia above th and passing over the anterior annular ligament, is **inserted** (1) into the su the anterior annular ligament, and (2) into the apex of the thick central po the palmar fascia. A tendinous slip is frequently sent to the short muscle thumb and the fascia covering them.

The palmaris longus is the smallest muscle of the forearm. It is placed the flexor carpi radialis and the flexor carpi ulnaris, and upon the flexor s digitorum. In the lower third of the forearm its tendon is placed directly median nerve, along the outer border of the tendons of the flexor sublimis dig

The palmaris longus is the most variable muscle in the body, and is often absent (10

The **flexor carpi ulnaris** muscle has a double **origin**, from the humerus a the ulna. (1) It arises from the common tendon attached to the inner condyl humerus, from the fascia over it, and from an intermuscular septum external By means of the deep fascia of the forearm it obtains an attachment to th border of the olecranon process and the posterior border of the ulna in it three-fifths. The fleshy fibres join a tendon which lies on the anterior borde muscle and is **inserted** into the pisiform bone. From the pisiform bone th are continued in the form of two ligamentous bands (pisi-unciform and pi carpal) to be attached to the upper margin of the hook of the unciform b the palmar surface of the upper end of the fifth metacarpal bone (Fig. 267, p

The muscle is superficially placed along the inner border of the forearm. It lies internal to the palmaris longus and flexor sublimis digitorum, and conceals the flexor profundus digitorum muscle. The ulnar nerve (which enters the forearm between the two heads of origin of the muscle) is concealed by it in its whole length. The ulnar artery lies undercover of the muscle in its lower two-thirds. The tendon of the muscle serves as a guide to the artery in the lower half of the forearm.

The **flexor sublimis digitorum** occupies a deeper plane than the four previous muscles. It has a threefold origin, from the humerus, radius, and ulna. (1) The chief or *humeral* origin is from the internal condyle of the humerus by the common tendon, from the internal lateral ligament of the elbow, and from adjacent inter-muscular septa. (2) The *ulnar* origin is by a slender fasciculus from the inner border of the coronoid process of the ulna, above and internal to the origin of the pronator radii teres (Fig. 264, p. 343). (3) The *radial* origin is from the oblique line and middle third of the anterior border of the radius by a thin fibro-muscular attachment (Fig. 264, p. 343).

The muscle divides in the lower third of the forearm into four parts, each provided with a separate tendon which passes beneath the anterior annular ligament, traverses the palm of the hand, and enters the corresponding digital sheath. Within the digital sheath each tendon is split into two parts by the tendon of the flexor profundus digitorum; after surrounding that tendon the two parts are partially re-united on its deep surface, and are **inserted**, after partial decussation, in two portions into the sides of the second phalanx.

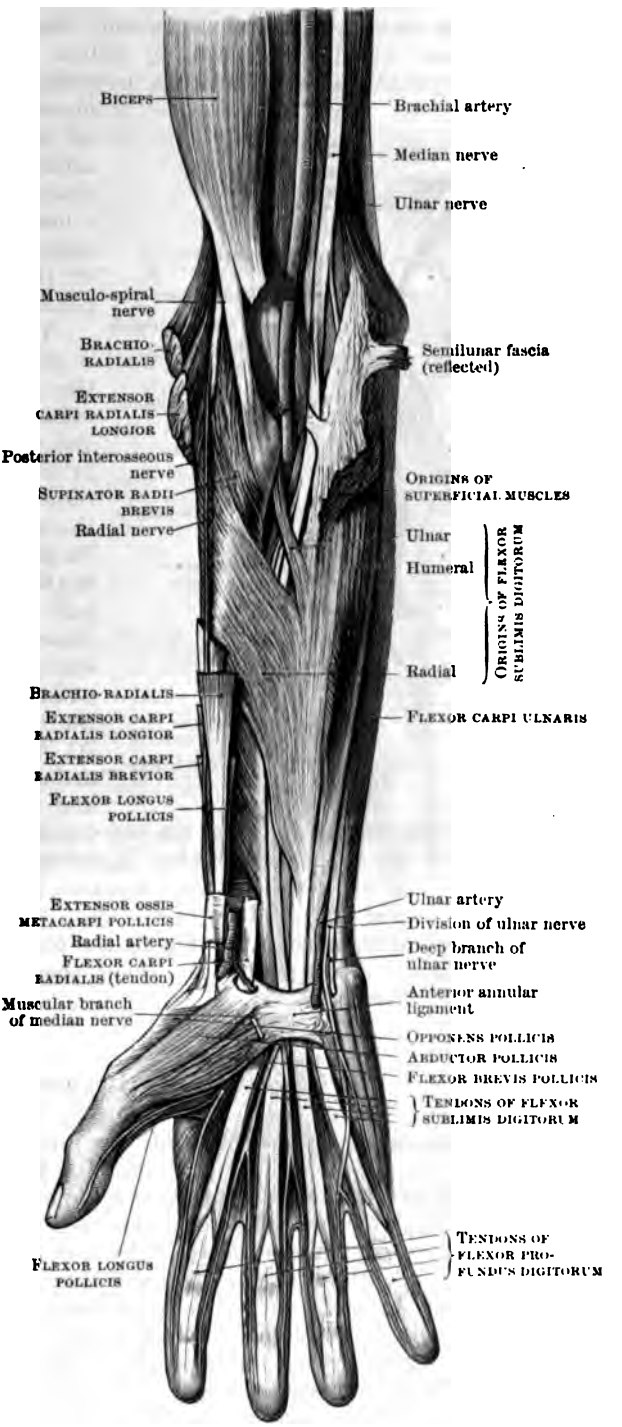


FIG. 262.—THE MUSCLES AND NERVES ON THE FRONT OF THE FOREARM AND HAND.

The pronator radii teres, flexor carpi radialis, and palmaris longus have been removed.

The **vincula accessoria tendinum** form additional insertions of the mu
They consist of delicate bands of connective tissue enveloped in synovial membr
and are known as the **ligamenta longa** and **brevia**. The ligamentum breve i
triangular band of fibres containing yellow elastic tissue (ligamentum
flavum), occupying the interval between the tendon and the digit for a short dista
close to the insertion. It is attach
to the front of the inter-phalang
articulation and the head of the
phalanx. The ligamentum longum
a long narrow band extending from
back of the tendon to the upper p
of the anterior surface of the
phalanx.

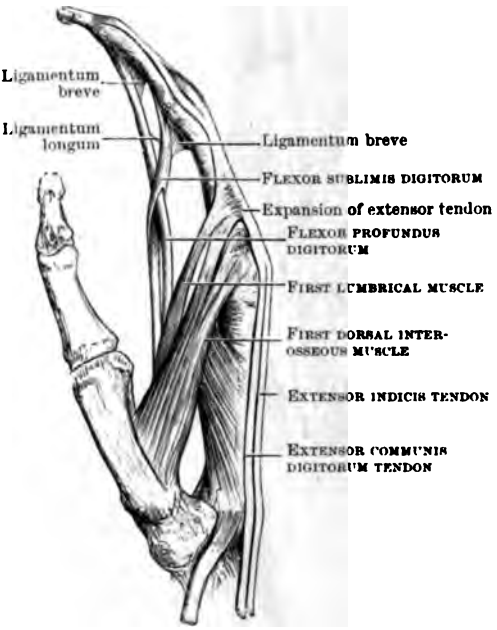


Fig. 263.—The Tendons attached to the Index Finger.

The flexor sublimis digitorum mus
is partially concealed in the forearm b
the pronator radii teres, flexor ca
radialis, and palmaris longus muscle
and by the radial vessels and nerve
It conceals the flexor profundus digi
torum and flexor longus pollicis muscles
the median nerve, and the ulnar artery.
Its inner border is in contact with the
flexor carpi ulnaris, and in the lower
half of the forearm with the ulnar
vessels and nerve. The median nerve
emerges at its outer border above the
wrist, and separates the muscle from
the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis.
At the wrist the four tendons are
arranged in pairs, those for the middle
and ring fingers in front, those for the
fore and little fingers behind, and are enveloped in a synovial sheath (along with
the tendons of the flexor profundus digitorum) beneath the anterior annular
ligament. In the palm the tendons separate, and lying beneath the superficial
palmar arch conceal the tendons of the deep flexor and the lumbrical muscles.
Within the digital sheaths on the fingers the tendons at first conceal those of the
deep flexor; after being pierced by them, they are in turn concealed by these
tendons at their insertion.

Deep Muscles.

The **deep muscles** on the front of the forearm are three in number: flexor profundus digitorum, flexor longus pollicis, and pronator quadratus.

The **flexor profundus digitorum** is a large muscle **arising** from the ulna, the interosseous membrane, and the deep fascia of the forearm. Its ulnar origin is from the anterior and inner surfaces of the bone in its upper two-thirds, extending up so as to include the inner side of the olecranon process, and to embrace the insertion of the brachialis anticus into the coronoid process. It arises externally from the inner half of the interosseous membrane in its middle third (Figs. 264, p. 343, and 271, p. 351), and internally from the deep fascia of the forearm behind the origin of the flexor carpi ulnaris.

The muscle forms a broad thick tendon which passes beneath the anterior annular ligament, and divides in the palm into four tendons for **insertion** into the terminal phalanges of the fingers. The tendon associated with the forefinger is usually separate from the rest of the tendons in its whole length. Each tendon enters a digital sheath beneath the tendon of the flexor sublimis digitorum, which it pierces opposite the first phalanx, and is finally inserted into the base of the terminal phalanx. Like the tendons of the flexor sublimis, those of the deep

ıre provided with vincula accessoria, viz. **ligamenta brevia** attached to the of the second inter-phalangeal articulation, and **ligamenta longa,** which this case connected to the tendons of the subjacent flexor sublimis ım.

nbricales.—Four small cylindrical muscles are associated with the tendons flexor profundus digitorum in the palm of the hand. *The two outermost* **arise** each by a single head from the radial sides of the tendons of the rofundus digitorum destined ıvely for the fore and middle

The two innermost muscles ıch by two heads, from the t sides of the second and nd third and fourth tendons. hese origins the muscles are l downwards to the radial each of the metacarpo-geal joints, to be **inserted** into sules of these articulations, r border of the first phalanx, iefly into the outer side of ensor tendon on the dorsum phalanx. The lumbricales ɔnsiderably in number, and e increased to six or di-ɔd to two.

the forearm the flexor pro- digitorum is concealed by ɔor sublimis digitorum and carpi ulnaris muscles, and ulnar nerve and artery. the anterior annular liga- he muscle is placed beneath ıdons of the flexor sublimis ım, and is enveloped in the n bursal sac. In the palm ıdons, along with the lum- ıuscles, cover the deep palmar nd the interossei muscles, e concealed by the tendons flexor sublimis digitorum. finger each tendon is placed t beneath, and afterwards the tendon of the flexor s digitorum in its passage ı the digital sheath. The ıal muscles passing down- on the radial side of the ɔxor tendons lie beneath the vessels and nerves on their their insertion.

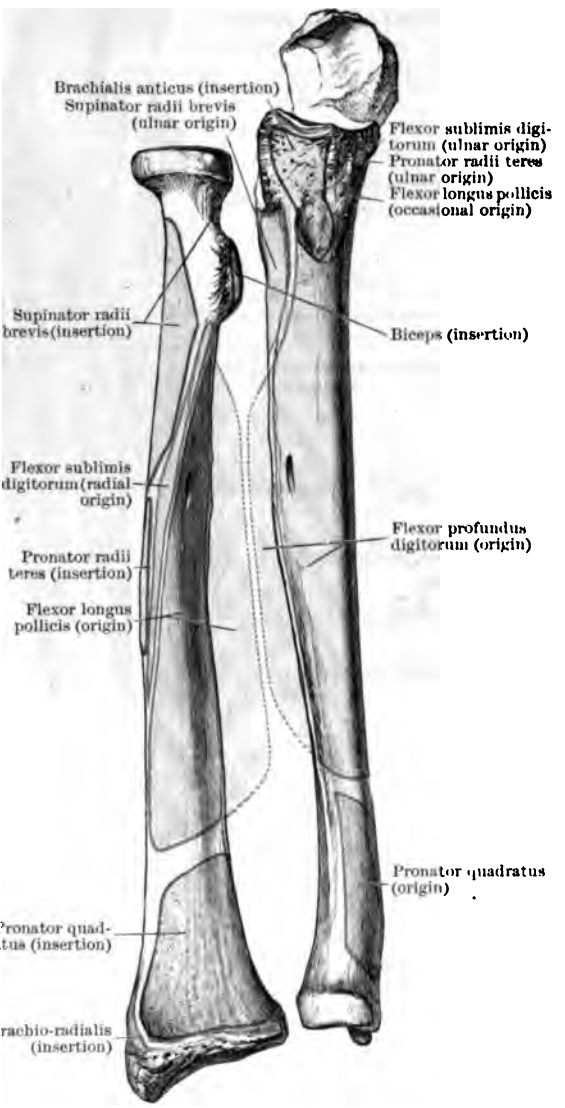


Fig. 264.—Muscle-Attachments to the Radius and Ulna (Anterior Aspects).

flexor longus pollicis arises by fleshy fibres from the anterior surface of ft of the radius in its middle two-fourths, and from a corresponding portion nterosseous membrane. It has an additional origin occasionally from the ɔrder of the coronoid process of the ulna (Fig. 264, p. 343). Its radial is limited above by the oblique line and the origin of the flexor sublimis ım, and below by the insertion of the pronator quadratus muscle. The ends above the wrist in a tendon, which passes into the hand beneath the r annular ligament, enveloped in a special synovial sheath. In front of the it crosses over the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis. In the palm the

tendon is directed downwards along the inner side of the thenar eminence, be
the flexor brevis and add
muscles of the thum
be **inserted** into the b
the terminal phalan
the thumb on its an
surface.

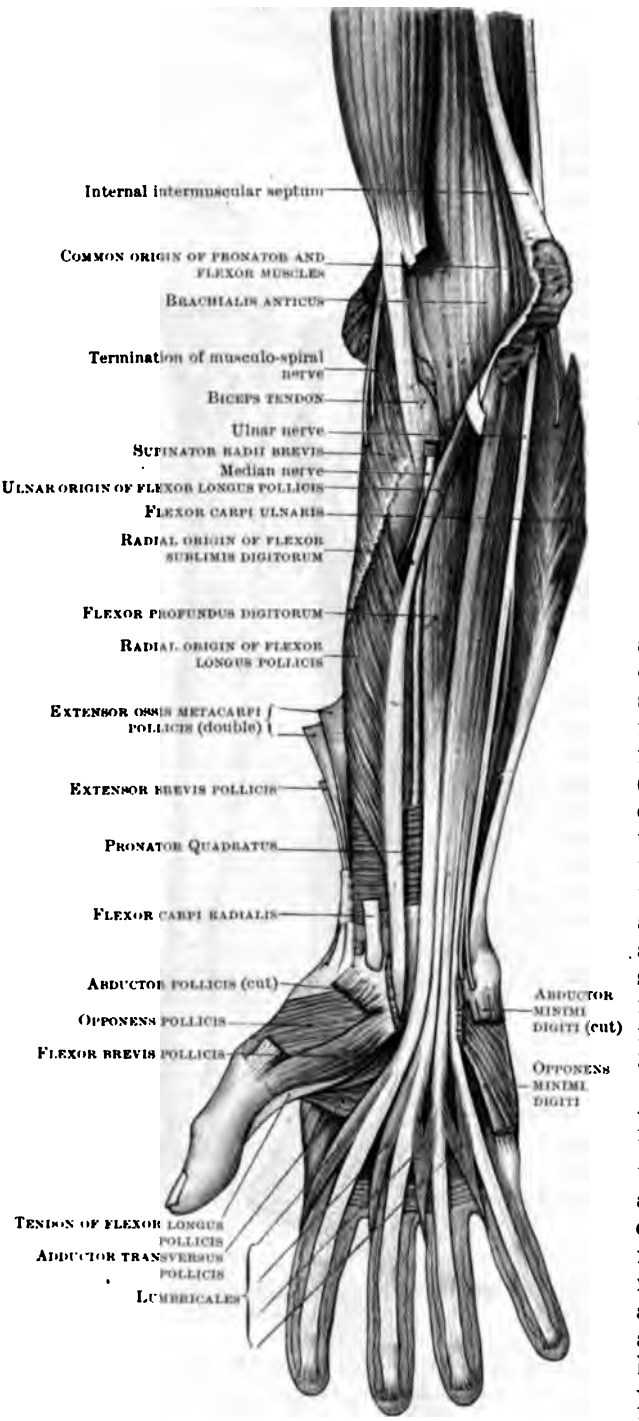


Fig. 265.—Deep Muscles on the Front of the Forearm and Hand.

In the forearm then
is deeply placed be
the flexor sublimis
orum and flexor carpi ra
muscles. The radial a
lies upon it, and the
terior interosseous arter
nerve intervene betwe
and the flexor profu
digitorum. It crosses
the insertion of the
nator quadratus near
wrist.

The **pronator quadr**
is a quadrilateral
muscle, occupying the
fourth of the forearm
arises from the lower f
of the anterior border
surface of the ulna
frequently from the ad
ing part of the inner su
(Fig. 271, p. 351), ar
directed transversely
wards to be **inserted**
the lower fourth of the
terior surface of the ra
and into the narrow
angular area on its i
side in front of the at
ment of the interos
membrane (Fig. 264,
343).

The muscle is d
placed beneath the
tendons, the radial
ulnar arteries, and the
and median nerves. It
ceals the lower part o
interosseous membrane
radius and ulna, and
anterior interosseous a
and nerve, which pass
hind its upper border.
pronator quadratus is
ject to considerable v
tions. It may even be ab
or it may have an o
from radius or ulna, or from both bones, and an insertion into the carpus.

SHORT MUSCLES OF THE HAND.

Muscles of the Thumb.

The short muscles of the thumb are six in number, abductor, opponens, and flexor brevis (with its deep portion, **interosseus primus volaris**), and two adductor muscles, adductor obliquus, and adductor transversus pollicis.

The **abductor pollicis** (m. abductor pollicis brevis) **arises** by fleshy fibres from the tubercle of the scaphoid, the upper part of the outer surface of the ridge of the trapezium, the upper part of the anterior surface of the anterior annular ligament and its outer end, and from tendinous slips derived from the insertions of the palmaris

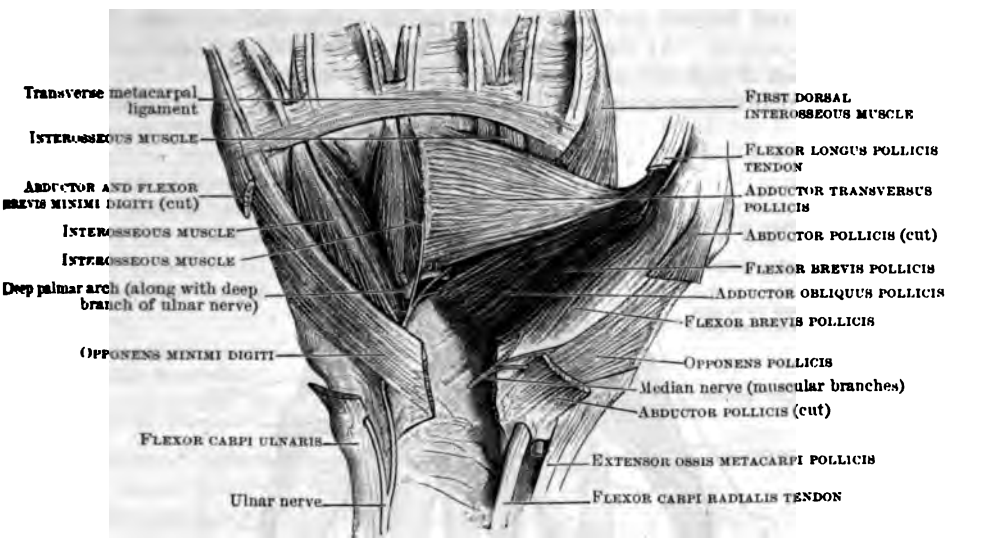


Fig. 266.—Short Muscles of the Hand.

longus and extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis muscles (Fig. 267, p. 346). Strap-like in form, it is **inserted** by a short tendon into the outer side of the first phalanx of the thumb at its upper end, and into the capsule of the metacarpo-phalangeal joint.

It is the most superficial muscle of the thenar eminence, and conceals partially the opponens and the superficial portion of the flexor brevis pollicis.

The **opponens pollicis arises** beneath the preceding muscle by fleshy and tendinous fibres from the lower and outer part of the anterior surface of the anterior annular ligament and from the outer surface of the ridge on the trapezium. Extending downwards and outwards, it is **inserted** into the whole length of the outer border and the radial half of the palmar surface of the first metacarpal bone (Fig. 267, p. 346). The muscle is superficial along the outer border of the abductor pollicis.

The **flexor brevis pollicis** consists of two parts. *a. The superficial part of the muscle* **arises** by fleshy and tendinous fibres from the outer half or two-thirds of the lower border of the anterior annular ligament, and sometimes from the ridge of the trapezium, and is **inserted** into the outer side of the base of the first phalanx of the thumb, a sesamoid bone being present in the tendon of insertion. This part of the muscle, partly concealed by the abductor pollicis, is superficial in the interval between that muscle and the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis.

b. The deep part of the muscle (interosseus primus volaris) **arises** from the ulnar side of the base of the first metacarpal bone, and is **inserted** into the inner side of the base of the first phalanx of the thumb along with the adductor obliquus pollicis. This little muscle is deeply situated in the first interosseous space, in the interval between the adductor obliquus pollicis and the first dorsal interosseous muscle. It may be regarded as homologous with the palmar interossei muscles, with which it is in series.

The **adductor obliquus pollicis arises** by fleshy fibres from the anterior surf of the trapezium, trapezoid, and os magnum, from the sheath of the tendon of flexor carpi radialis, from the basis of the second, third, and fourth metacarpal bo and from the palmar ligaments connecting these bones together (Fig. 267, p. 3 It is **inserted** by a tendon, in which a sesamoid bone is developed, into the in side of the base of the first phalanx of the thumb. At its outer border a slen slip separates from the rest of the muscle, and passing obliquely beneath the ten of the flexor longus pollicis, is inserted into the outer side of the base of the f phalanx along with the superficial part of the flexor brevis pollicis.

The adductor obliquus pollicis lies on the ulnar side of the tendon of the fle longus pollicis, internal to the thenar eminence. It is covered by the flexor tend of the thumb and fingers, and conceals the radial artery and the deep part of t flexor brevis pollicis. At its inner border the radial artery (deep palmar arc appears between it and the adductor transversus pollicis.

The **adductor transversus pollicis arises** by fleshy fibres from the median rid

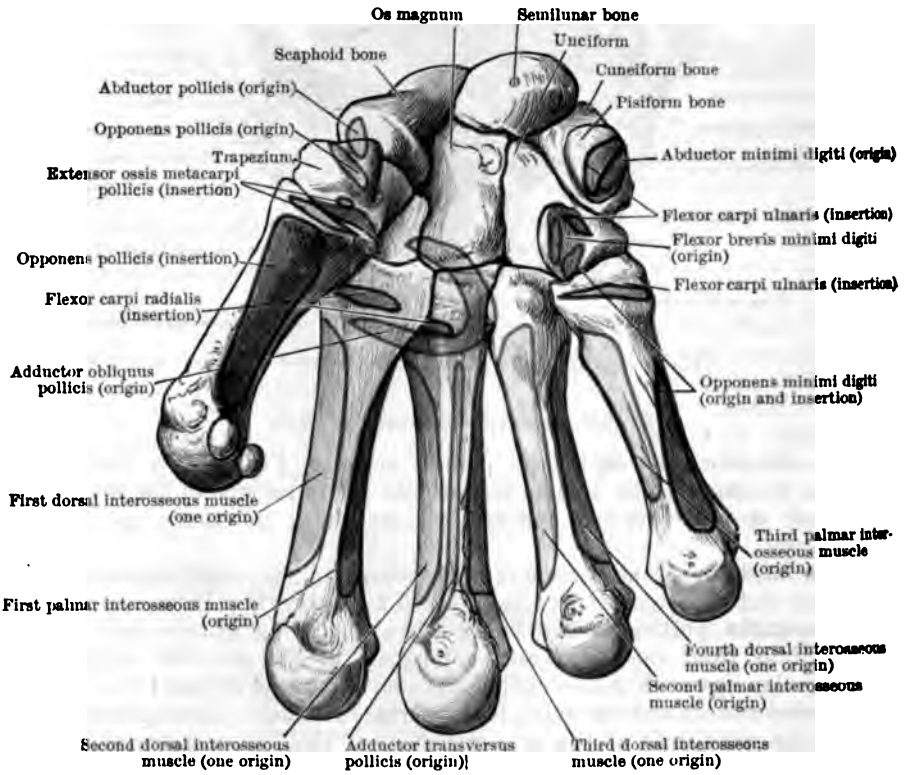


FIG. 267.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE PALMAR ASPECT OF THE CARPUS AND METACARPUS.

on the front of the shaft of the third metacarpal bone, in its lower two-thi (Fig. 267, p. 346), and from the fascia covering the interosseous muscles in t second and third spaces. Triangular in form, it is directed outwards, to **inserted** by tendon into the inner side of the base of the first phalanx of thumb along with the adductor obliquus. Lying deeply in the palm beneath flexor tendons, this muscle conceals the interossei muscles of the first two spa and the radialis indicis and princeps pollicis arteries. Its upper border separated from the adductor obliquus pollicis by the radial artery (d palmar arch).

MUSCLES OF THE LITTLE FINGER.

The short muscles of the little finger are three in number: **abductor, oppone** and flexor brevis minimi digiti.

ductor minimi digiti (m. abductor digiti quinti) **arises** from the front
ıide of the pisiform bone and from the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris
mentous continuations (Fig. 267, p. 346), and is **inserted** by tendon into
side of the base of the first phalanx of the little finger. It lies
y upon the opponens and flexor brevis minimi digiti.

ponens minimi digiti (m. opponens digiti quinti) **arises** by tendinous
the lower part of the anterior surface and from the lower border of the
nular ligament at its inner end, and from the lower border and inner side
)k of the unciform bone, and is **inserted** into the inner margin and
of the palmar surface of the fifth metacarpal bone in its lower
hs (Fig. 267, p. 346).

ncealed by the previous muscle, and may be pierced near its origin for
of the deep branches of the ulnar artery and nerve.

xor brevis minimi digiti (m. flexor digiti quinti brevis) **arises** by
fibres from the inner part of the anterior surface of the anterior annular
nd from the inner side of the hook of the unciform bone (Fig. 267,
d is **inserted** along with the abductor into the inner side of the first
the little finger.

uscle is placed external to the opponens and abductor, and is separated
tter by the deep branches of the ulnar artery and nerve. It may be
size, absent altogether, or incorporated with either the opponens or
inimi digiti.

The Interosseous Muscles.

terosseous muscles of the hand are arranged in two sets, palmar and

lmar interossei (m. interossei volares) are three in number, occupying
inner interosseous spaces.
s by a single head; the
he ulnar side of the shaft
nd metacarpal bone; the
l *third* from the radial
e shafts of the fourth and
arpal bones respectively
p. 346). Each ends in a
ich is directed downwards
e deep transverse meta-
ment, to be **inserted** into
expansion of the extensor
e capsule of the meta-
langeal articulation, and
the first phalanx of the
first is **inserted** into the
of the second finger; the
third into the radial sides
th and fifth fingers. The
of the flexor brevis
terosseus primus volaris)
garded as the homologous
the first interosseous

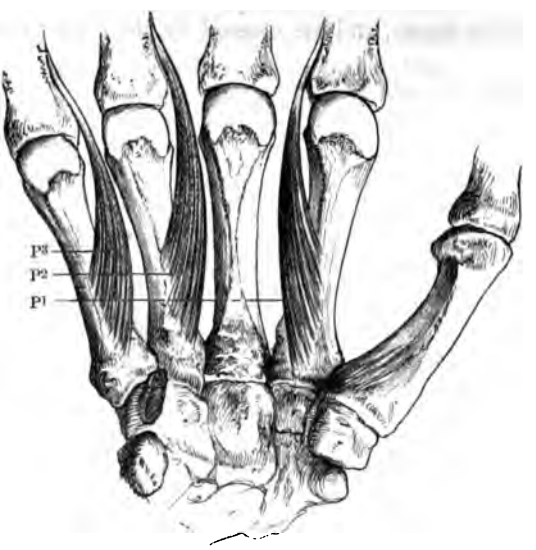


Fig. 268.—The Palmar Interosseous Muscles.
P^1, first; P^2, second; and P^3, third palmar interosseous muscles.

rsal interossei are four in number. Each **arises** by two heads from the
e metacarpal bones bounding each interosseous space (Figs. 267, p. 346,
. 348). Each forms a fleshy mass, ending in a membranous tendon,
sing downwards behind the deep transverse metacarpal ligament, is
actly like the palmar muscles into the dorsal aspect of each of the four
he insertion of the *first* dorsal interosseous muscle is into the radial
index finger; the *second* muscle is attached to the radial side of the

middle finger; the *third* muscle to the ulnar side of the same finger; and the *four* muscle to the ulnar side of the ring finger.

These muscles fill up the interosseous spaces; the dorsal interossei are visil

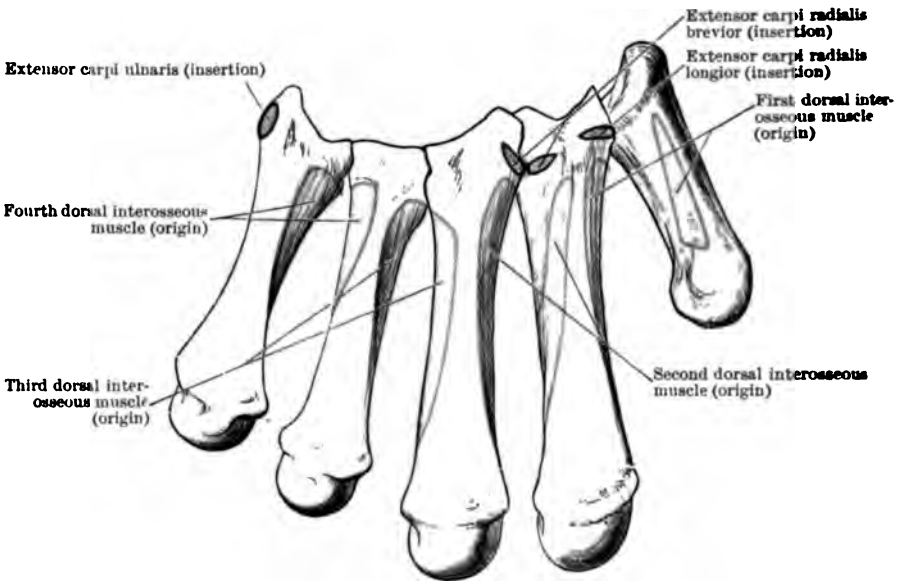

Extensor carpi radialis brevior (insertion)
Extensor carpi radialis longior (insertion)
Extensor carpi ulnaris (insertion)
First dorsal interosseous muscle (origin)
Fourth dorsal interosseous muscle (origin)
Second dorsal interosseous muscle (origin)
Third dorsal interosseous muscle (origin)

FIG. 269.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE DORSAL ASPECT OF THE METACARPUS.

on the back of the hand when the extensor tendons are removed; in the palm t muscles are concealed by the flexor tendons and the muscles of the thumb a little finger, and are crossed by the deep palmar arch and the deep branch of t

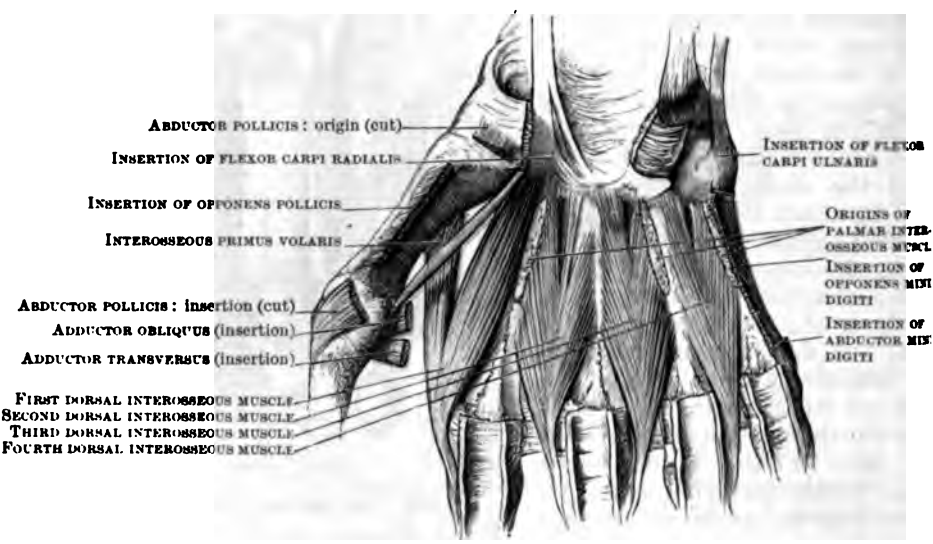

ABDUCTOR POLLICIS: origin (cut)
INSERTION OF FLEXOR CARPI RADIALIS
INSERTION OF OPPONENS POLLICIS
INTEROSSEOUS PRIMUS VOLARIS
ABDUCTOR POLLICIS: insertion (cut)
ADDUCTOR OBLIQUUS (insertion)
ADDUCTOR TRANSVERSUS (insertion)
FIRST DORSAL INTEROSSEOUS MUSCLE
SECOND DORSAL INTEROSSEOUS MUSCLE
THIRD DORSAL INTEROSSEOUS MUSCLE
FOURTH DORSAL INTEROSSEOUS MUSCLE
INSERTION OF FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS
ORIGINS OF PALMAR INTEROSSEOUS MUSCL
INSERTION OF OPPONENS MIN DIGITI
INSERTION OF ABDUCTOR MIN DIGITI

FIG. 270.—DORSAL INTEROSSEOUS MUSCLES OF THE HAND (seen from the Palmar Aspect).

ulnar nerve. Between the two heads of the first dorsal muscle the radial art enters the palm, and the perforating arteries pass between the heads of the ot dorsal muscles.

The interossei muscles of the hand in some cases have a disposition simila that of the corresponding muscles of the foot.

THE MUSCLES ON THE BACK OF THE FOREARM.

The group of muscles occupying the outer side of the elbow and the back of the forearm and hand include the supinator muscles of the forearm and the extensors of the wrist and digits. They are divisible into a **superficial** and a **deep layer.**

Superficial Muscles.

The **superficial layer** comprises seven muscles, viz. from without inwards, the brachio-radialis, the two radial extensors of the carpus, the extensor communis digitorum and extensor minimi digiti, the extensor capri ulnaris, and the anconeus.

The **brachio-radialis** (supinator radii longus) **arises** by fleshy fibres from the anterior aspect of the upper two-thirds of the external supra condyloid ridge of the humerus, and from the front of the external intermuscular septum (Fig. 257, p. 335). Occupying the outer side of the hollow of the elbow, the muscle descends along the outer border of the forearm, and ends about the middle in a narrow flat tendon which is **inserted** under cover of the tendons of the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis and extensor brevis pollicis, by a transverse linear attachment, into the upper limit of the groove for the above-named muscles on the outer side of the lower extremity of the radius. Some of its fibres gain an attachment to the ridge in front of the groove, and others spread over the surface of the groove for a variable distance (Figs. 271, p. 351, and 264, p. 343).

The muscle is superficial in its whole length. Near its origin it is separated from the brachialis anticus by the musculo-spiral nerve. It forms the outer boundary of the hollow of the elbow, and conceals the radial extensors of the carpus, and, in the upper two-thirds of the forearm, the radial artery and nerve.

The **extensor carpi radialis longior** (m. ext. carp. rad. longus) **arises** by fleshy fibres from the lower third of the external supracondyloid ridge of the humerus on its anterior aspect, from the front of the external intermuscular septum, and from the common tendon of origin of succeeding muscles, which is attached to an impression on the antero-external surface of the external condyle (Figs. 257, and 258, p. 335). It ends in a tendon in the lower half of the forearm, which passes beneath the posterior annular ligament, to be **inserted** into the back of the base of the second metacarpal bone on its radial side (Fig. 269, p. 348).

The upper part of the muscle is concealed by the brachio-radialis, and the lower part is crossed by the extensors of the thumb. It covers the supinator radii brevis and extensor carpi radialis brevior above, and the back of the radius and the carpus below.

The **extensor carpi radialis brevior** (m. ext. carp. rad. brevis) **arises** from the common tendon, from the external lateral ligament of the elbow, from the fascia over it, and from intermuscular septa on each side. It passes down the back of the forearm and under the posterior annular ligament in close relation to the previous muscle, to be **inserted** by a tendon into the back of the base of the third metacarpal bone below the styloid process on its radial side. It usually has an additional insertion into the back of the base of the second metacarpal bone (Fig. 269, p. 348). A bursa is placed beneath the two radial extensor tendons close to their insertion.

Partially concealed by the extensor carpi radialis longior and the extensor muscles of the thumb, and having the extensor communis digitorum on its inner side, the muscle covers the supinator brevis, the lower part of the radius, and the back of the carpus.

The **extensor communis digitorum arises** from the common tendon, from the external condyle, from the fascia over it, and from intermuscular septa on each side. Extending down the back of the forearm it ends above the wrist in four tendons, of which the outermost often has a separate fleshy belly. After passing beneath the posterior annular ligament in a compartment along with the extensor indicis, the tendons separate on the back of the hand, where the three innermost tendons are joined together by two obliquely-placed bands. One passes downwards and outwards, and connects together the third and second tendons; the other is a broader

and shorter band, which passes also downwards and outwards, and joins the fo to the third tendon. In some cases (Fig. 257) a third band is present, which pa downwards and inwards from the first to the second tendon; and frequently tendon for the little finger is joined to the tendon for the ring finger, and separ from it only a short distance above the lower end of the metacarpal bone.

The tendons are **inserted** in the following manner: On the finger each ten spreads out so as to form a membranous expansion over the knuckle and on back of the first phalanx. The border of the tendon is indefinite over the me carpo-phalangeal articulation, of which it forms the posterior ligament. On back of the first phalanx the tendon receives laterally the insertions of the intero and lumbrical muscles. At the lower end of the first phalanx the tendon sp into ill-defined median and lateral slips, proceeding over the back of the f inter-phalangeal articulation, of which they form the posterior ligament. T median slip is inserted into the back of the base of the second phalanx, while t two lateral pieces become united to form a membranous tendon on the back the second phalanx, which, after passing over the second inter-phalangeal articul tion, is inserted into the base of the terminal phalanx.

The extensor communis digitorum is superficial in its whole length, and lies the upper part of the forearm between the radial extensors of the carpus external and the extensor minimi digiti internally. It conceals the supinator brevis a other deep muscles of the forearm, as well as the posterior interosseous vessels a nerves. The extensors of the thumb become superficial along its outer border the lower third of the forearm.

The **extensor minimi digiti** (m. extensor digiti quinti proprius) has an ori similar to and closely connected with that of the preceding muscle, from t common tendon, the fascia over it, and lateral intermuscular septa. Passing do the back of the forearm as a narrow fleshy slip, between the extensor commu digitorum and the extensor carpi ulnaris, it ends in a tendon which occupies groove between the radius and ulna in a special compartment of the poster annular ligament. On the back of the hand the tendon, usually split into two pa lies internal to the tendons of the extensor communis digitorum, and is fina **inserted** into the expansion of the extensor tendon on the dorsum of the fi phalanx of the little finger.

The **extensor carpi ulnaris** has a double **origin**: (1) from the common tend from the external condyle of the humerus, from the fascia over it, and from t intermuscular septa; and (2) through the medium of the deep fascia, from t posterior border of the ulna in its middle two-fourths. The muscle ends in tendon in the lower third of the forearm, which occupies a groove on the back the ulna in a special compartment of the posterior annular ligament, and is inser into the ulnar side of the base of the fifth metacarpal bone (Fig. 269, p. 348).

The muscle is superficially placed between the extensor minimi digiti and anconeus, external to the posterior border of the ulna. It conceals the supina radii brevis and the posterior interosseous vessels and nerve above, and in the lo two-thirds of the forearm it lies upon the posterior surface of the ulna.

The **anconeus** is a small triangular muscle **arising** by a separate tendon fi the lower part of the back of the external condyle of the humerus (Fig. 2 p. 335), and from the posterior ligament of the elbow-joint. Spreading out c the ulna, it is **inserted** by fleshy fibres into a triangular surface on the outer s of the olecranon process and back of the ulna, as low down as the oblique (Fig. 271, p. 351). It is also inserted into the fascia which covers it.

It is covered by the thickened fascia of the forearm giving insertion to triceps muscle. It conceals the back of the elbow-joint and part of the origi the supinator brevis muscle.

The **epitrochleo-anconeus** is an occasional small muscle **arising** from the back of the inte condyle of the humerus, and **inserted** into the inner side of the olecranon process. It covers ulnar nerve in its passage to the forearm.

Deep Muscles.

The **deep muscles** on the back of the forearm comprise five muscles, of wh

inator radii brevis, extends between the ulna and radius; the others s of the thumb and forefinger: the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis, vis and extensor longus pollicis, and extensor indicis.

inator radii brevis (m. supinator) muscle has a complex **origin.** It hy and tendinous fibres: (1) from the external condyle of the humerus; external lateral and orbicular ligaments of the elbow-joint; (3) from ar surface on the shaft of the ulna just below the lesser sigmoid cavity; a the fascia over this origin the ads outwards and enveloping the of the radius, and into the anterior rfaces of the bone, ds as the bicipital far upwards as nd as far down- oblique line and a of the pronator The insertion of n some cases en- r a variable dis- o the posterior he shaft of the the origin of the is metacarpi pol- he neck and the of the posterior he shaft are left cular attachment p. 351, and 264,

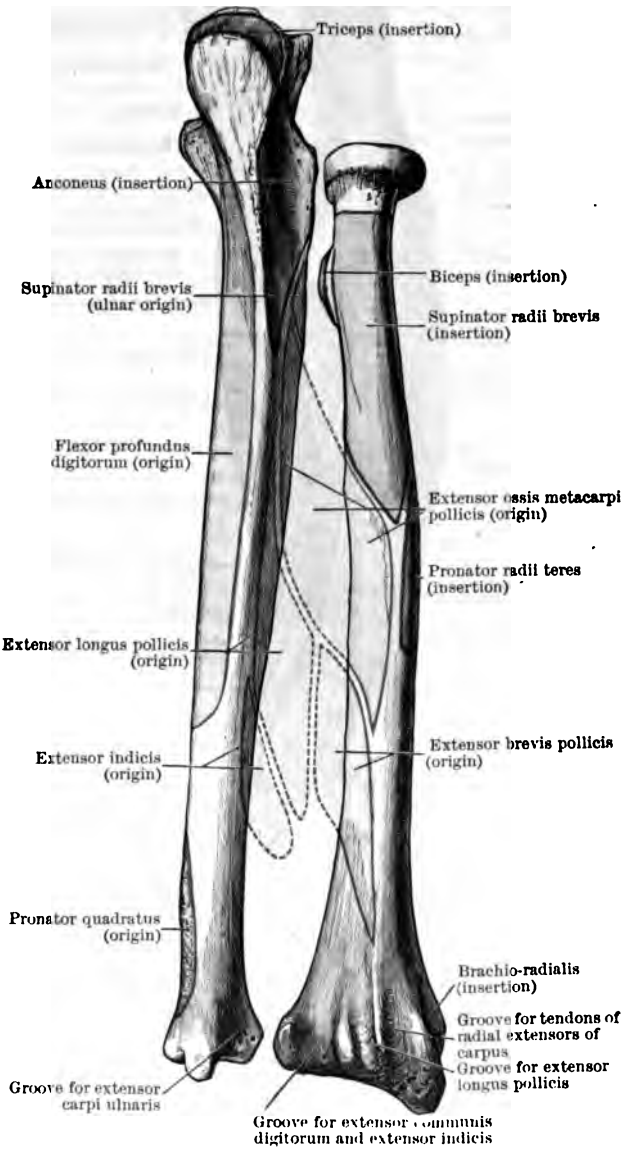

Triceps (insertion)
Anconeus (insertion)
Supinator radii brevis (ulnar origin)
Biceps (insertion)
Supinator radii brevis (insertion)
Flexor profundus digitorum (origin)
Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis (origin)
Pronator radii teres (insertion)
Extensor longus pollicis (origin)
Extensor indicis (origin)
Extensor brevis pollicis (origin)
Pronator quadratus (origin)
Brachio-radialis (insertion)
Groove for tendons of radial extensors of carpus
Groove for extensor longus pollicis
Groove for extensor carpi ulnaris
Groove for extensor communis digitorum and extensor indicis

FIG. 271.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE RADIUS AND ULNA (Posterior Aspects).

inator brevis is ed, and is un- y anteriorly in f the elbow. It y all the super- s on the back of It conceals the elbow-joint and art of the radius. r border is the is metacarpi pol- ed from it by the terosseous artery. is divisible into and *deep parts* ral and ulnar ween which the terosseous nerve s course to the forearm.

nsor ossis metacarpi pollicis (m. abductor pollicis longus) **arises** by below the supinator brevis from the posterior or extensor surfaces of the radius and ulna; from the uppermost of the narrow impressions on alf of the posterior surface of the ulna; from the middle third of r surface of the radius; and from the intervening portion of the membrane (Fig. 271, p. 351). Becoming superficial in the lower part rm along with the extensor brevis pollicis, its tendon passes with that

muscle beneath the posterior annular ligament, to be **inserted** into the outer
the base of the first metacarpal bone (Fig. 267, p. 346). From the tendon
its insertion a ter
slip passes to t
ductor pollicis ar
fascia over the
eminence, and ano
frequently attach
the trapezium.

At its origi
muscle is deeply
beneath the sup
extensor muscles a
posterior inte
ous vessels and
Above is the su
brevis; below and
nally, the long an
extensors of the
In the lower third
forearm it becomes
ficial along with t
tensor brevis po
between the ex
communis digitoru
the radial extens
the carpus. It cov
last-named muscle
further course in th
arm, and at the
side of the carp
crosses the radial a

The **extensor**
pollicis (extensor
internodii pollicis
essentially human
is a specialised port
the previous muscl
arises from a rhc
impression on the
terior surface o
radius, extending
the middle of the
to within an inch
half of the lowe
and from the interc
membrane, below t
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pollicis (Fig. 271
351). It is close
herent to that
and accompanies
neath the pos
annular ligament
over the radial ar
the thumb. Its te

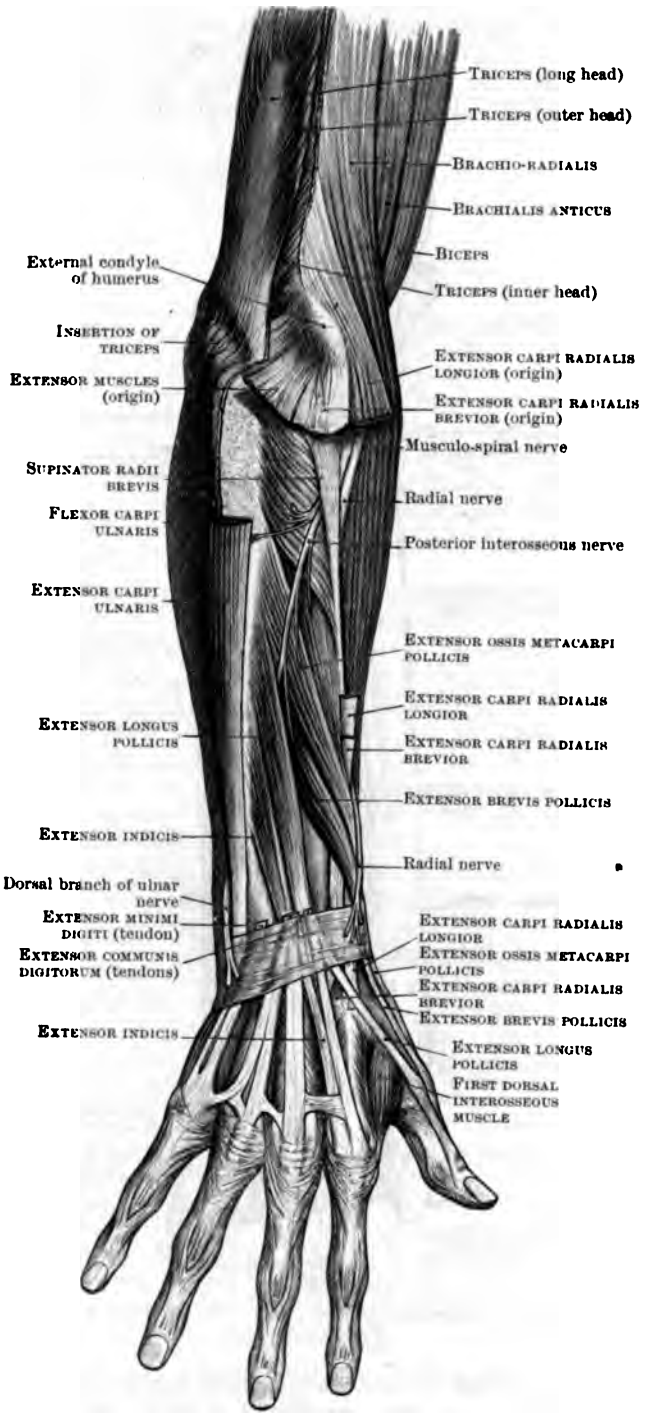


Fig. 272.—The Muscles of the Back of the Forearm (the superficial muscles being reflected).

then continued along the back of the first metacarpal bone, and the meta
phalangeal articulation, to be **inserted** into the back of the base of the first p
of the thumb. Before reaching its insertion the tendon helps to form the c

the metacarpo-phalangeal joint. In the forearm the muscle is deeply placed ıeath the superficial extensors, and is separated from the extensor longus pollicis the posterior interosseous nerve.

The extensor longus pollicis (extensor secundi internodii pollicis) **arises** from ı intermediate impression occupying the outer part of the posterior or extensor :face of the ulna in its middle third, and from the interosseous membrane, below ı extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis (Fig. 271, p. 351). Its tendon grooves the :k of the radius, and occupies a special compartment beneath the posterior nular ligament. Extending obliquely across the back of the hand, it is **inserted** o the dorsal surface of the base of the second phalanx of the thumb.

The muscle is deeply placed beneath the superficial extensors of the forearm, l lies between the extensor brevis pollicis and the extensor indicis. It separates ı posterior interosseous artery from the nerve, the latter passing beneath it. On ı back of the hand the tendon crosses the radial artery, and helps to form the ısule of the first metacarpo-phalangeal articulation.

At the wrist the tendons of the muscles of the thumb, the extensor ossis meta-pi pollicis and extensor brevis pollicis externally, and the extensor longus llicis internally, bound a hollow (the "anatomical snuff-box") best seen in tension and abduction of the thumb, which corresponds to the position of the lial artery as it winds round the wrist to reach the palm of the hand.

The extensor indicis (m. extensor indicis proprius) **arises** by fleshy fibres below ı extensor longus pollicis from the lowest impression on the back of the ulna, tending down from the middle of the shaft to within two inches of its lower end, l sometimes also from the interosseous membrane (Fig. 271, p. 351). Its tendon ses through a compartment of the posterior annular ligament along with the ıdons of the extensor communis digitorum, and is **inserted** into the forefinger ning the membranous expansion of the tendon of the extensor communis gitorum on the dorsum of the first phalanx.

Lying deeply in the forearm, the muscle is placed internal to the extensor ıgus pollicis, and covers the posterior interosseous nerve. On the back of the nd its tendon lies on the inner side of the tendon of the common extensor stined for the forefinger.

NERVE-SUPPLY.

Four nerves are engaged in supplying the muscles of the forearm and hand—the median and ıar on the front, the musculo-spiral and posterior interosseous nerves on the back of the ıh.

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
A. **Anterior Muscles of the Forearm.**		
Pronator radii teres, Flexor carpi radialis, Palmaris longus, Flexor sublimis digitorum	Median	C. 6.
Flexor carpi ulnaris	Ulnar	C. 8. T. 1.
Flexor profundus digitorum	Ulnar and Anterior interosseous (median)	C. 8. T. 1. C. 7. 8. T. 1.
Flexor longus pollicus, Pronator quadratus	Anterior interosseous	C. 7. 8. T. 1.
B. **Muscles of the Hand.**		
Abductor pollicis, Opponens pollicis, Flexor brevis pollicis (superficial)	Median	C. 6. 7.
Flexor brevis pollicis (deep), Adductor obliquus pollicis, Adductor transversus pollicis	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).
Lumbricales 1st and 2nd	Median	C. 6. 7.
Lumbricales 3rd and 4th, Interossei, Flexor brevis minimi digiti, Opponens minimi digiti, Abductor minimi digiti	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
C. **Posterior Muscles of the Forearm.**		
Brachio-radialis	Musculo-spiral	C. 5. 6.
Extensor carpi radialis longior	Musculo-spiral	C. 6. 7.
Extensor carpi radialis brevior	Posterior interosseous (musculo-spiral)	C. 6. 7.
Extensor communis digitorum	Posterior interosseous (musculo-spiral)	C. 6. 7. 8.
Extensor minimi digiti	Posterior interosseous (musculo-spiral)	C. 6. 7. 8.
Extensor carpi ulnaris	Posterior interosseous (musculo-spiral)	C. 6. 7. 8.
Anconeus	Musculo-spiral	C. 7. 8.
Supinator radii brevis	Posterior interosseous	C. 6.
Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis	Posterior interosseous	C. 6. 7. 8.
Extensor brevis pollicis	Posterior interosseous	C. 6. 7. 8.
Extensor longus pollicis	Posterior interosseous	C. 6. 7. 8.
Extensor indicis	Posterior interosseous	C. 6. 7. 8.

Action of the Muscles of the Forearm and Hand.

The muscles of the forearm and hand are concerned in the movements of the elbow, wrist, fingers.

In the majority of cases the muscles act upon more than one joint.

1. Action on the Elbow-Joint.—It has been shown already that flexion and extens of the elbow are assisted by certain of these muscles. The **flexor muscles** are the pron radii teres, and the flexor muscles of the wrist and fingers. In the position of pronation, movement of flexion is aided by the brachio-radialis and extensors of the wrist and fingers. T **extensors** are the supinator brevis and anconeus, and the extensor muscles of the wrist and fing

2. Pronation and supination of the hand are performed by special muscles, aided by mus which act also upon other joints. The brachio-radialis assists in flexion and pronation on the hand, and in extension and supination on the other hand. In the supine position it assi pronation, and in the prone position it assists supination, in each case bringing the hand i the position intermediate between pronation and supination.

Pronation.	Supination.
Pronator radii teres	Supinator radii brevis
Pronator quadratus	Biceps
Brachio-radialis	Brachio-radialis
Flexor carpi radialis	Extensors of thumb and fingers
Weight of the limb	Weight of the limb

3. Action on the Wrist-Joint.—The movements at the wrist-joint are flexion and extensio abduction and adduction. Flexion and adduction are much more extensive movements th extension and abduction, on account of the form of the wrist-joint. The following muscles pr duce these movements:—

Flexion.	Extension.	Adduction.	Abduction.
Flexor carpi radialis	Extensors of the wrist	Flexor carpi ulnaris	Flexor carpi radialis
Palmaris longus	Extensors of thumb and fingers	Extensor carpi ulnaris	Extensors of wrist
Flexor carpi ulnaris			Extensors of thumb
Long flexors of thumb and fingers			

4. Movements of the Fingers.—Two separate series of movements occur in relation to t articulations of the fingers: flexion and extension (at the metacarpo-phalangeal and int phalangeal joints), and abduction and adduction (only at the metacarpo-phalangeal joints). T movements and the muscles concerned are given in the following tables:—

Flexion.	Extension.
Flexor sublimis digitorum	Extensor communis digitorum
Flexor profundus digitorum	Extensor indicis
Lumbricales (*acting on the metacarpo-*)	Extensor minimi digiti
Interossei (*phalangeal articulations*)	Lumbricales (*acting on the inter-phal-*)
Flexor brevis minimi digiti	Interossei (*angeal articulations*)

Abduction.	Adduction.
Lumbricales Flexor brevis and Opponens minimi digiti (from the inner side of the hand)	
Dorsal interossei (from the middle line of the middle finger)	Palmar interossei (to the middle line of the middle finger)

Flexion is more powerful and complete than extension of the fingers. The flexor profundus gitorum alone acts on the terminal phalanges; the flexor sublimis and flexor profundus together ex the proximal inter-phalangeal joint; and flexion of the metacarpo-phalangeal articulation is fected by these muscles, assisted by the interossei, lumbricales, and flexor brevis minimi digiti. xtension of the phalanges is effected by the united action of the extensors of the digits, the terossei and lumbricales; extension of the fingers at the metacarpo-phalangeal joints is produced ely by the long extensor muscles. *Separate extension of the index finger* only is possible; the ree inner fingers can only be flexed and extended together, on account of the connecting bands ining the extensor tendons together on the back of the hand.

5. **Movements of the Thumb.**—The movements of which the thumb is capable are flexion d extension (occurring at the carpo-metacarpal, metacarpo-phalangeal, and inter-phalangeal ints); abduction and adduction, together with circumduction (occurring at the carpo-metacarpal int).

The muscles and their respective actions are given in the following table:—

Flexion.	Extension.
Opponens pollicis (carpo-metacarpal joint)	Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis (carpo-metacarpal joint)
Flexor brevis Adductors Abductor (carpo-metacarpal and metacarpo-phalangeal joint)	Extensor brevis pollicis (carpo-metacarpal and metacarpo-phalangeal joint)
Flexor longus pollicis (all joints)	Extensor longus pollicis (all joints)

Adduction.	Abduction.
Adductors of the thumb Flexor brevis Opponens pollicis First dorsal interosseous	Abductor pollicis Extensors of the thumb

Circumduction—a combination of the above muscles.

The characteristic features of the movements of the upper limb are their range and finement. The hand, in addition to its intrinsic powers, can be moved through a ide range and in several planes by the muscles acting on the wrist and radio-ulnar ints; this range is increased by the fore and aft movements at the elbow-joint, and the tensive movements of which the shoulder and clavicular joints are capable. The sult is that the hand can be brought into a position to cover and guard any portion the body. The precision and refinement of movement is made possible by the co-dinate movements of the various muscles acting upon the several joints, so that tions can be performed (as raising the food to the mouth) in which all the articulations of e limb are brought into play; while others (such as writing) are possible by movements the joints of the wrist and fingers along with fixation of the elbow-joint.

THE LOWER LIMB.

FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE THIGH AND BUTTOCK.

FASCIÆ.

The **superficial fascia** of the thigh and buttock is continuous above with the cia of the abdomen and back, internally with that of the perineum, and below h that of the leg. It presents noticeable features in the buttock and groin.

In the buttock the superficial fascia is of considerable thickness, and is us loaded with fat, whereby it assists in forming the contour of the buttock and fold of the nates.

In the groin it is divisible into *two layers*: a **superficial fatty layer,** contin with a similar layer on the front of the abdominal wall above, and over perineum internally, and a **deeper membranous layer**, which is attached abo the inner half of Poupart's ligament, and to the deep fascia of the thigh just b the outer half of that ligament. Internally it is attached to the pubic arch, below the level of Scarpa's triangle it blends inseparably with the superficial layer. The se tion of these layers of the s ficial fascia i casioned by presence bet them of the fe and inguinal phatic gland internal saph vein and its taries, and small arteries attachment o deeper layer fascia to the arch and Pou ligament cut the superf tissues of the from the peri and the an abdominal and prevents passage dow thigh of fluid collected in the perineum or beneath the fascia of the an abdominal wall.

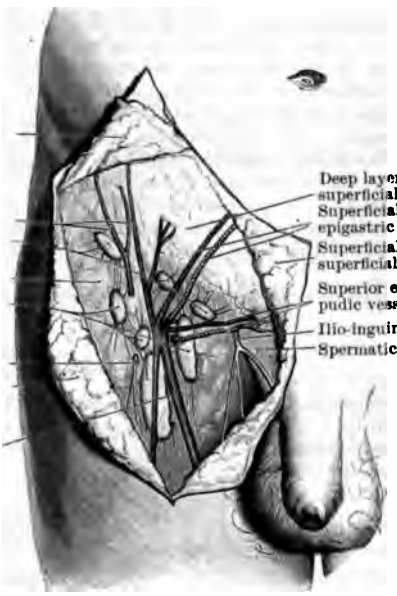


FIG. 273.—THE GROIN. STRUCTURES BETWEEN THE LAYERS OF THE SUPERFICIAL FASCIA.

The **deep fascia** or **fascia lata** forms a tubular investment for the muscle vessels of the thigh and buttock. It is firmly attached above to the iliac cres great sacro-sciatic ligament, the ischium, the pubic arch, the pubic symphysi crest, and Poupart's ligament. Below, in relation to the knee, it is contin with the deep fascia of the leg, gains attachment to the patella, the tuberosit the tibia and the head of the fibula, and forms the lateral ligaments of the pa

On the front of the thigh the deep fascia is thick and strong. It is pi by numerous openings for vessels and nerves, the most important of whi the **saphenous opening** for the internal saphenous vein. A femoral hernia through this opening to reach the front aspect of the anterior abdominal wal is an oval opening of variable size situated just below the inner half of Pou ligament, and immediately in front of the femoral vessels. It is cover the superficial fascia, and by a special layer of fascia, the **cribriform fas** thin perforated lamina, attached to the margins of the opening. The outer of the opening is formed by the margin of the *iliac portion* of the fascia which is attached above to the iliac crest and Poupart's ligament; the edge is formed by the *pubic portion* of the fascia lata, which is continued up behind the femoral sheath, over the adductor longus and pectineus musc the ilio-pectineal line and the capsule of the hip-joint. These two layers fascia lata are continuous at the lower concave margin of the saphenous op forming its **inferior cornu**. As they pass upwards towards the pelvis they c different planes, the iliac portion being in front of the femoral sheath, whi pubic portion of the fascia is behind it. The **superior cornu** of the saphenous op

l in front of the sheath, is derived solely from the iliac portion of the fascia lata. ms a strong triangular band of fascia attached above to the inner half of art's ligament, and is known as the **falciform ligament**. It has an important in directing the course of a femoral hernia upwards on to the abdominal

ternally in relation to the adductor muscles of the thigh the fascia lata ies much thinner. *At the knee* it is associated with the tendons of the vasti es, and forms the **lateral ligaments of the patella**, attached to the borders of atella and to the tuberosities of the tibia. *Externally* it gives rise to the

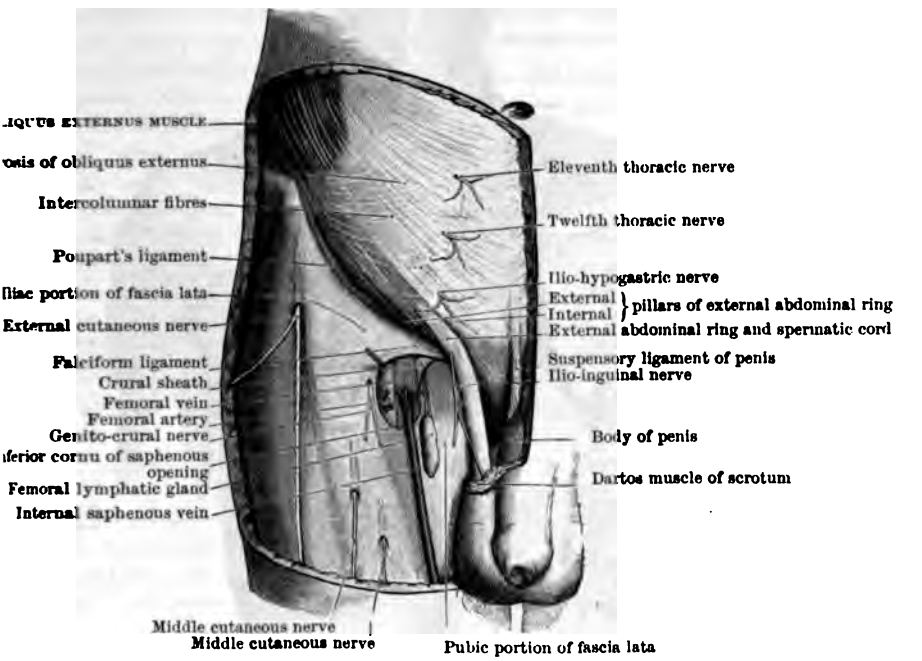


FIG. 274.—THE GROIN—THE STRUCTURES SEEN ON REMOVAL OF THE SUPERFICIAL FASCIA.

ibial band—a broad thick layer of fascia which is attached above to the iliac , and receives the insertions of two muscles in the upper part of the thigh—tensor fasciæ femoris, and part of the gluteus maximus; it is attached below ıe capsule of the knee-joint and the outer tuberosity of the tibia. The fascia ath the tensor fasciæ femoris muscle, continued upwards from the ilio-tibial l, sends a strong band inwards which joins the origin of the rectus femoris and apsule of the hip-joint.

On either side of the thigh above the knee an intermuscular septum is formed; **external intermuscular septum** extends inwards from the ilio-tibial band to the rnal supra-condyloid ridge and linea aspera of the femur, and gives attachment ıe vastus externus and crureus in front, and the short head of the biceps behind. **internal intermuscular septum** is more complex. It is represented by a layer of a which forms separate envelopes for the gracilis and sartorius muscles, and ıe upper and middle thirds of the thigh encloses the adductor muscles. In the lle third of the thigh the fascia is specially thickened by transverse fibres ecting together the adductor muscles and the vastus internus. This sheet of a forms a special aponeurosis beneath the sartorius, which roofs over the ral artery in Hunter's canal. In the lower third of the thigh the intermuscular ım is closely associated with, and is to a large extent represented by, the on of the adductor magnus muscle.

The **fascia lata of the buttock** is thick anteriorly where it covers and gives origin ıe gluteus medius, thinner posteriorly over the gluteus maximus, at the upper er of which it splits to enclose the muscle. It is greatly thickened over the

region of the great trochanter, where it forms the insertion of the **greater pa** the same muscle.

On the **back of the thigh** and over the **popliteal space** the fascia is strengthe by transverse fibres derived from the hamstring muscles. The **popliteal f**

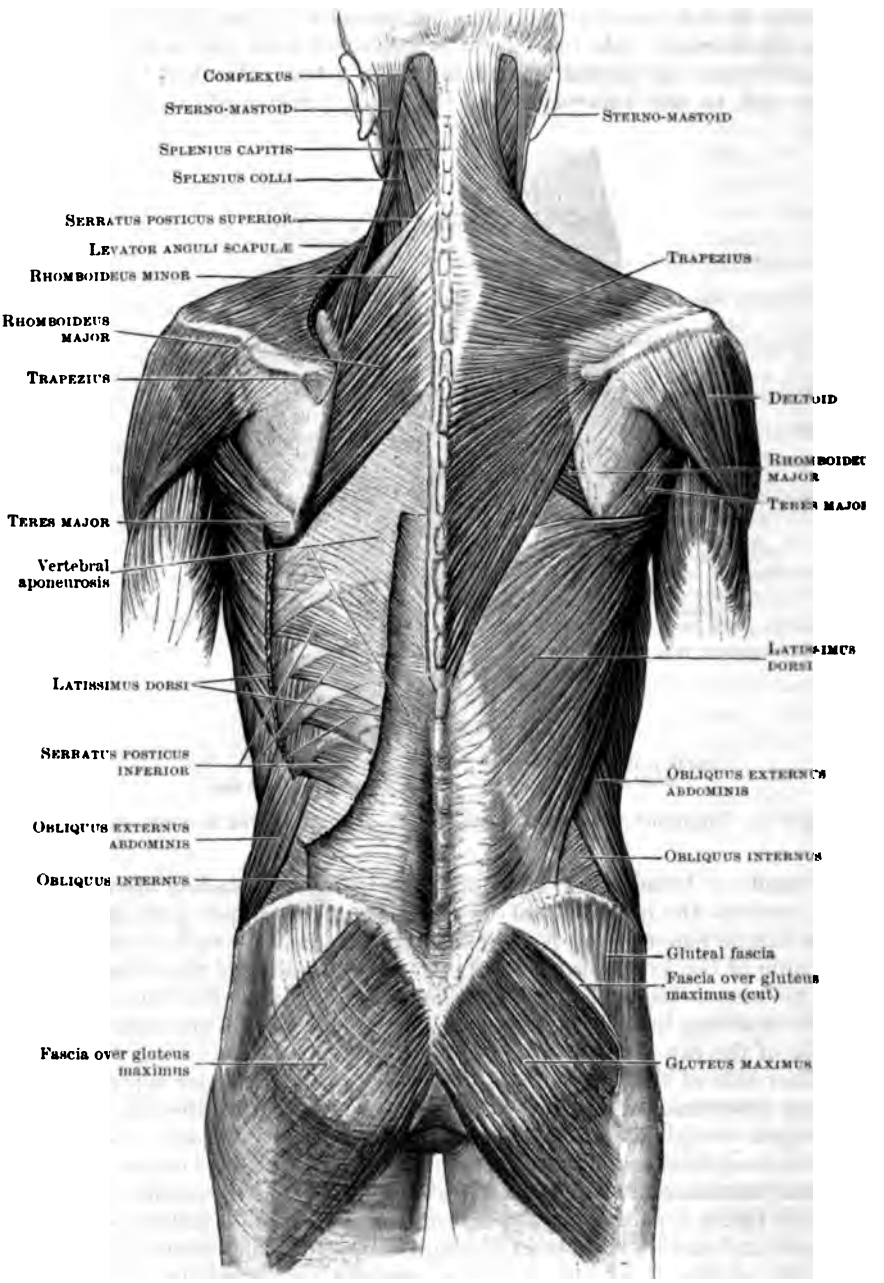


Fig. 275.—Superficial Muscles of the Back.

forming the roof of the popliteal space is specially thick, and is usually pie by the external saphenous vein.

A **femoral hernia** appears in the thigh through the saphenous opening, there passing upwards over Poupart's ligament to the anterior abdominal wall.

Femoral Sheath.—This is a conical membranous investment for the fen vessels, prolonged into Scarpa's triangle beneath Poupart's ligament, and

ius above with the internal fascial lining of the abdominal wall, formed by fascia transversalis in front and the fascia iliaca behind. The sheath is ed into three compartments—an external space for the artery, an inter- ate space for the vein, and an internal channel containing lymphatics, and d the **crural canal**. The wall of this is known as the **crural sheath**. This is the passage through which a femoral hernia enters the thigh. Its upper is the **crural ring**, placed behind Poupart's ligament in front of the origin of ectineus muscle from the pubis; it is bounded internally by Gimbernat's ent, and externally by the femoral vein. In front of it the fascia trans- lis forming the sheath is thickened to form the **deep crural arch**. The part of art's ligament in front of the ring is called the **superficial crural arch**. The epigastric artery separates the crural ring from the internal abdominal ring. crural canal ordinarily contains fat which is continuous above with the extra- oneal tissue. The crural ring is filled by a plug of fat or a lymphatic gland, ituting the **crural septum**.

he crural canal ends behind the saphenous opening, covered by the cribriform ; the falciform ligament crosses over it and conceals its upper portion. The e of a femoral hernia is determined by this band of the fascia lata. The hernia nds through the crural ring, pushing the crural septum before it; it traverses rural canal, and is directed forwards through the saphenous opening. The ior part of the hernia being pressed upon and retarded by the crural arches by the falciform ligament, the posterior part pushes onwards, hooks round the form ligament, and is directed upwards over Poupart's ligament. The cover- of a femoral hernia, in addition to peritoneum and extra-peritoneal tissue al septum), are crural sheath, cribriform fascia, superficial fascia, and skin.

THE MUSCLES ON THE FRONT OF THE THIGH.

The muscles on the front of the thigh include the sartorius, quadriceps extensor, psoas, and pectineus muscles.

The **sartorius**, a long strap-like muscle stretching obliquely across the thigh, es by short tendinous fibres from the anterior superior spine of the ilium and of the notch below it (Fig. 285, p. 369). It passes down the thigh to the r side of the knee, where it is **inserted** by aponeurotic fibres into the inner ace of the shaft of the tibia just below the inner tuberosity, and by its borders fascial expansions which join the capsule of the knee-joint and the fascia of the leg (Fig. 279, p. 363). An expansion from the upper part of the don of insertion is attached along an oblique line, which is directed downwards backwards, above the attachment of the gracilis, to the internal lateral ligament he knee-joint, with which it is connected.

The sartorius is superficial in its whole extent. It is so twisted on itself that he upper third of its length its superficial surface looks forwards, in the lower d inwards, at the side of the knee. It passes diagonally down the thigh, separat- the quadriceps extensor externally from the adductor muscles internally. Its r third forms the outer boundary of Scarpa's triangle: its middle third forms roof of Hunter's canal; and its lower third, in contact with the inner side of the e, is separated from the tendon of the gracilis muscle by the long saphenous ve and a branch of the anastomotic artery. A bursa lies beneath the tendon at insertion. The sartorius conceals in its upper third the external circumflex els and branches of the anterior crural nerve, and it covers the femoral vessels Hunter's canal.

The **quadriceps extensor** (m. quadriceps femoris) lies between the sartorius he one hand and the tensor fascia femoris and ilio-tibial band on the other; composed of four muscles—the rectus femoris, vastus externus, crureus, and us internus.

The **rectus femoris** has a double tendinous **origin**. (1) The *straight head* s from the anterior inferior spine of the ilium (Fig. 282, p. 366); (2) the *ted head* springs from a rough groove on the dorsum ilii just above the est part of the acetabulum (Fig. 285, p. 369). A bursa lies beneath this

head of origin. The two heads, bound together and connected to the cap the hip-joint by a band of fascia derived from the under surface of the fasciæ femoris (ilio-tibial band), give rise to a single tendon which exten

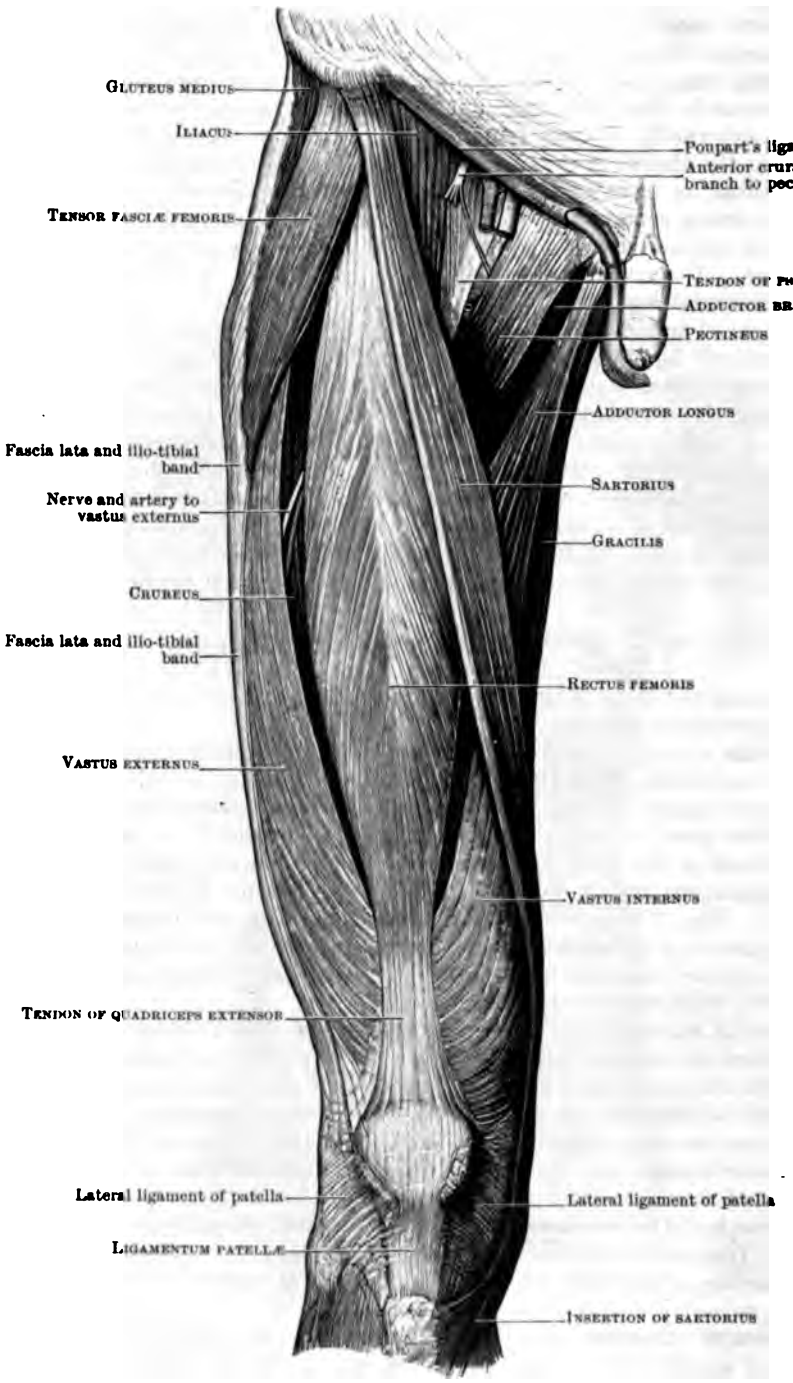


Fig. 276.—The Muscles on the Front of the Thigh.

some distance on the front of the muscle, and from which the muscular fibres The muscular fibres springing from this tendon, and also from a median tendon, present a bipennate arrangement, and end below in a broad tendon passes upwards for some distance along the posterior surface of the muscle.

tendon gradually narrows towards the knee, and spreading out again, is **inserted** into the upper border of the patella. It receives laterally parts of the insertions of the vasti muscles, and on its deep surface is joined by the tendinous insertion of the crureus.

The rectus femoris is superficial except at its origin, which is covered by the glutei, tensor fasciæ femoris, and sartorius muscles. On its inner side lie the iliacus, sartorius, and vastus internus; on its outer side are the tensor fasciæ femoris and vastus externus. It conceals the crureus muscle and branches of the external circumflex artery and anterior crural nerve. A bursa, which communicates with the synovial membrane of the knee-joint, lies beneath its tendon in front of the lower end of the shaft of the femur.

The **vastus externus** (m. vastus lateralis) has an **origin**, partly fleshy, partly membranous, (1) (slightly) from the capsule of the hip-joint, (2) from the tubercle of the femur, (3) from a concave surface on the front of the shaft of the bone internal to the great trochanter, (4) from the lower border of the great trochanter, (5) from the outer margin of the gluteal ridge of the femur and the tendon of the gluteus maximus, (6) from the upper half of the linea aspera, and (7) from the fascia lata and external intermuscular septum (Fig. 277, p. 361).

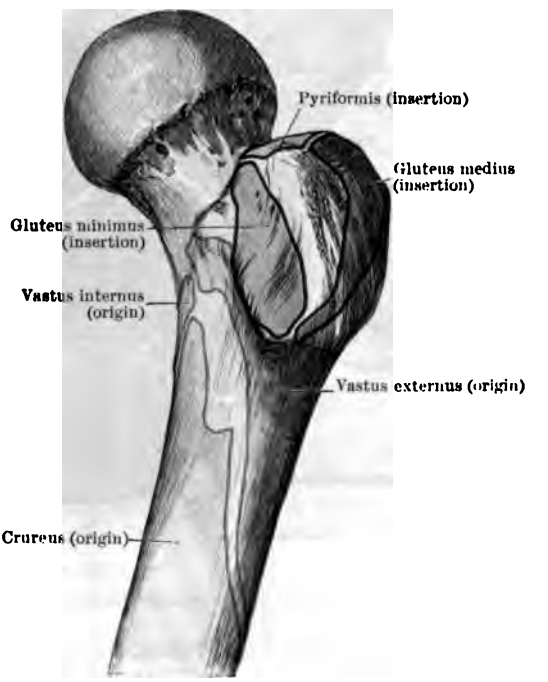


FIG. 277.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE ANTERIOR SURFACE OF THE UPPER PART OF THE FEMUR.

It forms a thick, broad muscle directed downwards and forwards, and is **inserted** by a broad membranous tendon into (1) the outer border of the tendon of the rectus femoris, (2) the upper and outer border of the patella, and (3) the capsule of the knee-joint, and the external lateral ligament of the patella. The vastus externus is covered superficially by the fascia lata and the ilio-tibial band. A bursa intervenes between it and the membranous insertion of the gluteus maximus: at its inner border is the rectus femoris; and under cover of it, on a deeper plane, is the crureus, which is also to a large extent concealed by the muscle. Between the vastus externus and crureus is the descending branch of the external circumflex artery.

The **vastus internus** (m. vastus medialis) is larger than the vastus externus and has a more extensive **origin**, from (1) the shaft of the femur—from the lower two-thirds or more of the spiral line, the linea aspera, and the upper two-thirds of the line leading from the linea aspera to the internal condyle of the femur; (2) the membranous expansion of the fascia lata which lies beneath the sartorius and forms the roof of Hunter's canal; and (3) the internal intermuscular septum and the tendon of the adductor magnus (Figs. 277, p. 361, and 281, p. 365).

From its origin the muscle is directed downwards and outwards towards the knee; it is **inserted** by a strong aponeurotic tendon into (1) the inner border of the rectus tendon; (2) the upper and inner border of the patella; and (3) the capsule of the knee-joint and the internal lateral ligament of the patella. The vastus internus is superficial except at its origin, which is concealed by the sartorius muscle and femoral vessels. Along its outer side are the rectus and crureus; the muscle conceals the inner side of the shaft of the femur and the crureus, with which it is closely incorporated in its lower two-thirds.

The **crureus muscle** (m. vastus intermedius) **arises** by fleshy fibres (1) from the

upper two-thirds of the shaft of the femur on the anterior and external surfa
(2) from the lower half of the outer lip of the linea aspera and the upper p
of the line leading therefrom to the external condyle, as well as (3) from
corresponding portion of the external intermuscular septum (Fig. 277, p. 361).

For the most part deeply placed, the muscle is directed downwards to
insertion into the deep surface of the tendons of the rectus and vasti muscles
means of fibres which join a membranous expansion on its surface.

The crureus is concealed by the rectus and vasti muscles, and externally,
the lower half of the thigh, by the ilio-tibial band. It is closely adherent to th
vastus externus muscle in the middle third of the thigh; it is inseparable fr
the vastus internus below the upper third. Beneath the crureus is the femu

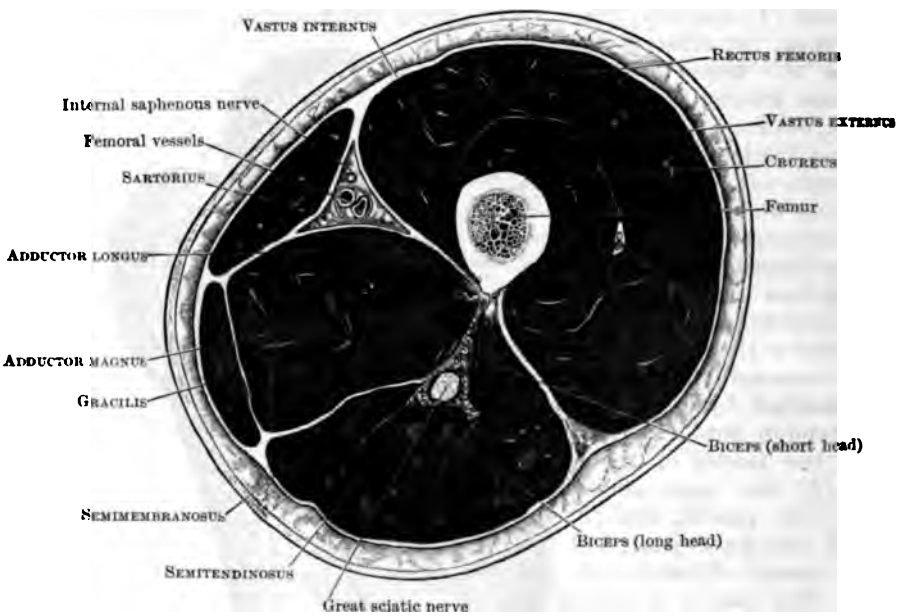


Fig. 278.—Transverse Section of the Thigh (Hunter's Canal).

and in the lower third of the thigh it conceals the subcrureus muscle, a bursa, and the upward prolongation of the synovial membrane of the knee-joint.

The **subcrureus** consists of a number of separate bundles of muscular fibres **arising** beneath the crureus from the lower fourth of the front of the femur, and **inserted** into the synovial membrane of the knee-joint beneath the tendon of the rectus femoris.

The four elements composing the quadriceps extensor muscle have been traced in their convergence to the patella and the lateral ligaments of the patella. Their ultimate **insertion** is into the tibia (Fig. 279, p. 363), by means of the **ligamentum patellæ** and the **lateral ligaments of the patella.** The patella, indeed, is in one sense a sesamoid bone formed in the tendon of the muscle, the ligamentum patellæ being the real tendon of insertion, and the lateral ligaments fascial expansions from its borders. The insertion of the muscle forms the front of the capsule of the knee-joint.

The **ilio-psoas muscle** is a compound muscle, consisting of one or sometimes two elements,—**psoas (magnus and parvus)**, connecting the femur and pelvic girdle to the axial skeleton; and another element, the **iliacus**, extending between the innominate bone and the femur. The muscles chiefly occupy the posterior wall of the abdomen and false pelvis, their insertions only appearing in the thigh below Poupart's ligament.

The **psoas magnus** (m. psoas major) is a large pyriform muscle, which has an extensive **origin** by fleshy fibres from the vertebral column in the lumbar region. It arises (1) from the intervertebral discs above each lumbar vertebra, and from the

argins of the vertebræ—from the lower border of the 12th thoracic
er border of the 5th lumbar vertebra; (2) it arises also from four
arches which pass over the sides of the bodies of the first four
ebræ; and (3) it has an additional origin posteriorly from the transverse
all the lumbar vertebræ. The fibres form a fusiform muscle directed
over the pelvic brim and beneath Poupart's ligament, ending in a
ch is **inserted** into the apex of the lesser trochanter of the femur (Fig.
).

as muscle occupies the posterior abdominal wall, the false pelvis, and
In the abdomen it lies in the groove alongside the bodies of the lumbar
. front of the transverse pro-
is enveloped by a fascia
m the lumbar aponeurosis.
inal viscera in contact with
kidney and colon on both
the duodenum on the right,
ıcreas on the left side. The
ı front of it, along with the
r ovarian, the renal and colic
ıe inferior vena cava is in
e right muscle; the inferior
/ein is in front of that of the
The lumbar plexus is em-
ts substance, and the nerves
ion emerge from its surface
s. In the false pelvis the
's the pelvic brim, and is
the ureter, the iliac vessels,
on the right side, and the
on the left side. The vas
l spermatic vessels cross over
ve Poupart's ligament. In
angle the tendon is behind
vessels, between the iliacus
eus, and in front of the
xternus muscle and the hip-
bursa, which may be con-
h the synovial cavity of the
parates the tendon from the
he capsule of the hip-joint.

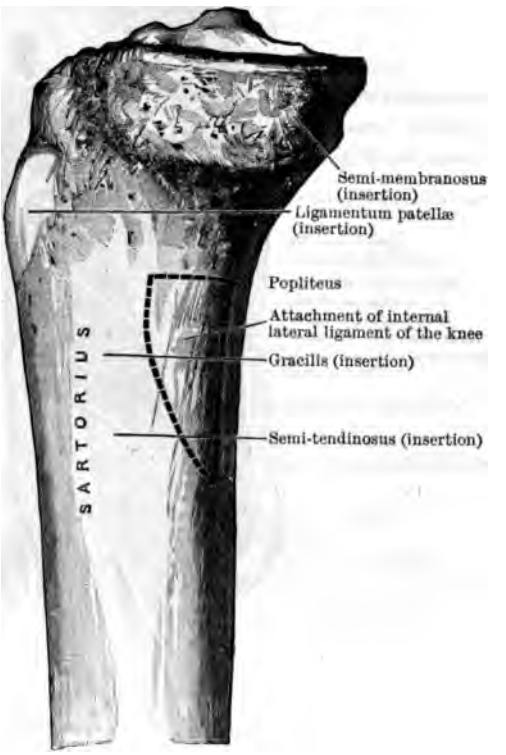


FIG. 279.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE INNER SIDE OF THE UPPER PART OF THE TIBIA.

as parvus (m. psoas minor) is often absent (40 per cent). It **arises** by
s from the intervertebral disc between the last thoracic and first lumbar
nd from the contiguous margins of these vertebræ. The muscle is
osed to the anterior surface of the psoas magnus. It forms a slender
, and is **inserted** by a narrow tendon into the middle of the ilio-pectineal
e ilio-pectineal eminence, its margins blending with the fascia covering
agnus.

acus muscle arises by fleshy fibres, mainly from a horseshoe-shaped
nd the margin of the iliac fossa; it has additional origins also from
the sacrum, the anterior sacro-iliac, lumbo-sacral, and ilio-lumbar
nd outside the pelvis, from the upper part of the ilio-femoral band.
shaped muscle, its fibres passing downwards over the hip-joint towards
trochanter of the femur. It is **inserted** by fleshy fibres (1) into the
of the tendon of the psoas magnus; (2) into the concave anterior and
ces of the small trochanter; and (3) into the shaft of the femur below
rochanter for about an inch (Fig. 281, p. 365); and (4) by its most
res into the capsule of the hip-joint. These fibres are often separate,
iliacus minor, or **ilio-capsularis.**

scle occupies the false pelvis and Scarpa's triangle. It forms the back

wall of the false pelvis and is covered anteriorly by the iliac fascia. It is in contact with the cæcum on the right side and the iliac colon on the left si The psoas muscle lies along its inner border, with the anterior crural nerve in interval between them. After passing beneath Poupart's ligament, and over capsule of the hip-joint, the muscle occupies the outer part of the floor of Scar triangle, internal to the sartorius and rectus femoris muscles.

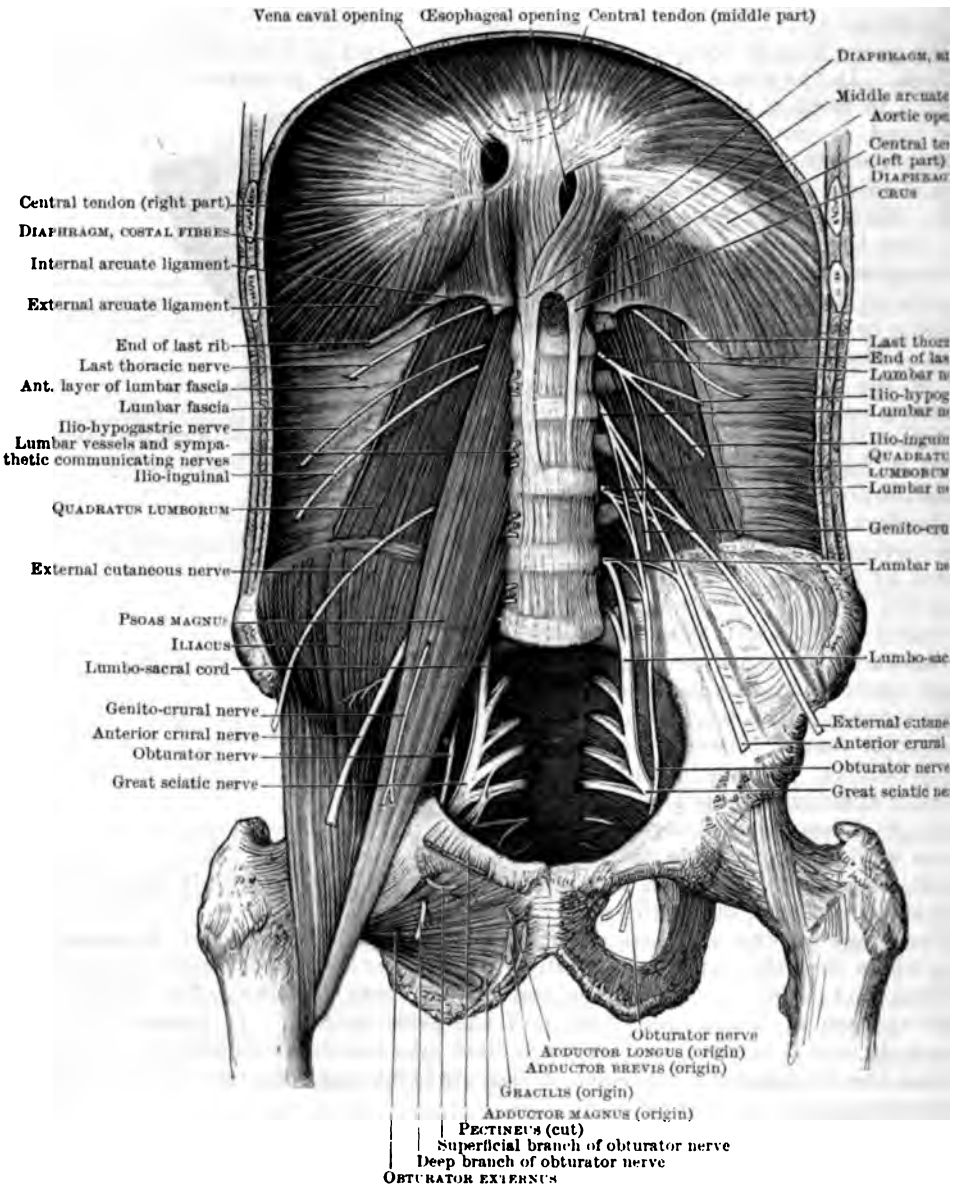


Fig. 280.—View of the Posterior Abdominal Wall, to show the Muscles and the Nerves the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus.

The **pectineus** muscle **arises** by fleshy fibres from the sharp anterior por of the ilio-pectineal line of the pubis, and from the triangular surface of pubic bone in front of this (Fig. 282, p. 366). It also arises from the fem surface of Gimbernat's ligament, and from the pubic portion of the fascia lata w covers it. Forming a broad muscular band, it is directed obliquely downw backwards, and outwards, to be **inserted** by a thin flat tendon about two in in length into the upper half of the pectineal line leading from the back of

all trochanter of the femur towards the linea aspera; its lower attachment ing placed in front of the ertion of the adductor brevis uscle (Fig. 281, p. 365).

The pectineus forms a part the floor of Scarpa's triangle. overed by the pubic portion of e fascia lata, it is partially ncealed by the femoral vessels d the insertion of the ilio-soas. It lies in front of the ubic bone, the obturator ex-rnus and adductor brevis uscles, and the superficial part the obturator nerve. Its ter border is separated from e psoas by the internal cir-mflex vessels. Its inner border in contact above with the dductor longus, but is separated om it below by the deep moral vessels. The muscle ay be occasionally divided nto inner and outer parts, the ormer innervated by the ob-turator, the latter by the anterior rural nerve.

FIG. 281.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE POSTERIOR ASPECT OF THE UPPER PART OF THE FEMUR.

THE MUSCLES ON THE INNER SIDE OF THE THIGH.

The muscles on the inner side of the thigh include the adductors of the femur—the adductor longus, adductor brevis, and adductor magnus; the gracilis, and the obturator externus.

The **gracilis muscle** is a long flat band placed on the inner side of the thigh and knee. It **arises** by a thin aponeurotic tendon from the lower half of the edge of the symphysis pubis, and for a similar distance from the border of the adjoining part of the pubic arch (Fig. 282, p. 366). Its flattened fleshy belly passes down on the inner side of the thigh to the knee, where it ends in a tendon, which expands to be **inserted** into the inner side of the shaft of the tibia just below the inner tuberosity, behind the sartorius and above and in front of the semitendinosus (Fig. 279, p. 363). It is separated from the sartorius tendon by a bursa, and beneath its tendon is another bursa common to it and the semitendinosus.

The gracilis is superficial in its whole extent, except at its insertion which is concealed by the insertion of the sartorius muscle. Its deep surface covers the borders of the adductor longus and adductor magnus muscles, as well as the superficial part of the obturator nerve. At the inner side of the knee it lies between the sartorius and semitendinosus.

The **adductor longus** is a triangular muscle **arising** by a rounded tendon from the anterior surface of the body of the pubis in the angle between the crest and symphysis (Fig. 282, p. 366). Extending downwards and outwards, it is **inserted** into the middle two-fourths of the inner lip of the linea aspera in front of the adductor magnus. Lying in the same plane as the pectineus, the adductor longus is in contact with that muscle near its origin, but is separated from it below by an interval through which the deep femoral vessels pass. Its inner border is in contact with the gracilis and sartorius muscles. Its anterior surface forms part of the floor of Scarpa's triangle above, part of the floor of Hunter's canal below. It is covered near its insertion by the sartorius and the femoral vessels, and it is connected to

the origin of the vastus internus by an aponeurotic expansion of **fascia bene** the sartorius, forming the roof of Hunter's canal. Its posterior **surface is** relation with the adductor brevis and the adductor magnus **muscles, the d** femoral vessels, and the superficial part of the obturator nerve. **The addu** longus may be double, or more or less fused with the pectineus.

The **adductor brevis** is a large muscle which **arises** by fleshy **and sh** tendinous fibres from an elongated oval surface on the front of **the body** upper part of the descending ramus of the pubis, surrounded by the **other mus** of this group (Fig. 282, p. 366). Directed downwards and outwards, **the mu** expands, to be **inserted** by a short aponeurotic tendon, behind the **insertion of t** pectineus, into the lower two-thirds of the line leading from the small **trochanter**

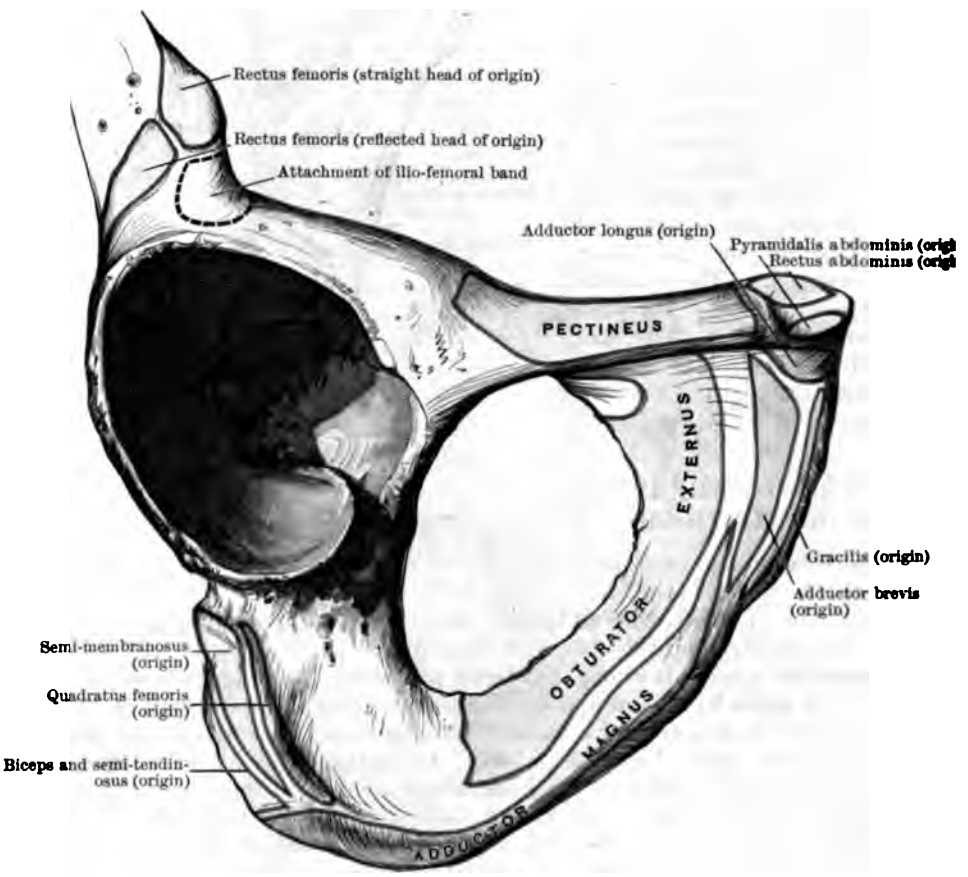


FIG. 282.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE OUTER SURFACE OF THE PUBIS AND ISCHIUM.

the femur to the linea aspera, and to the upper fourth of the linea aspera itse (Fig. 286, p. 370).

The adductor brevis is the central muscle of the adductor group. It is almo wholly concealed by the pectineus and adductor longus. It rests upon th adductor magnus; at its upper border is the obturator externus, separated fro it by the internal circumflex vessels; at its lower border is the adductor longu separated by the deep femoral vessels. It separates the superficial and deep par of the obturator nerve in their course down the thigh.

The **adductor magnus**, the largest of the adductor group, is a roughly tr angular muscle **arising** mainly by fleshy fibres by a curved origin from the low part of the outer border and a large portion of the adjoining inferior surface of th ischial tuberosity, from the edge of the ischial ramus, and from the anterior surfa of the descending ramus of the pubis, its most anterior fibres arising between th obturator externus and adductor brevis (Figs. 282, p. 366, and 285, p. 369

upper fibres are directed horizontally outwards from the pubis towards the upper part of the femur; the lowest fibres are directed downwards from the ischial tuberosity to the internal condyle of the femur; while the intermediate fibres radiate obliquely outwards and downwards. The muscle is **inserted** by tendinous fibres (1) into the space below the insertion of the quadratus femoris, above the linea aspera; (2) into the whole length of the linea aspera; (3) into the internal supracondyloid ridge of the femur; (4) into the adductor tubercle on the internal condyle of the femur; and (5) into the internal intermuscular septum (Fig. 286, p. 370). The part of the muscle attached to the space above the linea aspera is often separated from the rest as the **adductor minimus**. The attachment of the muscle into the supracondyloid ridge is interrupted for the passage of the

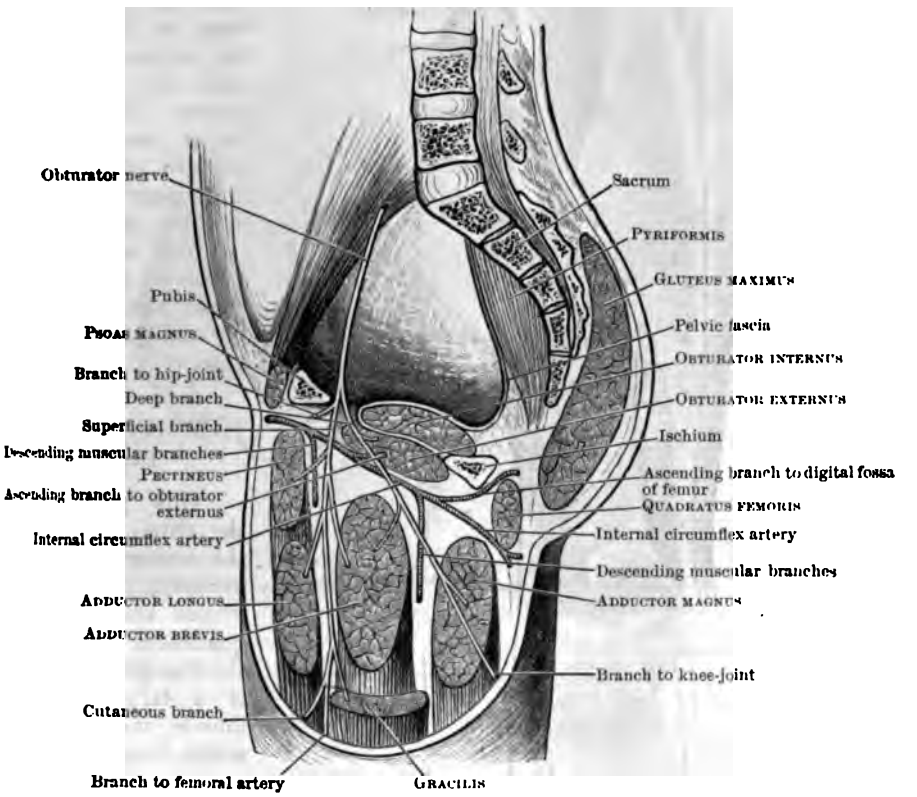


Fig. 283.—Scheme of the Course and Distribution of the Obturator Nerve.

femoral vessels to the popliteal space. The attachment to the internal condyle is by means of a strong tendon which receives the fibres arising from the ischium (the part of the muscle associated with the hamstring group). This tendon is closely connected with the internal lateral ligament of the knee-joint.

The adductor magnus intervenes between the other adductor muscles in front and the hamstring muscles behind. It is concealed anteriorly by the pectineus, adductor brevis, adductor longus, and sartorius. The deep femoral artery lies on it above. It forms the floor of Hunter's canal below, where the femoral vessels lie upon it. The hamstring muscles and great sciatic nerve are behind the adductor magnus; the obturator externus and quadratus femoris are at its upper border; and along its inner border are the gracilis and sartorius muscles.

The **obturator externus** is placed deeply under cover of the previous muscles. It is a fan-shaped muscle lying horizontally in the angle between the hip bone and the neck of the femur. It **arises** from the outer surface of the pubis and ischium, which form the inferior half of the margin of the thyroid foramen, and from the corresponding portion of the outer surface of the obturator membrane (Figs. 282, p. 366, and 285, p. 369). Its fibres converge towards the great trochanter, and

end in a stout tendon which, after passing below and behind the hip-joint, is i into the digital f the great trochante 286, p. 370, and 289, The inferior surf the muscle is in with the pectine ductor brevis, an ductor magnus n separated from th the internal circ vessels. The super face is in relati the obturator me and the neck femur. The tend below and behin capsule of the hi and near its in appears in the (under cover o gluteus maximus tween the inferior lus and quadratus muscles.

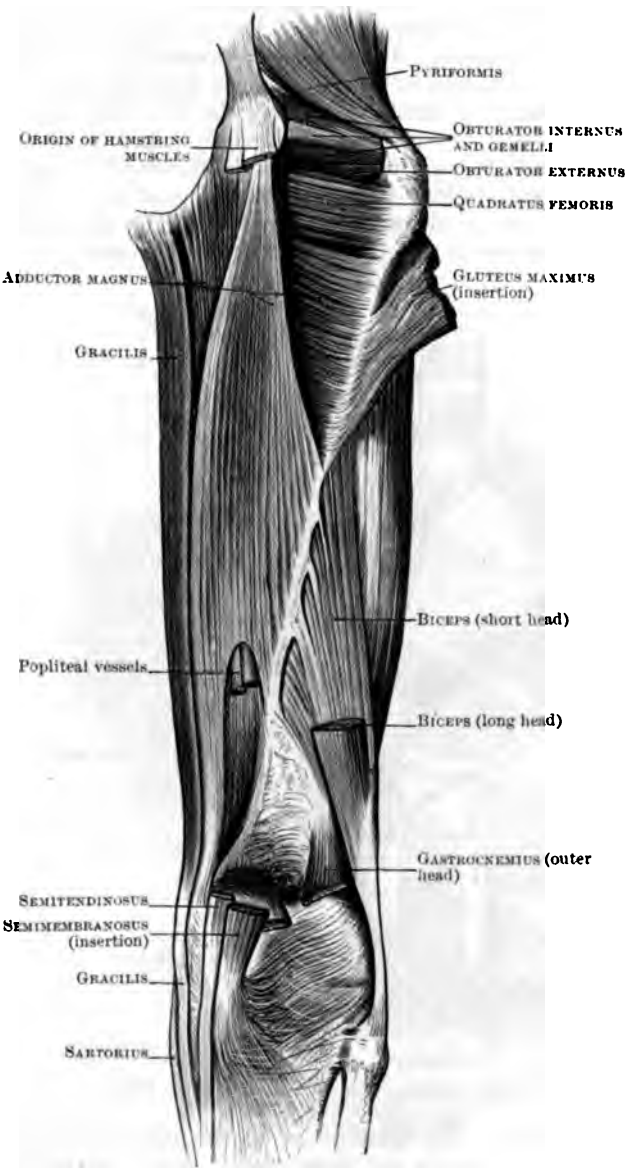


Fig. 284.—The Posterior Surface of the Thigh (superficial muscles removed).

THE MUSCLES O BUTTOCK.

This group i the three glutei the tensor fasciæ pyriformis, obtura ternus and gemel quadratus femoris.

The **gluteus ma** is a large quadr muscle, with a cre **origin**, from (1) a po the area on the dor above the superior line (Fig. 285, p. 36 the tendon of the spinæ; (3) the p surface of the sacr coccyx (Fig. 3 396); and (4) the posterior surface of the great sacro-sciatic ligament fibres which form its upper and outer border take origin directly fr fascia lata which envelopes the muscle. The muscle forms a large mass, whose fibres are directed obliquely outwards over the buttock, i by the fascia lata, and are **inserted** by short tendinous fibres, partly into th lata over the great trochanter of the femur (joining the ilio-tibial ban partly into the gluteal ridge (Fig. 286, p. 370). The fascia lata recei insertion of the whole of the superficial fibres of the muscle and the upp of the deep fibres. The lower half of the deep portion of the muscle is inse the most part into the gluteal ridge; but the lowest fibres of all are insert fascia lata, and are thereby connected with the external intermuscular sept the origin of the short head of the biceps.

The gluteus maximus is the coarsest and heaviest muscle in the body.

ight it helps to form the fold of the nates. It is superficial in its whole extent. e gluteus medius is visible at its upper border, covered by the fascia lata; at its ver border the hamstring muscles and great sciatic nerve appear on their way wn the thigh. The muscle conceals the bones from which it arises, along with e great sciatic ligament, the ischial tuberosity, and the great trochanter of the nur. It also conceals the gluteus medius and pyriformis, with a branch of the iteal artery between them; the obturator internus and gemelli, with the sciatic ssels and nerves, the pudic vessels and nerve, and the muscular branches of the ral plexus above them, and the obturator externus and a branch of the internal cumflex artery below them; the quadratus femoris and upper part of the ductor magnus muscles, with the internal circumflex vessels between them. It vers the origins of the hamstring muscles, and by its insertion into the fascia lata,

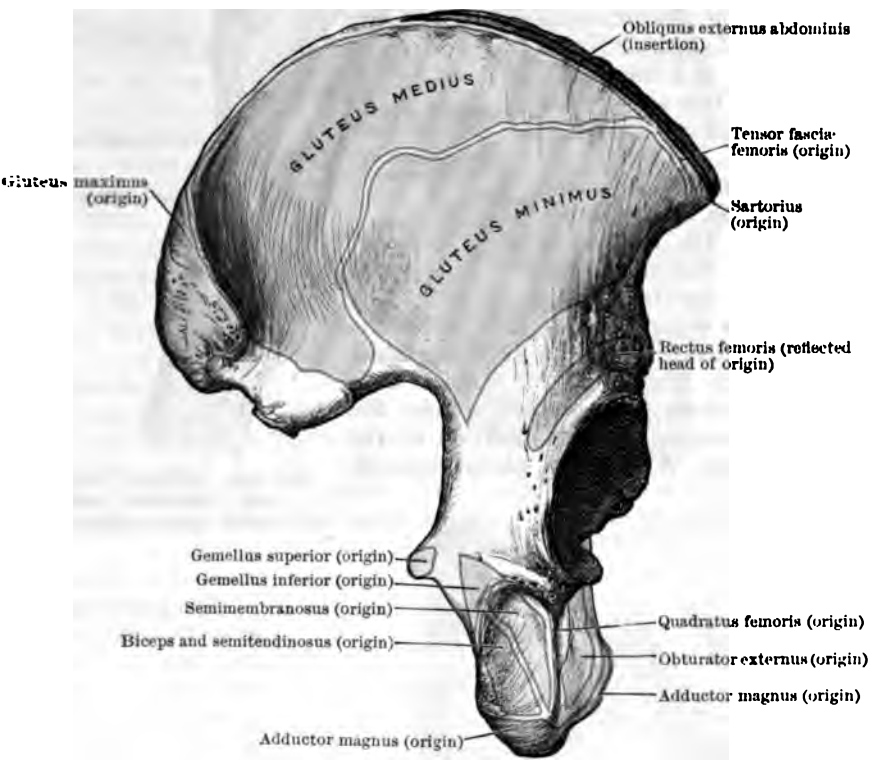


FIG. 285.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE DORSUM ILII AND TUBER ISCHII.

the vastus externus. The first perforating artery pierces the attachment of the muscle to the gluteal ridge. Three bursæ are beneath it: one (not always present) over the tuberosity of the ischium, a second over the outer side of the great trochanter, and a third over the vastus externus. The fibres of the gluteus maximus arising from the coccyx may form a separate muscle (**agitator caudæ**).

The **tensor fasciæ femoris** (m. tensor fasciæ latæ), lying on the same plane as he gluteus maximus, **arises** from the iliac crest and the dorsum ilii just external to he anterior superior spine, and from the fascia covering its outer surface (Fig. 85, p. 369). Invested like the gluteus maximus by the fascia lata, it is **inserted** bout the level of the great trochanter of the femur into the fascia, which forms the **lio-tibial band** (p. 357).

The tensor fasciæ femoris muscle is superficially placed, and is enclosed in a trong investment of the fascia lata, the deeper layer of which is prolonged up to join he tendon of the rectus femoris and the capsule of the hip-joint. The muscle is laced along the anterior borders of the gluteus medius and gluteus minimus, and onceals branches of the gluteal and external circumflex vessels and the termination f the superior gluteal nerve. The sartorius muscle is adjacent to it anteriorly at

its origin, and is separated from it below by the rectus femoris.

The **gluteus medius arises** by fleshy and tendinous fibres (1) from the dorsum ilii, between the iliac crest and the superior curved line above and the middle curved line below (Fig. 285, p. 369), and (2) from the strong fascia lata covering its surface anteriorly. It is a fan-shaped muscle, its fibres converging to the great trochanter, to be **inserted** by a strong, short tendon into the postero-superior angle of the trochanter, and into a well-marked diagonal line on its outer surface (Figs. 286, p. 370, 277, p. 361, and 289, p. 371).

The muscle is covered along its anterior border by the tensor fasciæ femoris. Its surface is covered over by the fascia lata and the gluteus maximus. Its inferior border is separated from the pyriformis muscle by the superficial branch of the gluteal artery. Its deep surface is in contact with the gluteus minimus, the gluteal vessels, the superior gluteal nerve, and the insertion of the pyriformis muscle. A bursa is placed beneath the tendon at its ins

FIG. 286.—MUSCLE-ATTACHM
THE POSTERIOR ASPECT
UPPER PART OF THE FEMU

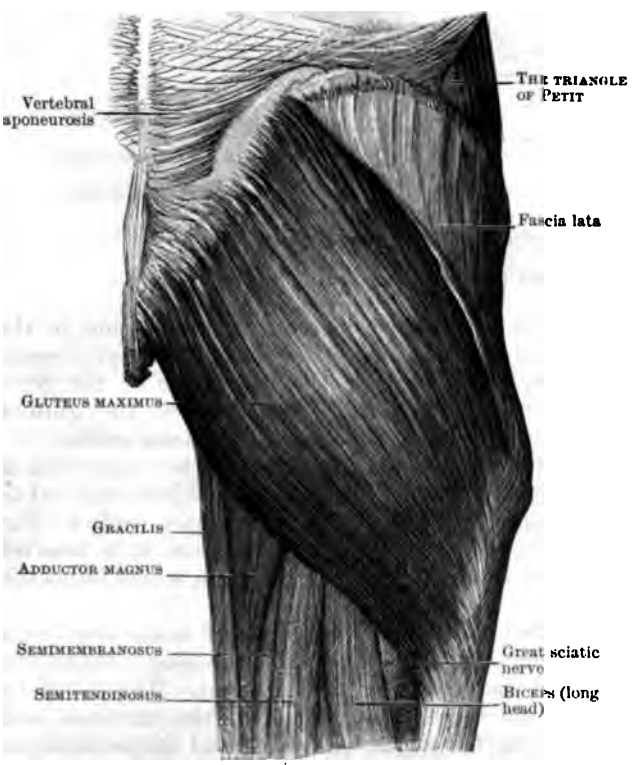


FIG. 287.—THE GLUTEUS MAXIMUS MUSCLE.

The **gluteus mi**
arises by fleshy fibre
the dorsum ilii be
the middle and i
curved lines (Fig.
p. 369). This mu
fan-shaped and its
converge to the a
superior angle o
great trochanter,
inserted into the a
surface of the troc
and sometimes als
the front part o
upper border (Figs
p. 361, and 289, p.
It is also inserted i
capsule of the hip
The muscle is cov
by the tensor
femoris and gl
medius. The pyri
is in contact with
ferior border, and b
it are the capsule

ıd the reflected tendon of the rectus femoris muscle. A bursa is ath the tendon in front of the great trochanter.

riformis is one of the few muscles connecting the lower limb to the eton. It within the om the he second, l fourth ebræ, and adjacent bone ex- ıe anterior ıina; pass- ls through cro-sciatic t receives (2) from margin of t sciatic he ilium, from the ace of the ro-sciatic In the forms a tendon, serted into the upper ıd inner the great r of the rtly sur- the inser-

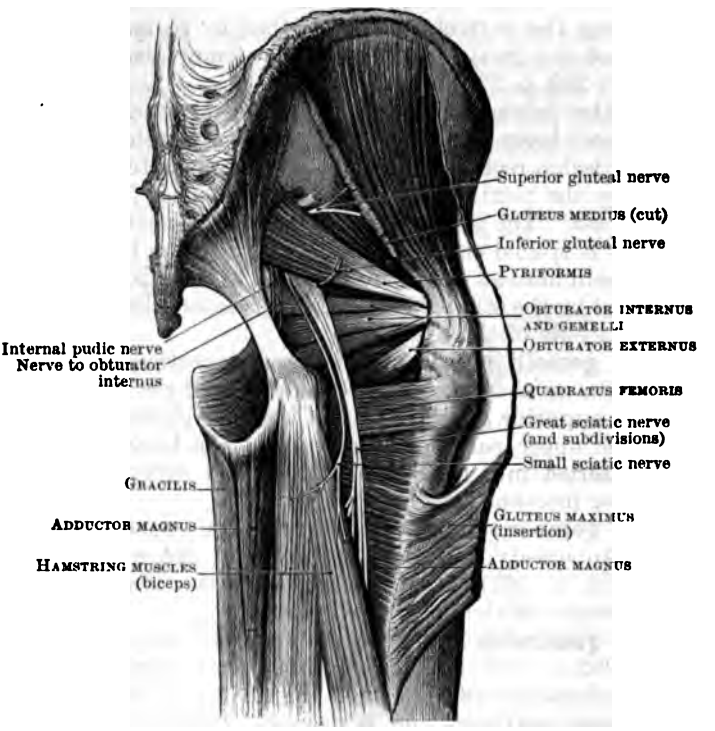
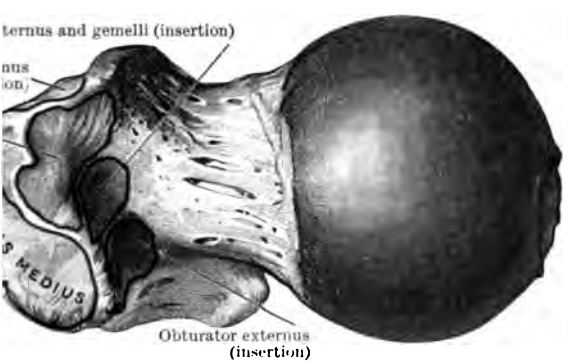


Fig. 288.—The Muscles and Nerves of the Buttock.
The gluteus maximus is reflected; and the gluteus medius is cut in part to show the gluteus minimus.

obturator internus (Figs. 286, p. 370, 277, p. 361, and 289, p. 371).

riformis, besides appearing in the buttock, lines the posterior wall of the the pelvis it lies behind the rectum, covered by a thin layer of the lvic fascia. In the buttock it is covered by the gluteus maximus, and at its insertion by the gluteus medius, and it lies upon the ilium and the capsule of the hip-joint. At its upper border are the gluteus medius and gluteus minimus, separated by the superior gluteal nerve and the gluteal artery; its lower border is separated from the gemelli and obturator internus by an interval in which the sciatic and pudic l the nerves of the sacral plexus appear. The anterior fibres of the y be separated.



uscle-Attachments to the Upper Aspect of the Great Trochanter of the Femur.

turator internus arises by fleshy fibres on the pelvic aspect of the hip om the whole of the margin of the thyroid foramen (except the obturator a portion posteriorly opposite the small sciatic notch); (2) from the the obturator membrane; (3) from the whole of the pelvic surface of

the hip bone behind and above the thyroid foramen; and (4) slightly fro parietal pelvic fascia covering it internally. It is a fan-shaped muscle, a fibres converging to the lesser sacro-sciatic foramen, give rise to several te which hook round the margin of the foramen (a bursa intervening), and traversing the buttock, unite together to be **inserted** into a facet on the surface of the great trochanter of the femur above the digital fossa (Figs. 2 370, and 289, p. 371).

In the pelvis the muscle occupies the lateral wall, covered by the pa (obturator) layer of pelvic fascia, which separates it from the pelvic cavity and the ischio-rectal fossa below. It is separated from the contents of the above by the peritoneum and extra-peritoneal fat, below by the fat in the rectal fossa. The internal pudic vessels and nerve cross it in the outer wall fossa in a special sheath of the fascia. In the buttock the tendon is embra the gemelli muscles which are attached to its upper and lower margins. The is crossed by the sciatic vessels and nerves, and lies against the upper and bac of the capsule of the hip-joint.

The **gemelli muscles** form accessory portions of the obturator internus. are two in number, **superior** and **inferior**, and are wholly composed of fleshy fi

The **superior gemellus arises** from the gluteal surface of the ischial spin from the upper part of the margin of the lesser sciatic notch (Fig. 285, p. It is **inserted** into the upper margin and superficial surface of the tendon obturator internus muscle.

The **gemellus inferior arises** from the upper part of the gluteal surface ischial tuberosity and the lower part of the margin of the lesser sciatic (Fig. 285, p. 369). It is **inserted** into the lower margin and superficial of the tendon of the obturator internus.

The **quadratus femoris arises** from the outer margin of the ischial tube (Figs. 282, p. 366, and 285, p. 369), and is **inserted** into the quadrate tu and quadrate line of the femur (Fig. 286, p. 370). The muscle is placed b the gluteus maximus, and is crossed by the sciatic vessels and nerves. Its is concealed by the hamstring muscles. Its deep surface is in contact wit obturator externus muscle and the small trochanter of the femur, a bursa vening. Its upper border is separated from the inferior gemellus by an in containing the tendon of the obturator externus and the ascending branch internal circumflex artery. Its lower border is separated from the upper m of the adductor magnus by the internal circumflex vessels. The muscle infrequently fused with the adductor magnus.

THE MUSCLES ON THE BACK OF THE THIGH.

The Hamstring Muscles.

The muscles comprised in this series include the biceps, semitendinosu semimembranosus. A part of the adductor magnus, already described, also b morphologically to this group.

The **biceps flexor cruris** (m. biceps femoris) has a double **origin**. (1) *It head* arises by means of a tendon, in common with the semitendinosus, fro lower and inner facet upon the tuberosity of the ischium (Figs. 282, p. 36 285, p. 369) and from the great sacro-sciatic ligament. This head, united distance of two to three inches with the semitendinosus, forms a separate mass, which extends to the lower third of the thigh, to end in a tendon join the short head of the muscle. (2) *The short head* arises separately by flesh tendinous fibres (1) from the whole length of the outer lip of the linea aspe the upper two-thirds of the external supra-condyloid ridge of the femur, a from the external intermuscular septum for a corresponding extent. The limit of its origin is sometimes blended with the insertion of the lowest fi the gluteus maximus. The fibres of the short head, directed downwards, joi tendon of the long head, and the muscle is **inserted** (1) into the head

fibula by a strong tendon, which is split into two parts by the long external lateral ligament of the knee-joint; (2) by a slip attached to the outer tuberosity of the tibia; and (3) along its posterior border by a fascial expansion which connects the tendon with the popliteal fascia.

The long head of the biceps is concealed at its origin by the gluteus maximus muscle. In the lower two-thirds of the thigh it is superficially placed, with the semitendinosus and semimembranosus on its inner side. It conceals the great sciatic nerve, the origins of the semimembranosus and quadratus femoris, the adductor magnus, and the short head of the muscle. The united heads assist in

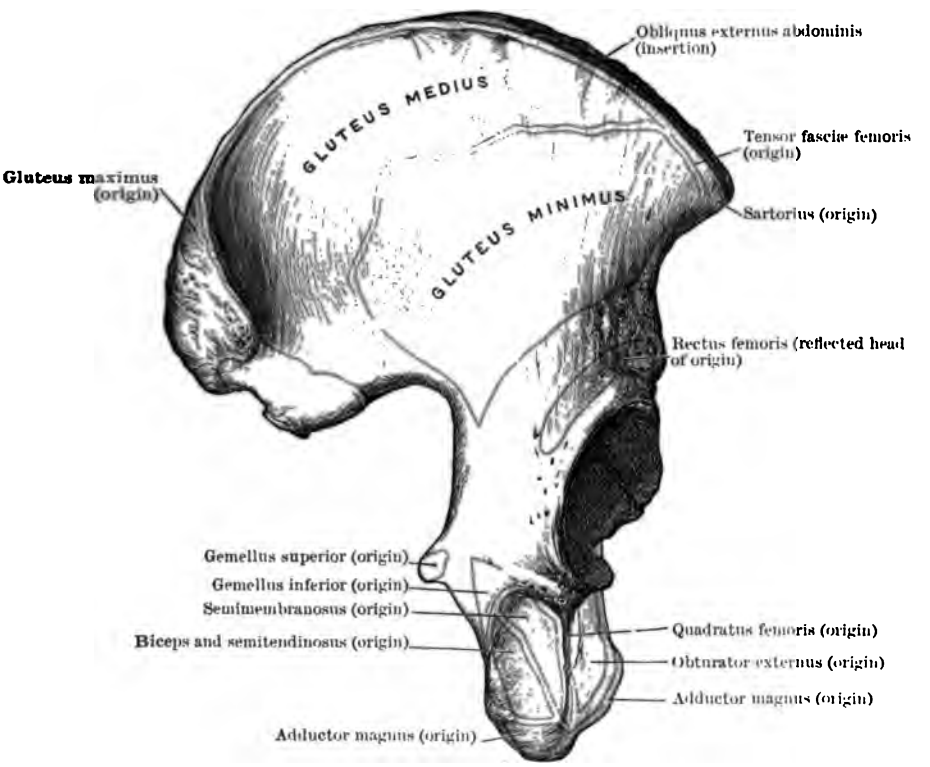


FIG. 290.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE DORSUM ILII AND TUBER ISCHII.

forming the outer boundary of the popliteal space, and partially conceal the outer head of the gastrocnemius.

The short head may be absent: there may be an additional origin from the ischium or femur; and the long head may send a slip to the gastrocnemius or tendo Achillis (**tensor fasciæ suralis**).

The **semitendinosus arises**, in common with the long head of the biceps, from the lower and inner facet upon the ischial tuberosity (Fig. 285, p. 369). Separating from the common tendon after a course of two or three inches, the muscle forms a long, narrow band which becomes tendinous in the middle third of the thigh. Passing over the inner side of the knee it spreads out and becomes membranous, and is **inserted** (1) into the inner side of the shaft of the tibia just below the internal tuberosity, below the gracilis and behind the sartorius (Fig. 292, p. 374), and (2) into the fascia lata of the leg. A bursa separates it from the sartorius in front, and another, common to it and the gracilis, lies beneath its insertion.

The origin of the muscle is concealed by the gluteus maximus. In the back of the thigh it is superficial to the semimembranosus; and at the inner side of the knee the tendon lies behind that of the gracilis, and also behind the sartorius. It forms one of the inner boundaries of the popliteal space. The belly of the muscle is marked by an oblique septal *tendinous intersection* about its middle.

The **semimembranosus arises** by a tendon from the upper and outer fa the ischial tuberosity (Figs. 282, p. 366, and 285, p. 369). In the upper of the thigh the tendon gives to a rounded fleshy belly, v becoming tendinous at the b the knee, is **inserted** mainly the horizontal groove on the of the inner tuberosity o tibia, and into a triangular below the hinder end of the g and above the insertion o popliteus (Figs. 292, p. 37- 299, p. 383). A bursa lies b the tendon at its insertion. three *additional membrano sertions*: (1) a fascial band e downwards and inwards to jo posterior border of the in lateral ligament of the knee (2) another fascial band e downwards and outwards, the fascia covering the po

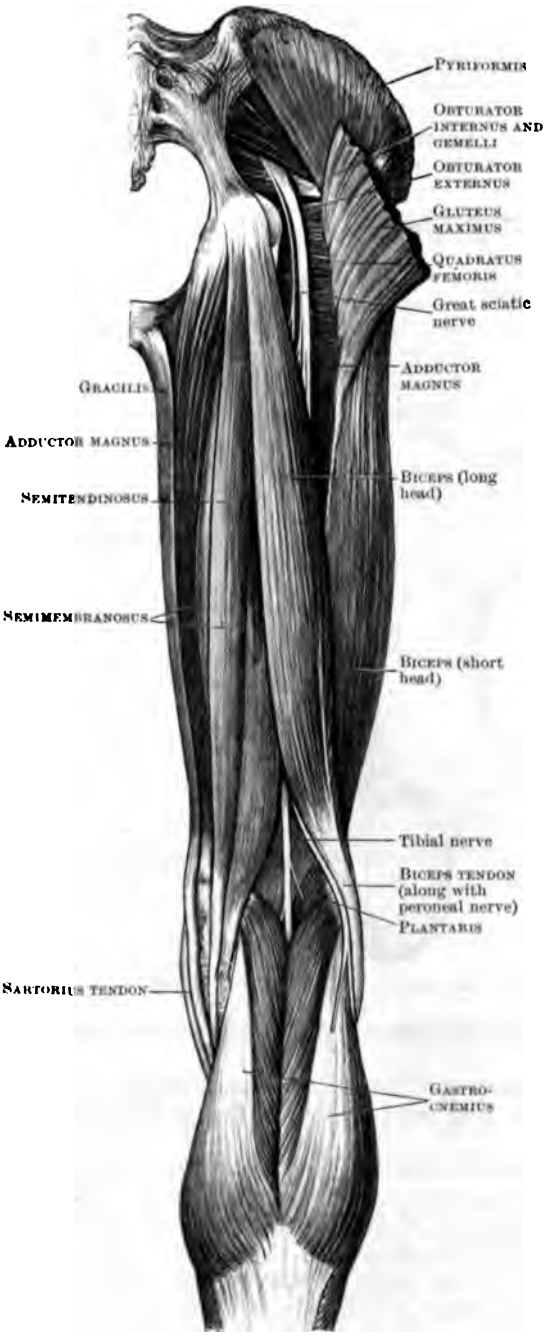


Fig. 291.—The Muscles on the Back of the Thigh.

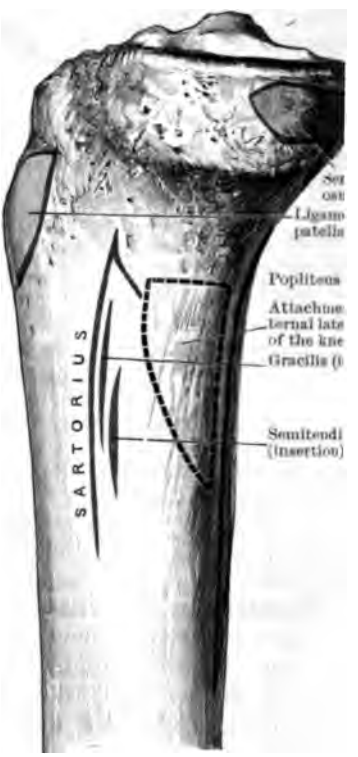


Fig. 292.—Muscle-Attachments to Side of the Upper Part of the

muscle (popliteus fascia), and is attached to the oblique line of the tibia (3) a third strong band extends upwards and outwards to the back of the ex condyle of the femur, forming the posterior ligament of the knee-joint.

The tendon of origin of the semimembranosus is concealed by the g maximus, and immediately beyond the ischium it is grooved by the common of the long head of the biceps and semitendinosus. In the back of the thig

ed by the semitendinosus, and lies upon the adductor magnus and great ic nerve. It forms part of the inner boundary of the popliteal space, and als the popliteal vessels. Its tendon passes over the inner head of the ocnemius on its way to its insertion.

Nerve-Supply of the Muscles of the Thigh and Buttock.

he innervation of the muscles described above is given in the following table:—

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Pectineus	Anterior crural	L. 2. 3.
Sartorius	Anterior crural	L. 2. 3.
Iliacus	Anterior crural	L. 2. 3. 4.
Psoas	Anterior crural	L. 2. 3. 4.
Quadriceps extensor	Anterior crural	L. 3. 4.
Vastus externus	Anterior crural	L. 3. 4.
Rectus femoris	Anterior crural	L. 3. 4.
Crureus	Anterior crural	L. 3. 4.
Vastus internus	Anterior crural	L. 3. 4.
Tensor fasciæ femoris	Superior gluteal	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Gluteus minimus	Superior gluteal	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Gluteus medius	Superior gluteal	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Gluteus maximus	Inferior gluteal	L. 5. S. 1. 2.
Biceps (short head)	Peroneal	L. 5. S. 1. 2.
Pyriformis	Sacral plexus	S. 1. 2.
Adductor longus	Obturator	L. 2. 3.
Gracilis	Obturator	L. 2. 3. 4.
Adductor brevis	Obturator	L. 3. 4.
Obturator externus	Obturator	L. 3. 4.
Adductor magnus	Obturator	L. 3. 4.
	Nerve to hamstrings	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Semimembranosus	Nerve to hamstrings	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Semitendinosus	Nerve to hamstrings	L. 5. S. 1. 2.
Biceps (long head)	Nerve to hamstrings	S. 1. 2. 3.
Quadratus femoris and inferior gemellus	Sacral plexus	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Superior gemellus and obturator internus	Sacral plexus	S. 1. 2. 3.

Action of the Muscles of the Thigh and Buttock.

Most of the above muscles act on the pelvis and on the hip- and knee-joints. The psoas uscle in addition assists in the movements of the vertebral column (p. 398).

1. **Movements at the Hip-Joint.**—The movements of the thigh at the hip-joint are flexion d extension, adduction and abduction, internal and external rotation. The following table ves the muscles producing these movements:—

a. **Flexion and Extension.**

Sartorius	Gluteus maximus
Iliacus	„ medius
Psoas	„ minimus
Rectus femoris	Biceps
Pectineus	Semitendinosus
Adductor longus	Semimembranosus
Gracilis	Adductor magnus
Obturator externus	

b. **Adduction** and **Abduction.**	
Pectineus	Tensor fasciæ femoris
Adductor longus	Gluteus medius
„ brevis	Gluteus minimus
„ magnus	Obturator externus
Gracilis	Pyriformis }
Quadratus femoris	Obturator internus }
Gluteus maximus (lower fibres)	Gemelli } during flexion
	Sartorius }
	Gluteus maximus (upper fibres) }

c. **Internal Rotation** and **External Rotation.**	
Tensor fasciæ femoris	Obturator externus
Gluteus medius (anterior fibres)	Gluteus maximus (lower fibres)
„ minimus „ „	Quadratus femoris
	Gluteus medius } (posterior
	„ minimus } fibres)
	Pyriformis }
	Obturator internus } during
	Gemelli } extension
	Sartorius
	Ilio-psoas
	Pectineus
	Adductor longus
	„ brevis
	„ magnus
	Biceps flexor cruris

2. Movements of the Pelvis on the Thigh.—It is to be noted that the several mo tabulated above refer to the movements of the femur at the hip-joint. The contractio same groups of muscles produces similar movements of the pelvis on the femur, exemp the various changes in the attitude of the pelvis in relation to the thigh and the v column, which occur in locomotion.

3. Movements at the Knee-Joint.—The movements at the knee-joint are mainly and extension. Flexion is much more powerful than extension. There is also a limited of rotation of the tibia. The movements are produced by certain of the muscles describe associated with certain of the muscles of the leg.

a. **Flexion** and **Extension.**		*b.* **Rotation inwards** and **Rotation outw**	
Sartorius	Quadriceps extensor	Sartorius	Biceps flexor c
Gracilis		Gracilis	
Semitendinosus		Semitendinosus	
Semimembranosus		Semimembranosus	
Biceps		Popliteus	
Gastrocnemius			
Plantaris			
Popliteus			

THE FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE LEG AND FOOT.

FASCIÆ.

The **superficial fascia** of the leg presents no special features except sole, where it is greatly thickened by pads of fat, particularly under the tub of the os calcis, and under the balls of the toes. It is closely adherent plantar fascia, especially at the roots of the toes.

The **deep fascia** has numerous important attachments about the Posteriorly it forms the popliteal fascia, and is joined by expansions fr tendons of the sartorius, gracilis, semitendinosus, and biceps muscles. In f the knee it is attached to the patella, the ligamentum patellæ, and the tub

bia; laterally it is connected to the tuberosities of the tibia and the head of ɔula, and forms the **lateral patellar ligaments**, broad fascial bands which pass ely from the sides of the patella to the tuberosities of the tibia, and are joined res of the vasti muscles. Passing down the leg, the fascia blends over the surface of the tibia with the periosteum of the bone. It extends round ıter side of the leg from the anterior to the internal border of the tibia, ıg together and giving origin to the muscles, and gaining an attachment to wer part of the shaft of the fibula. **Two septa** pass from its deep surface; ɛptum, attached to the anterior border of the fibula, encloses the musculo- ɛous nerve, and separates the extensor from the peronei muscles. The other n is attached to the posterior border of the fibula, and separates the peronei the flexor muscles. From the last-named septum another extends across the ɔf the leg, forms a partition between the superficial and deep flexor muscles, ncloses the posterior tibial vessels and nerves. It gives rise to a subordinate n attached to the vertical line of the tibia and the oblique line of the fibula, separate the lis posticus e from the s of the toes her side.

t the ankle eep fascia is gthened by onal trans- fibres; it is hed to the oli and the os , and gives ɔ the **annular nts.**

he **internal lar ligament** hes between nternal mal- ıs and the osity of the lcis. While ɔontinuous at

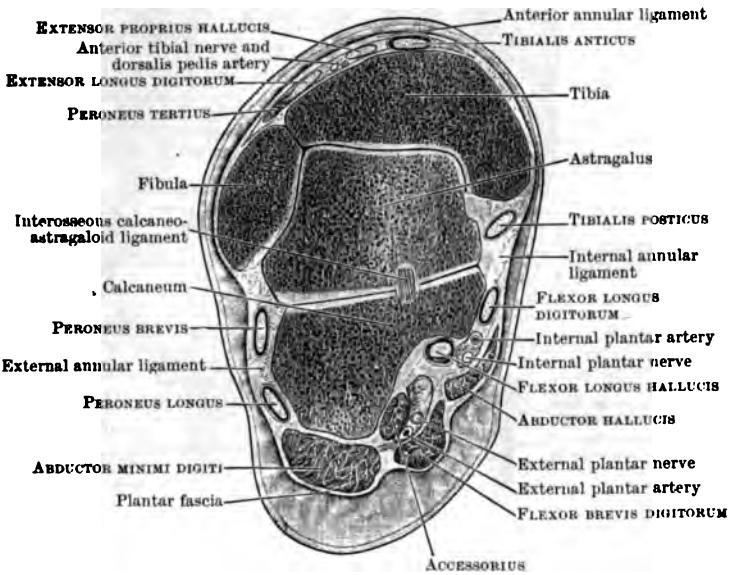


Fig. 293.—Coronal Section through the left Ankle-Joint, Astragalus, and Calcaneum.

ɔper border with the general investment of the deep fascia of the leg, it is y formed by the septal layer covering the deep muscles on the back of the It sometimes gives insertion to the plantaris muscle. It is continuous below the plantar fascia, and gives origin to the abductor hallucis muscle. It is ɛd by the calcanean vessels and nerve. Along with the posterior tibial vessels ıerve, the tendons of the tibialis posticus, flexor longus digitorum, and flexor s hallucis, pass beneath it, each enclosed in a separate synovial sheath.

he **external annular ligament**, much smaller, is a thickened band of the fascia stretching between the external malleolus and the os calcis. It binds the tendons of the peronei, which occupy a space beneath the ligament, lined single synovial membrane.

he **anterior annular ligament** is in two parts. An **upper band**, broad and ined at its upper and lower borders, stretches across the front of the ankle ɛen the two malleoli. This band binds down to the lower end of the tibia ɛndons of the tibialis anticus and extensor muscles of the toes. One synovial h is found beneath it, surrounding the tendon of the tibialis anticus.

n the dorsum of the foot, where the general covering of deep fascia is much er, a special well-defined band stretches over the extensor tendons. This **band** of the anterior annular ligament (fundiform or lambdoid ligament) has achment externally to the outer border of the greater process of the os calcis. ides into two bands as it passes inwards over the dorsum of the foot—an

upper part, which joins the upper ligament and is attached to the internal malleol and a *lower part*, which passes across the dorsum of the foot, and joins the fascia the sole at its inner border. Beneath this ligament are three special compartme with separate synovial sacs, one for the tibialis anticus tendon, a second for t of the extensor proprius hallucis, and a third for the extensor longus digitor and peroneus tertius tendons. There are occasionally other additional bands the deep fascia passing like the straps of a sandal across the dorsum of the foot.

The **plantar fascia** is of great importance. In the centre of the sole it form a thick triangular band, attached posteriorly to the tuberosity of the os calcis. I spreads out anteriorly and separates into *five slips*, which are directed forwards t the bases of the toes. These slips as they separate are joined together by ill-defin bands of transverse fibres, which constitute the **superficial transverse metatars ligament**. The slip for each toe joins the tissue of the web of the toe and i continuous with the digit sheath. It splits to form band of fibres directed forwar on each side of the toe to attached to the sides of t metatarso-phalangeal articul tion and the base of the fir phalanx.

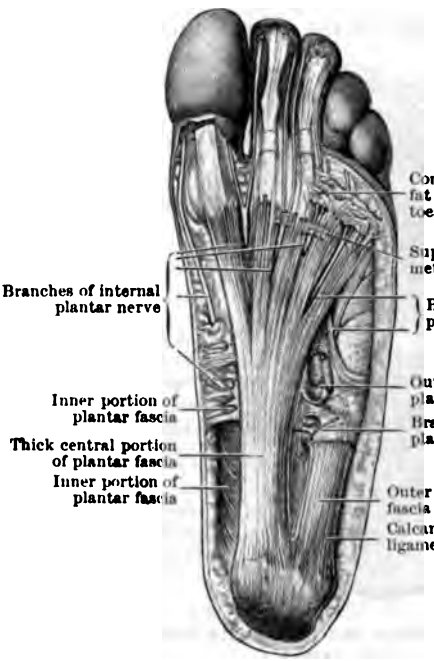

Connective tissue and fat in the web of the toes
Superficial transverse metatarsal ligament
Branches of internal plantar nerve
Branches of external plantar nerve
Outer portion of plantar fascia
Inner portion of plantar fascia
Branches of external plantar nerve
Thick central portion of plantar fascia
Inner portion of plantar fascia
Outer portion of plantar fascia
Calcaneo-metatarsal ligament

FIG. 294.—THE PLANTAR FASCIA AND PLANTAR CUTANEOUS NERVES.

This central portion of t plantar fascia assists in pr serving the arch of the foot, b drawing the toes and the calcis together.

On each side it is continuo with a much thinner lay which covers the lateral muscl of the sole, and joins the fasc of the dorsum of the foot each border. It also gives ri to intermuscular septa, whic pass upwards on each side the flexor brevis digitoru enclosing that muscle in separate sheath, and givi investments on either side the abductor muscles of t great and little toes. At t outer border of the foot the **calcaneo-metatarsal ligament**, a thickened band of t fascia, connects the tuberosity of the os calcis with the base of the fifth metatar bone.

The **digital sheaths**, though smaller, are the same in arrangement as those the fingers. **Vaginal ligaments** are present in relation to the first and sec phalanges.

THE MUSCLES OF THE LEG AND FOOT.

The muscles of the leg and foot are divisible into three series: (1) the exten muscles on the front of the leg and dorsum of the foot; (2) the peronei on outer side of the leg; and (3) the flexor muscles on the back of the leg and in sole of the foot.

THE MUSCLES ON THE FRONT OF THE LEG AND DORSUM OF THE FOOT.

The muscles on the front of the leg and dorsum of the foot include two grou (1) on the front of the leg, the tibialis anticus, long extensors of the toes peroneus tertius; and (2) on the dorsum of the foot, the extensor brevis digitor

The **tibialis anticus** (m. tibialis anterior) **arises** by fleshy fibres from the ou

ity and the upper two-thirds of the outer surface of the shaft of the tibia, ıe interosseous membrane, from the fascia over it, and from an inter- ır septum externally. The muscle ends in a strong tendon which passes e dorsum of the foot, to be **inserted** into a facet on the anterior and inferior the inner surface of the internal cuneiform and the adjacent inner side of : of the first metatarsal bone (Fig. 295, p. 379).
muscle is superficially placed along the outer side and front of the tibia,

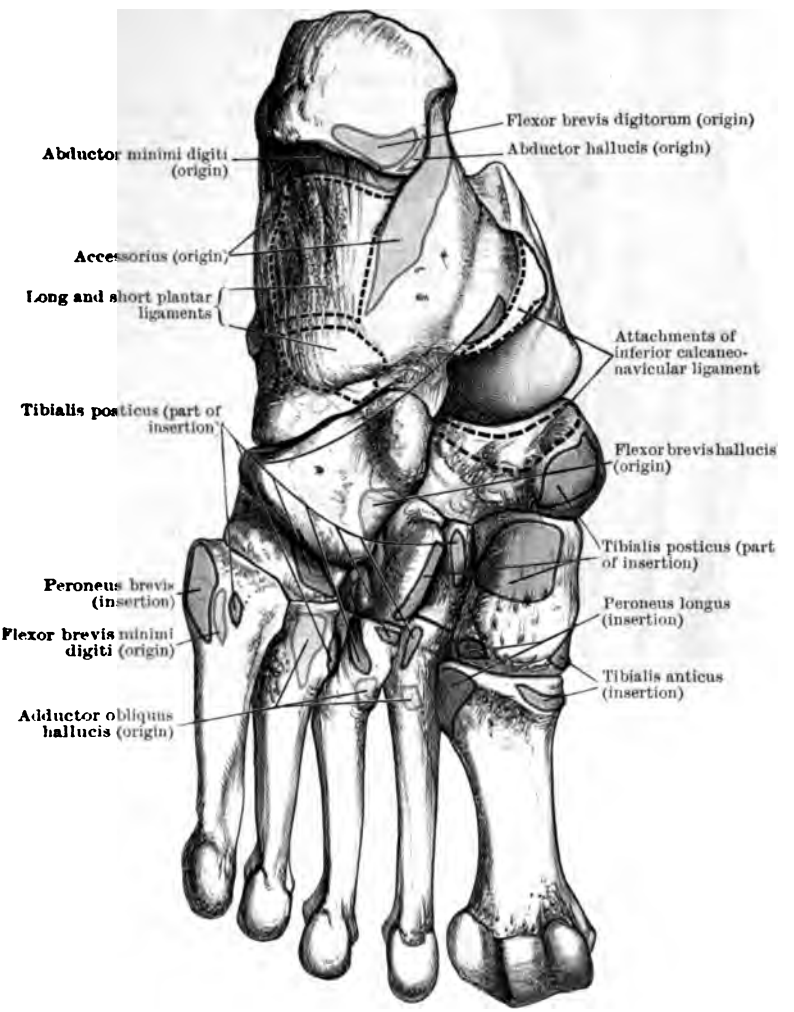


FIG. 295.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO TARSUS AND METATARSUS (Plantar Aspect).

l to the long extensors of the toes and the anterior tibial vessels and nerve. don occupies special compartments beneath both upper and lower parts of erior annular ligament, enclosed in a separate, single, synovial sac.

tibio-fascialis anticus is a separated portion of the muscle occasionally present, inserted fascia on the dorsum of the foot.

extensor longus digitorum arises by fleshy fibres from the outer side of ternal tuberosity of the tibia, from the upper two-thirds or more of the r surface of the shaft of the fibula, from the fascia over it, and from inter- ar septa on either side. It gives rise to a tendon which passes beneath the r annular ligament, and in front of the ankle subdivides into four tendons, l into the four outer toes, exactly in the same way as the corresponding ; in the hand (see p. 347). They form membranous expansions on the

dorsum of the first phalanx, joined by the tendons of the extensor brevis digi lumbricales, and interossei, which separate into one central and two latera attached respectively to the middle and terminal phalanges.

The muscle is superficial, and is placed external to the tibialis anticu extensor proprius hallucis, and internal to the peronei muscles. The mu cutaneous nerve is on its outer side. I ceals the anterior tibial vessels and The tendon occupies a separate compar along with the peroneus tertius benea lower part of the anterior annular lig invested by a special synovial membran

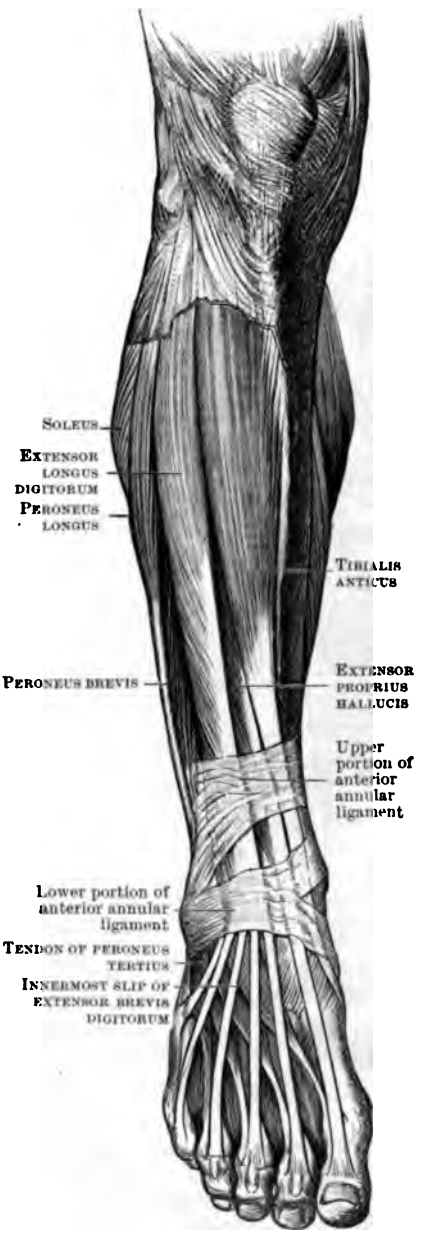


Fig. 296.—Muscles of the Front of the Right Leg and Dorsum of the Foot.

The **peroneus tertius** is a sep portion of the extensor longus digi It is an essentially human muscle. It (inseparably from the extensor longu torum) from the lower part of the a surface of the fibula, from the inter membrane, and from the intermuscular s external to it. The tendon of the mu **inserted** into the dorsal aspect of the the fifth metatarsal bone. It accom the extensor longus digitorum beneat anterior annular ligament, and lies e to the tendons of that muscle on the d of the foot.

The **extensor proprius hallucis** (m. extensor hallucis longus) **arises** by fibres from the front of the fibula middle three-fifths, internal to the ori the extensor longus digitorum, and corresponding extent from the inter membrane. Its tendon passes over the of the foot, to be **inserted** into the the terminal phalanx of the great to the leg the muscle is deeply placed b the tibialis anticus and extensor longu torum. It conceals the anterior tibial and nerve, and crosses the termination anterior tibial artery in front of the joint. It is invested by a special s sac as it lies beneath the lower part anterior annular ligament. On the dor the foot the tendon is placed on the inn of the dorsalis pedis artery.

The **extensor longus primi interno extensor ossis metatarsi hallucis** are o separate slips of this muscle inserted into t of the great toe.

The **extensor brevis digitorum** a the dorsum of the foot by short ter and fleshy fibres from a special impres the upper surface of the greater process os calcis, and from the deep surface of the lower band of the anterior ligament.

It usually gives rise to four fleshy bellies, from which narrow tendc directed forwards and inwards, to be **inserted** into the four inner toes. Th outer tendons join those of the long extensor muscle to form the memb expansions on the dorsum of the toes. The *innermost tendon* is inserted sep into the base of the first phalanx of the great toe.

The muscle is covered by the lower band of the anterior annular ligament, and the tendons of the extensor longus digitorum and peroneus tertius; the slip of the muscle passing to the great toe crosses over the dorsalis pedis artery.

The Muscles on the Outer Side of the Leg.

The muscles on the outer side of the leg comprise the peronei—longus and brevis.

The **peroneus longus arises** by fleshy fibres from the head and the upper two-thirds of the outer surface of the shaft of the fibula, from intermuscular septa on either side, and from the fascia over it. It forms a stout tendon, which hooks round the external malleolus, crosses the outer side of the os calcis, and passing through the groove on the cuboid bone, is directed across the sole of the foot to be **inserted** into the outer sides of the internal cuneiform and the base of the first metatarsal bones (Fig. 295, p. 379). The muscle is placed superficially in the leg, and is separated by intermuscular septa from the extensor longus digitorum and peroneus brevis in front, and the soleus and flexor longus hallucis behind. It partially conceals the peroneus brevis, along with which it passes beneath the external annular ligament, invested by a common synovial sheath. As it enters the sole of the foot a *fibro-cartilage* is formed in the tendon, which plays over a smooth tubercle on the cuboid bone, a bursa intervening. In its passage across the foot the tendon is enclosed in a fibrous sheath reinforced from the inferior calcaneo-cuboid ligaments and the tibialis posticus tendon, and is concealed by the first three layers of the muscles of the sole.

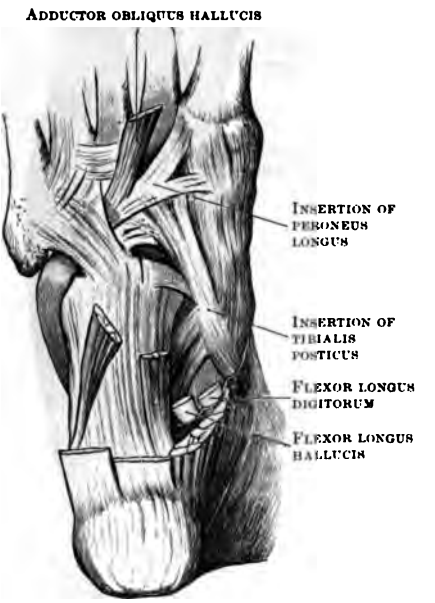


Fig. 297.—The Insertions of the Peroneus Longus and Tibialis Posticus Muscles in the Sole of the Right Foot.

The **peroneus brevis arises** by fleshy fibres from the lower two-thirds of the outer surface of the shaft of the fibula, and from an intermuscular septum along its anterior border. The tendon passes over the back of the external malleolus and the outer side of the os calcis, to be **inserted** into the tubercle and dorsal surface of the base of the fifth metatarsal bone. In the leg the peroneus brevis lies behind the extensor longus digitorum and peroneus tertius, and in front of the peroneus longus, which partially overlaps it. Its tendon lies directly behind the external malleolus beneath the external annular ligament, invested by a synovial sheath common to it and the peroneus longus.

The peroneus longus and brevis may be fused together, or additional slips may be present, as **peroneus accessorius, peroneus quinti digiti, peroneo-calcaneus externus,** and **peroneo-cuboideus.**

The Muscles on the Back of the Leg.

The muscles on the back of the leg are divisible into two layers: (1) a **superficial set,** consisting of the gastrocnemius and soleus (the so-called triceps muscle of the leg), and the plantaris; and (2) a **deep set,** consisting of the popliteus, flexor longus digitorum, tibialis posticus, and flexor longus hallucis.

The **gastrocnemius arises** by *two heads,* inner and outer, by means of strong tendons which are prolonged over the surface of the muscle. The outer head arises by an impression on the upper and posterior part of the outer surface of the external condyle, and from the lower end of the external supra-condyloid ridge; while the inner head arises from a prominent rough mark on the popliteal space of the femur above the internal condyle and from the surface between that and the

adductor tubercle. Each head has an additional origin from the back o capsule of the knee-joint. A bursa lies beneath each tendon of origin. Each belly of the muscle is **inserted** into a broad membranous tendon, prolonged up on its deep surface for some distance. The inner head is the larger.

The **tendo Achillis** is formed by the union of the two membranous inse of the bellies of the gastrocnemius. Prolonged upwards beneath the se bellies, the tendon forms a broad membranous band connecting together the parts of the two bellies. Narr gradually, and becoming thick the lower half of the leg, the t is finally **inserted** into the interm surface on the posterior aspect os calcis. A bursa lies beneat tendon at its insertion. The Achillis also affords insertion soleus and (sometimes) the pla muscles.

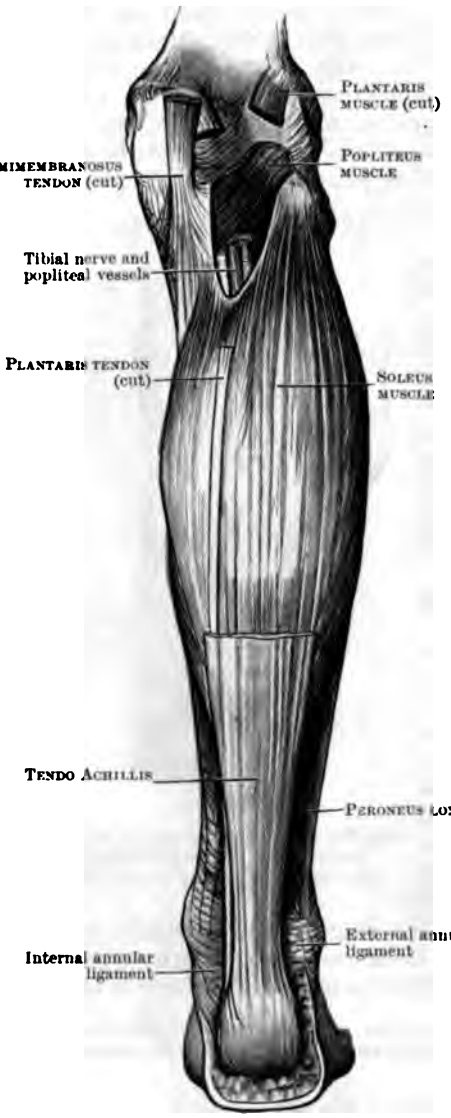


Fig. 298.—The Soleus Muscle.

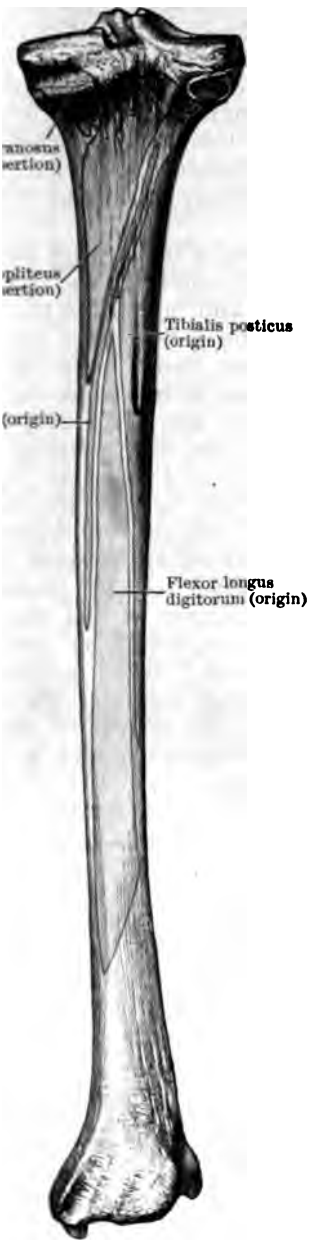
The gastrocnemius is supe except at its origin. The inner is concealed by the semitend and semimembranosus muscle partially covers the popliteal and the tibial nerve in the lowe of their course. It forms part inner boundary of the popliteal The outer head is concealed pa by the biceps tendon and the pe nerve, and covers the plantaris n the popliteal vessels, and the nerve. It forms part of the boundary of the popliteal space. two bellies are for the most pa close contact, the external sapl vein occupying the interval be them. The tendo Achillis i lower half of the leg partially co the soleus and the deeper m The plantaris tendon lies alo inner border.

The **plantaris arises** by fibres from the external supr dyloid ridge of the femur for ab inch at its lower end, from the ad part of the popliteal space of the and from the posterior ligament knee-joint. It forms a narrow slip which ends in a tendon ext down the back of the leg, to be in into the inner side of the tub of the os calcis, or the tendo A or the internal annular ligament. The tendon of the muscle is capable c siderable lateral extension. The plantaris lies between the outer head gastrocnemius and the soleus, and crosses the popliteal vessels and the nerve. In the lower half of the leg its tendon lies along the inner border tendo Achillis. The muscle is not always present.

The **soleus** has a triple **origin** by means of short tendinous and fleshy (1) from the posterior surface of the head and the shaft of the fibula in its third; (2) from a fibrous arch stretching over the popliteal vessels and tibial between the tibia and fibula; and (3) from the oblique line and middle th

r border of the tibia (Fig. 299, p. 383). From this origin the upper r fibres are directed downwards to join a tendon placed on the superficial f the muscle, which is inserted into the tendo Achillis; the lower fibres ·ted directly into the tendo Achillis to within one or two inches of the os calcis.

The muscle is concealed by the gastrocnemius, plantaris, and tendo Achillis in nearly its whole extent. It is partially superficial on each side of the gastrocnemius



.—Muscle-Attachments to the rior Surface of the Tibia.

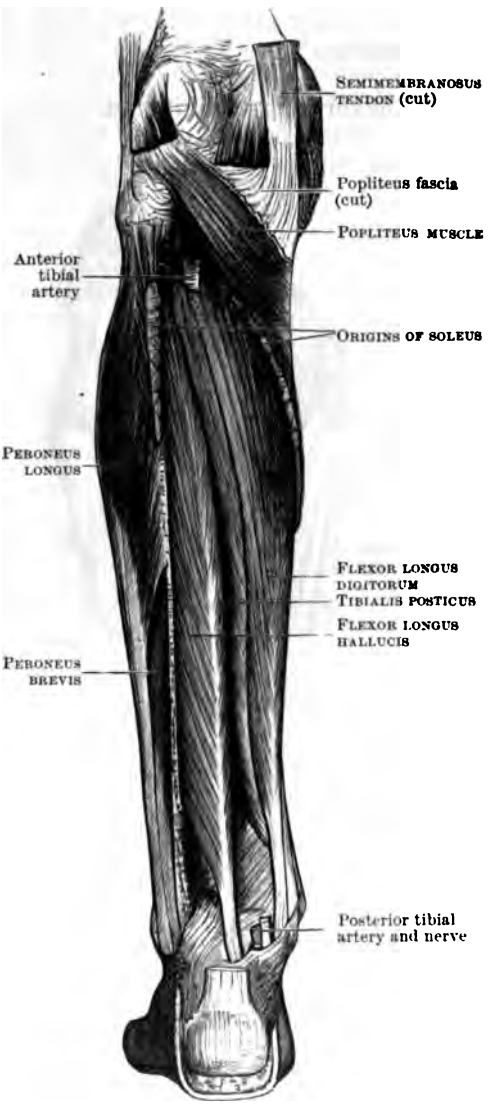


Fig. 300.—The Deep Muscles on the Back of the Left Leg.

do Achillis. The muscle covers the tibialis posticus and the flexor muscles oes as well as the posterior tibial vessels and nerve.

deep muscles of the back of the leg comprise the popliteus, the long flexors oes, and the tibialis posticus.

popliteus is deeply placed behind the knee. It arises by a stout tendon rough impression in front of a groove on the outer aspect of the external

condyle of the femur. This tendon passes between the external semilunar ca and the capsule of the knee-joint, and pierces the posterior ligament, from it takes an additional fleshy origin. A bursa is placed beneath the tendon, communicates usually with the synovial cavity of the knee-joint. The mu **inserted** by fleshy fibres (1) into a triangular surface on the back of the tibia the oblique line (except a small area below the fibular facet) (Fig. 299, p. 38 (2) into the fascia over it (the popliteus fascia, derived from the tendon of the membranosus muscle). The popliteus is covered at its origin by the capsule knee-joint. Posteriorly it is concealed by the gastrocnemius and plantaris m and by the popliteal vessels and the tibial nerve. Its lower border corresp the point of bifurcation of the popliteal artery and the origin of the soleus n

The **popliteus minor** is a small occasional muscle attached to the popliteal space of th and the posterior ligament of the knee-joint.

The **flexor longus digitorum** occupies both the back of the leg and the the foot. Its **origin** is by fleshy fibres from the posterior surface of the shaft tibia in its middle three-fifths, below the oblique line, and internal to the line and the origin of the posticus, from the fascia and from an intermuscular on each side (Fig. 299, p Its tendon, after passing b the internal annular lig enters the sole of the fo divides into four subordina dons, which are **inserted** in four outer toes in precise same manner as the flexo fundus digitorum is inser the hand. Each tendon the digital sheath of the tc forates the tendon of the brevis digitorum, and is ir into the base of the te phalanx. **Ligamenta acc** (**longa** and **brevia**) are pres in the hand. Associated this muscle in the sole of tl are the lumbricales and sorius muscles.

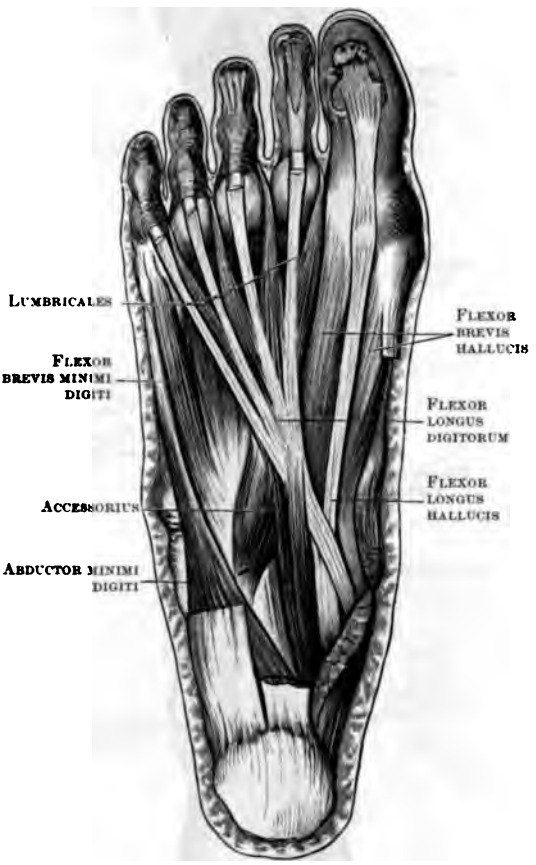


FIG. 301.—THE MUSCLES OF THE RIGHT FOOT (after removal of the first layer).

The **lumbricales** are fou muscles **arising** in associatio the tendons of the flexor pro digitorum in the sole. Th *muscle* arises by a single origi the tibial side of the ten the flexor longus digitoru the second toe; the *other* arise by two heads fro adjacent sides of all four te Each muscle is **inserted** in dorsal expansion of the extensor tendon, the metatarso-phalangeal capsul the base of the first phalanx, precisely as in the case of the lumbrical n of the hand. Each muscle passes forwards on the tibial side of the corresp toe, superficial to the transverse metatarsal ligament.

The **flexor accessorius muscle** (m. quadratus plantæ) **arises** by two hea the outer tendinous head springs from the outer border of the inferior sur the os calcis and from the outer border of the long plantar ligament; (2) the head, which is fleshy, arises from the concave inner surface of the os calcis whole extent, and from the inner border of the long plantar ligament (Fi

379). The long plantar ligament separates the two origins. The two heads ite to form a flattened band, which is **inserted** into the upper aspect of the ıdons of the flexor longus digitorum, and usually into those destined for the :ond, third, and fourth toes.

In the leg the flexor longus digitorum lies at first internal to the tibialis sticus, and is partially concealed by the soleus and tendo Achillis. Its tendon ɔsses over the tibialis posticus above the ankle-joint, passes beneath the internal nular ligament, invested by a special synovial sheath, and below the ligament ɔsses the plantar or superficial surface of the tendon of the flexor longus hallucis. ı it passes over this tendon it receives from it a special band of fibres, usually sociated with the tendons for the second and third toes.

In the sole of the foot the tendons of the flexor longus digitorum, along with the mbricales and accessorius, and the flexor longus hallucis muscles, constitute the cond layer of muscles of the sole. They are placed between the abductors of the eat and little toes and the flexor brevis digitorum on the one hand, and the flexor evis and adductors of the great toe on the other.

The flexor longus hallucis arises by fleshy fibres on the back of the leg from e lower two-thirds of the posterior surface of the shaft of the fibula, from the scia over it, and from intermuscular septa on either side. Its tendon passes neath the internal annular ligament enclosed in a special synovial sheath, and ter grooving the back of the lower end of the tibia, the astragalus, and the under rface of the sustentaculum tali of the os calcis, it is directed forwards in the le of the foot, to be **inserted** into the base of the terminal phalanx of the great toe.

The muscle is partially concealed in the leg by the soleus and tendo Achillis. ; lies at its origin between the tibialis posticus and the peronei muscles, separated om the former by the peroneal artery. In the foot, concealed by the abductor allucis, it crosses over the deep aspect of the tendon of the flexor longus digitorum,) which it is connected by a strong fibrous band destined for the tendons for the cond and third toes. At the root of the great toe the tendon occupies the ıterval between the insertions of the flexor brevis hallucis.

The **tibialis posticus muscle** (m. tibialis posterior) has a fourfold fleshy **origin** ı the leg. It arises (1) from the upper four-fifths of the shaft of the fibula etween the oblique line and the interosseous border; (2) from the lower part of he outer tuberosity of the tibia and from the upper two-thirds of the shaft of the one below the oblique line and between the vertical line and the interosseous order (Fig. 299, p. 383); (3) from the interosseous membrane; and (4) from the ascia over it and the septa on either side. The muscle gives rise to a strong endon which passes beneath the internal annular ligament, invested by a special ynovial sheath, and grooves the back of the internal malleolus, on its way to the nner border of the foot. The tendon then spreads out and is **inserted** by three ands into (1) the tubercle of the navicular bone and the plantar surfaces of the nternal and middle cuneiform bones, (2) the plantar aspects of the second, hird, fourth, and sometimes the fifth metatarsal bones, the middle and external uneiform bones, and the groove on the cuboid, and (3) by a recurrent slip ıto the inner border of the sustentaculum tali of the os calcis from which a .brous expansion passes outwards to join the inner border of the short plantar igament (Fig. 302, p. 386).

In the leg the tibialis posticus is concealed, as it lies on the interosseous membrane between the tibia and fibula, by the superficial muscles and the posterior ibial vessels and nerve. It lies between the flexor longus hallucis and flexor ɔngus digitorum, and is crossed by the tendon of the latter muscle just above the nkle. Just below the knee between its tibial and fibular origins is an angular pace through which the anterior tibial vessels pass. In the foot its tendon is overed by the long flexor tendons and by the short flexor muscles of the great toe. :he tendon is in contact with the inferior calcaneo-navicular ligament in the nterval between the sustentaculum tali and the navicular bone.

The **peroneo-calcaneus** muscle, when present, **arises** from the fibula, and is **inserted** into the s calcis.

The Muscles in the Sole of the Foot.

The muscles in the sole of the foot are divisible into four layers placed be the plantar fascia.

First layer: Abductor hallucis, flexor brevis digitorum, abductor minimi di

Second layer: Lumbricales and accessorius, together with the tendons of flexor longus hallucis and flexor longus digitorum.

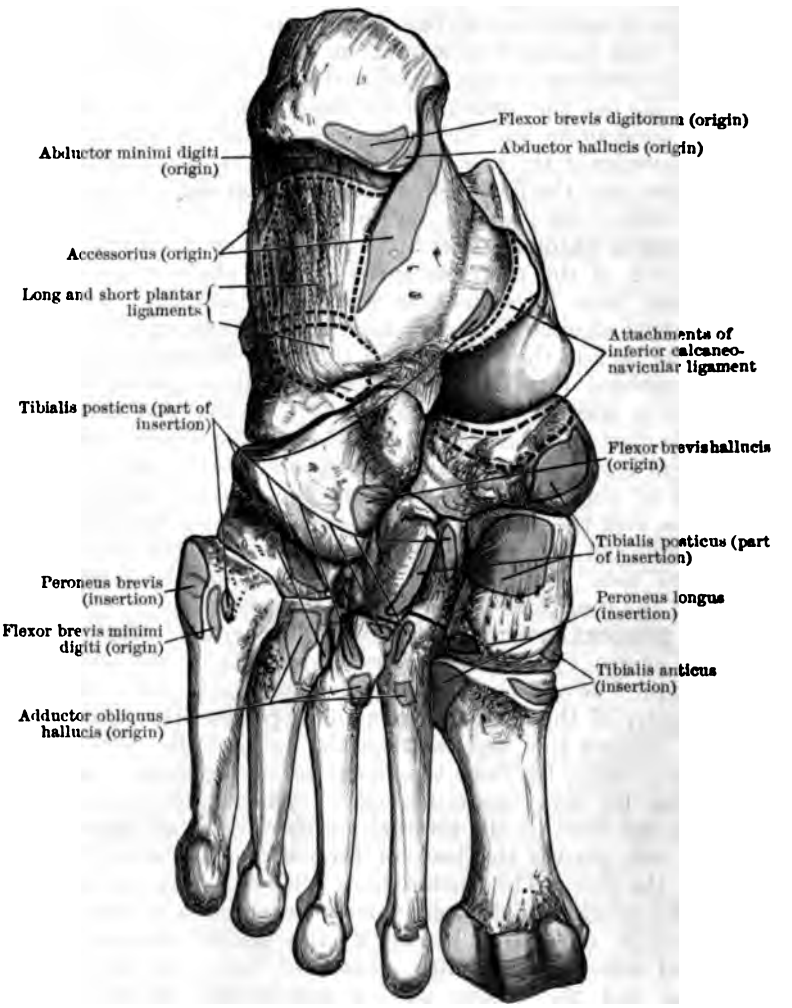


Fig. 302.—Muscle-Attachments to Tarsus and Metatarsus (Plantar Aspect).

Third layer: Flexor brevis hallucis, adductors of the great toe, and flexor brevis minimi digiti.

Fourth layer: Interossei (plantar and dorsal).

The **abductor hallucis** has a double **origin**, (1) by a short tendon from the inner side of the greater tubercle on the tuberosity of the os calcis (Fig. 302, p. 386), and (2) by fleshy fibres from the internal annular ligament, the plantar fascia which covers it, and the intermuscular septum between it and the flexor brevis digitorum. Lying superficially along the inner border of the sole, its tendon is **inserted**, along with part of the flexor brevis hallucis, into the inner side of the posterior end of the first phalanx of the great toe. The muscle lies beneath the plantar fascia, internal to the flexor brevis digitorum, and conceals the plantar vessels and nerves, and near its origin the long flexor tendons.

The **flexor brevis digitorum** has likewise a double **origin**: (1) by a short

om the fore-part of the greater
f the tuberosity of the os calcis
, p. 386), and (2) by fleshy
m the thick central part of the
ascia which covers it, and from
muscular septa on either side.
forwards, it gives rise to four
endons, which are **inserted** into
l phalanges of the four outer toes,
ing been perforated, just as in the
ıe tendons of the flexor sublimis
ı of the hand, by the long flexor
Placed in the centre of the sole
the plantar fascia, and between
ctor hallucis and abductor minimi
uscles, the muscle conceals the
yer of muscles and the external
essels and nerve.

bductor minimi digiti (m. ab-
igiti quinti) has also a double
l) by fleshy and tendinous fibres
fore-part of both tubercles on
rosity of the os calcis, partly
l by the flexor brevis digitorum
, p. 386), and (2) by fleshy fibres
e outer portion of the plantar

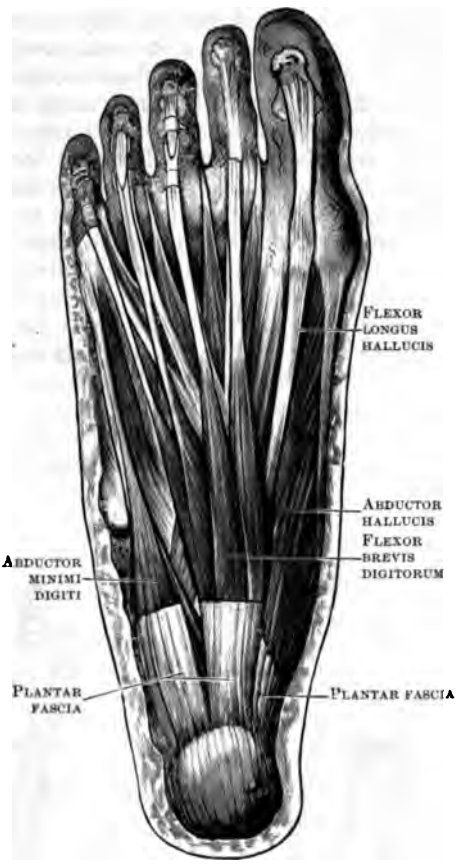


FIG. 303.—THE MUSCLES OF THE RIGHT FOOT (after removal of the plantar fascia).

—THE MUSCLES OF THE RIGHT FOOT (after removal of the second layer).

fascia and the calcaneo-metatarsal ligament, and from the intermuscular septum between it and the flexor brevis digitorum. Its tendon lies along the fifth metatarsal bone, and is **inserted** by a tendon into the outer side of the posterior end of the first phalanx of the little toe. The outermost fibres usually obtain an additional insertion into the outer side of the plantar surface of the fifth metatarsal bone. It lies on the outer side of the flexor brevis digitorum, and partially conceals the flexor brevis minimi digiti.

The tendons of the long flexors of the toes, the **lumbricales** and **accessorius muscles**, constituting the **second layer of muscles**, have already been described. Lying beneath the abductor hallucis and the flexor brevis digitorum, and separated from them by the

plantar vessels and nerves, they occupy the hollow of the tarsus and the between the first and fifth metatarsal bones; their deep surfaces are in c with the adductors of the great toe and the interossei muscles.

The **flexor brevis hallucis** arises by tendinous fibres (1) from the inner the under surface of the cuboid bone (Fig. 302, p. 386), and (2) from the t of the tibialis posticus. Directed forwards over the first metatarsal bon muscle separates into two parts, between which is the tendon of the flexor l hallucis. Each portion gives rise to a tendon which is **inserted** into the sponding side of the base of the first phalanx of the great toe; in each t under the metatarso-phalangeal articulation, a sesamoid bone is developed. inner tendon is united with the insertion of the abductor, the outer tendo the insertions of the adductor muscles of the great toe.

The **adductor obliquus hallucis** arises by fleshy and short tendinous fibres (1 the sheath of the peroneus longus, and (2) from the plantar surfaces of the po extremities of the second, third, and fourth metatarsal bones (Fig. 302, p. Occupying the hollow of the foot, on a deeper plane than the long flexor t and lumbricales, and separated from the interossei by the plantar arch, it is on the outer side flexor brevis hallu is directed obliqu wards and forwa be **inserted** on the side of the base first phalanx of th toe between and with the flexor bre adductor transv hallucis. The forms one side of angular space in t through which t ternal plantar and nerve pass.

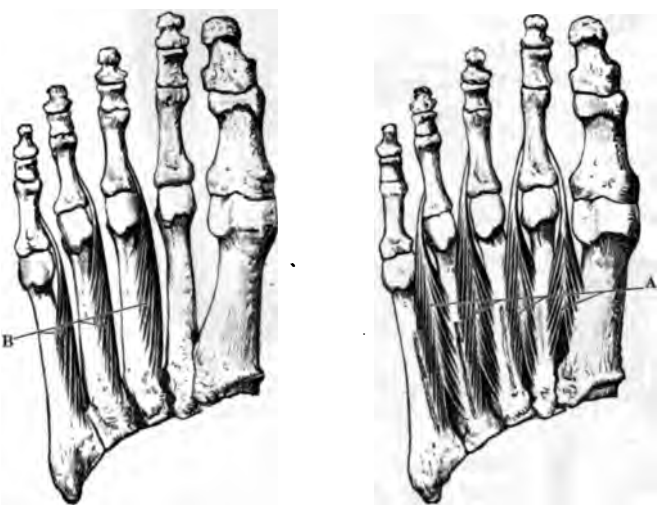


FIG. 305.—INTEROSSEOUS MUSCLES OF THE FOOT.

A, Dorsal muscles (plantar aspect); B, Plantar muscles of the right foot.

The **adductor versus hallucis** from (1) the caps the outer four met phalangeal articu and (2) the tra metatarsal ligament. Directed transversely inwards, under cover of the tendons and lumbricales, the muscle is **inserted**, along with the ad obliquus (from which it is separated by an angular interval), into the side of the base of the first phalanx of the great toe.

The **flexor brevis minimi digiti** (m. flexor brevis digiti quinti) from (1) the sheath of the peroneus longus, and (2) the base of th metatarsal bone (Fig. 302, p. 386). Partially concealed by the abductor digiti, the muscle passes along the fifth metatarsal bone, to be **inserted**, in c with that muscle, into the outer side of the base of the first phalanx of the lit

The **interossei muscles** of the foot resemble those of the hand except respect. In the hand the line of action of the muscles is the middle line middle finger. In the foot the *second toe* is the digit round which the musc grouped, and their attachments and their actions differ accordingly.

There are four dorsal and three plantar muscles, which occupy together t interosseous spaces, and project into the hollow of the foot.

The **four dorsal muscles**, one in each interosseous space, **arise** by two hea from the shafts of the metatarsal bones. Each gives rise to a tendon, whic passing dorsal to the transverse metatarsal ligament, is **inserted** on the dorsum foot into the side of the first phalanx, the metatarso-phalangeal capsule, a dorsal expansion of the extensor tendon. The *first* and *second muscles* are i

the second toe on the tibial and fibular sides respectively. The *third* and *th muscles* are inserted into the third and fourth toes on their fibular sides. The **three plantar muscles** occupy the three outer interosseous spaces. Each s by a single head from the tibial side of the third, fourth, and fifth metatarsal es respectively. Each ends in a tendon which passes dorsal to the transverse atarsal ligament, and is **inserted**, in the same manner as the dorsal muscles, into third, fourth, and fifth toes on their tibial side.

NERVE-SUPPLY OF THE MUSCLES OF THE LEG AND FOOT.

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Tibialis anticus	anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Extensor proprius hallucis	anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Extensor longus digitorum	anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Peroneus tertius	anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Peroneus longus	musculo-cutaneous	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Peroneus brevis	musculo-cutaneous	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Extensor brevis digitorum	anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Plantaris	tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Popliteus	tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Gastrocnemius	tibial	S. 1. 2.
Soleus	tibial	S. 1. 2.
Soleus	tibial	S. 1. 2.
Flexor longus digitorum	posterior tibial	L. 5. S. 1. 2.
Tibialis posticus	posterior tibial	L. 5. S. 1.
Flexor longus hallucis	posterior tibial	L. 5. S. 1.
Abductor hallucis	posterior tibial	L. 5. S. 1. 2.
Flexor brevis digitorum	internal plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Flexor brevis hallucis	internal plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
First lumbricalis	internal plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
Second, third, and fourth lumbricales	external plantar	S. 1. 2.
Flexor accessorius	external plantar	S. 1. 2.
Adductores hallucis	external plantar	S. 1. 2.
Interossei	external plantar	S. 1. 2.
Flexor brevis minimi digiti	external plantar	S. 1. 2.
Abductor minimi digiti	external plantar	S. 1. 2.

ACTION OF THE MUSCLES OF THE LEG AND FOOT.

The muscles of the leg and foot act chiefly in the movements of the ankle-joint (assisted by ements of the inter-tarsal joints); of the metatarso-phalangeal joints (assisted by movements he tarso-metatarsal and inter-metatarsal joints); and of the inter-phalangeal joints of the ral toes.

I. **Tibio-Fibular Articulations.**—The upper tibio-fibular articulation is only capable of it gliding movement, occasioned by the action of the biceps and popliteus and the muscles ng from the fibula.

II. **Movements at the Ankle-Joint.**—The movements at the ankle-joint are movements of on and extension of the foot on the leg, along with inversion and eversion (only during nsion). These movements are produced at the ankle, aided by movements in the inter-tarsal ts, and are occasioned by the following muscles:—

a. Flexion.	Extension.	*b.* Inversion.	Eversion.
bialis anticus	Gastrocnemius	Tibialis anticus	Peroneus tertius
tensor communis digitorum	Plantaris		Peroneus longus
tensor proprius hallucis	Soleus	Tibialis posticus	Peroneus brevis
roneus tertius	Tibialis posticus		
	Peroneus longus		
	Peroneus brevis		
	Flexor longus digitorum		
	Flexor longus hallucis		

III. Movements of the Toes.—*A.* **At the Metatarso-Phalangeal Joints** (assisted by mo ments at the tarso-metatarsal and inter-metatarsal joints).—These movements are flexion a extension, abduction and adduction (in a line corresponding to the axis of the second toe).

a. **Flexion.**	**Extension.**
Flexor longus digitorum Accessorius Lumbricales Flexor longus hallucis Flexor brevis hallucis Flexor brevis digitorum Flexor brevis minimi digiti Interossei	Extensor longus digitorum Extensor brevis digitorum Extensor proprius hallucis

b. **Abduction.**	**Adduction.**
(*From and to the middle line of the second toe.*)	
Abductor hallucis Dorsal interossei Abductor minimi digiti	Adductores hallucis Plantar interossei

B. **At the inter-phalangeal joints** the movements are limited to flexion and extension.

Flexion.	**Extension.**	
Flexor brevis digitorum (*acting on the first joint*)	Extensor longus digitorum	(*acting on bo joints*)
Flexor longus digitorum (*acting on both joints*)	Extensor brevis digitorum	
Flexor longus hallucis (*acting on the hallux*)	Interossei Lumbricales Extensor proprius hallucis	

Movements of the Lower Limb generally.

The characteristic features of the lower limb are stability and strength, and its muscles joints are both subservient to the functions of transmission of weight and of locomotion. In standing position the centre of gravity of the trunk falls between the heads of the fem and is located about the middle of the body of the last lumbar vertebra. It is transmi through the bones of the lower limb to the arch of the foot, where the astragalus distribute backwards through the os calcis to the heel, and forwards through the tarsus and metatarsu the balls of the toes.

Locomotion.—The three chief means of progression are walking, running, and leaping. **walking**, the body and its centre of gravity are inclined forwards, the trunk oscillates from to side as it is supported alternately by each foot, the arms swing alternately with the corresp ing leg, and one foot is always on the ground. The act of progression is performed by the aided in two ways by gravity. The movements of the leg are as follows: At the beginnin a step, one leg, so to speak, "shoves off;" the heel is raised and the limb is extended. By action of the muscles flexing the hip and knee-joint, and extending the ankle-joint and toes, limb is raised from the ground sufficiently to clear it, and passes forwards by the actio gravity, aided by the force given to the movement by the extensor muscles. After passing line of the centre of gravity the flexion of the joints ceases, the muscles relax, and the gradually returns to the ground. The other limb then passes through the same cycle, the we of the body now resting on the limb which is in contact with the ground. As the foot rea the ground it, as it were, rolls over it; the heel touches it first, then the sole, and lastly, as foot leaves the ground again, only the toes. In **running**, the previous events are all exagger The time of the event is diminished, while the force and distance are increased. Both feet a the ground at one time; the action of flexors and extensors alternately is much more powerf that on the one hand the knees are drawn upwards to a greater extent in the forward moven and not the whole foot, but only the toes reach the ground in the extension of the limb. attempt is made to bring the foot to the ground in front of the line of the centre of gravity. the same time the trunk is sloped forwards much more than in walking. In **leaping**, the ac of the limbs are still more exaggerated. The movements of flexion of the limb are still marked, and the foot reaches the ground still farther in front of the line of the centre of gra

AXIAL MUSCLES.

THE FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE BACK.

THE FASCIÆ OF THE BACK.

The general fascial investments of the back have been described along with the erficial muscles associated with the shoulder-girdle (p. 318). The latissimus si muscle has been described as arising in large part from the **vertebral apo-rosis.** This is a strong fibrous lamina which conceals the erector spinæ muscle. the loin it extends from the spines of the lumbar vertebræ outwards to the erval between the last rib and the iliac crest, where it is concerned in forming **lumbar fascia.** Below the loin the vertebral aponeurosis is attached to the iliac st, and more internally blends with the subjacent tendinous origin of the erector næ. The fascia ı be followed wards over the ctor spinæ in region of the ɔrax, where it is tached exter-lly to the ribs d is continuous th the inter-stal aponeur-s. In the lower rt of the thorax is replaced by ıscular slips— serratus posti-inferior; in upper part of e thorax it ses beneath the ratus posticus perior and nds with the ep cervical cia.

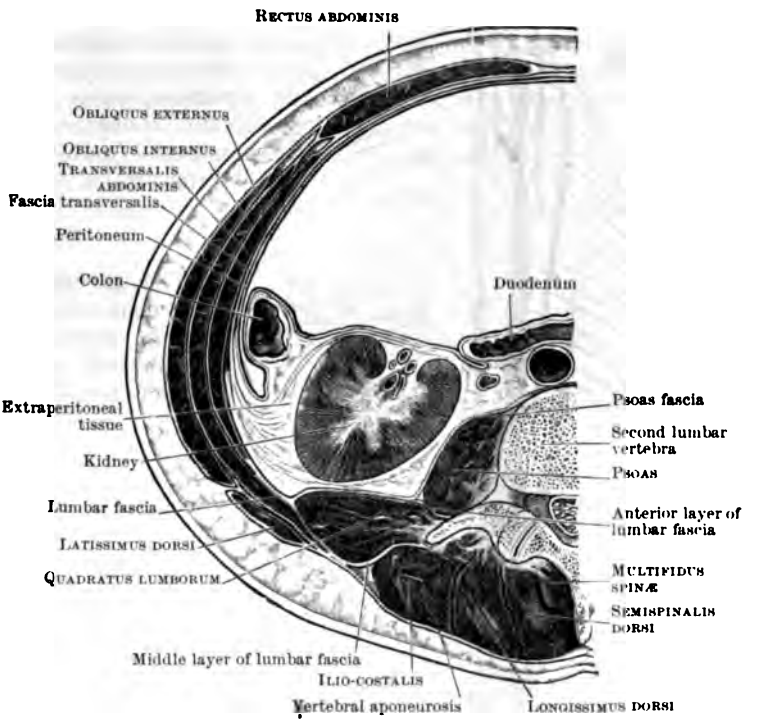


Fig. 306.—Transverse Section through the Abdomen, opposite the Second Lumbar Vertebra.

The **lumbar cia** is a narrow ımentous band ich connects last rib to the iliac crest between the muscles of the back on the one hand and se of the abdominal wall on the other. It is formed by the union of three fascial ıta, called respectively the **vertebral aponeurosis** or posterior layer, just described; middle, and the anterior layers. The **middle layer** is a fascia which stretches wards from the ends of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ, between erector spinæ behind and the quadratus lumborum muscle in front. The **anterior er** is attached to the lumbar vertebræ near the bases of their transverse processes. covers the front of the quadratus lumborum muscle, and separates it from the as. The **psoas fascia** is continuous at the outer border of the psoas muscle with anterior layer of the lumbar fascia. At the outer borders of the quadratus ıborum and erector spinæ muscles the three layers are blended together to form lumbar fascia, which in turn gives partial origin to the obliquus internus and ınsversalis abdominis muscles.

THE MUSCLES OF THE BACK.

The muscles of the back are arranged in four series according to their at ments: (1) vertebro-scapular and vertebro-humeral, (2) vertebro-costal vertebro-cranial, and (4) vertebral. They are in irregular strata, the superficial muscles having the widely spread attachments.

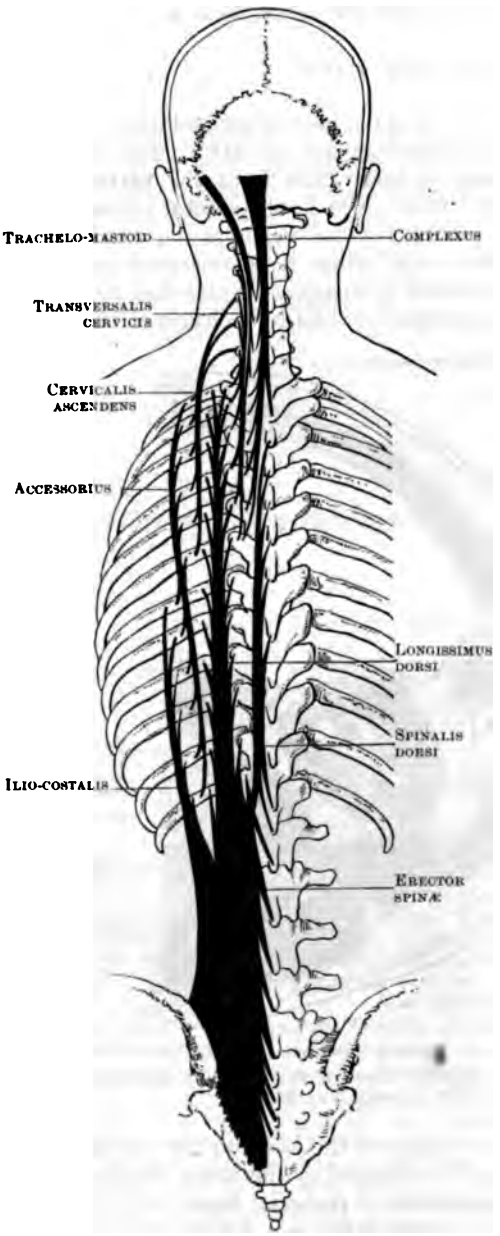


FIG. 307.—SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE PARTS OF THE ERECTOR SPINÆ MUSCLE.

The first series of muscles of back, connecting the axial skelet the upper limb, have already described. They are arranged in layers: (1) trapezius and latiss dorsi superficially; (2) levator a scapulæ, and rhomboidei, beneath trapezius.

The remaining muscles are al entirely axial, and may be div according to position, into four gr (1) serrati postici, superior and inf splenius capitis and splenius colli erector spinæ and complexus; (3) t verso-spinales (semispinalis and m fidus spinæ); and (4) the small muscles (rotatores, interspinales, i transversales, and suboccipital mus

FIRST GROUP.

The **serratus posticus sup** has a membranous **origin** from the mentum nuchæ and the spines o last cervical and upper three or thoracic vertebræ. It is directe liquely downwards and outwards, **inserted** by separate slips into the se third, fourth, and fifth ribs. The m is concealed by the vertebro-sca muscles, and crosses obliquely splenius, erector spinæ, and compl It lies superficial to the vert aponeurosis.

The **serratus posticus inferio** a membranous **origin** through medium of the vertebral aponeu from the last two thoracic and firs lumbar spinous processes. It form muscular bands which pass a horizontally outwards to an **ins** into the last four ribs. The mus slips overlap one another from upwards. The muscle is on the plane as the vertebral aponeurosis is concealed by the latissimus dor

The **splenius muscle** is a broad, flattened band which occupies the back neck and the upper part of the thoracic region. It **arises** from the ligamentum n (from the level of the fourth cervical vertebra downwards) and from the sp processes of the last cervical and higher (four to six) thoracic vertebræ. Its extend upwards and outwards into the neck, separating in their course in upper and a lower part. The upper part forms the **splenius capitis**, whi **inserted** into the mastoid process and the outer part of the superior curved li

occipital bone (Fig. 312, p. 397). The lower part forms the **splenius colli cervicis**, which is **inserted** into the posterior tubercles of the transverse processes the upper three or four cervical vertebræ, behind the origin of the levator guli scapulæ. The muscle is partially concealed by the trapezius and sterno-astoid, and appears between them in the floor of the posterior triangle of the ck (splenius capitis). It is covered by the rhomboid muscles, levator anguli apulæ, and serratus posticus superior. It conceals the transversalis cervicis, achelo-mastoid, and complexus muscles.

Second Group.

The erector spinæ (m. sacro-spinalis) possesses vertebral, vertebro-cranial, and rtebro-costal attachments. It consists of an elongated mass composed of separated ps extending from the sacrum to the skull. Simple at its origin, it becomes ore and more complex as it is traced upwards towards the head. It **arises** (1) by eshy fibres from the iliac crest; (2) from the posterior sacro-iliac ligament; and) by tendinous fibres continuous with the former from the iliac crest, the back of e sacrum, and the spines of the upper sacral and all the lumbar vertebræ. Its ores extend upwards through the loin, enclosed between the posterior and middle yers of the lumbar fascia, and separate into two columns—an outer portion erived from the external fleshy origin, the **ilio-costalis**, and an inner portion comrising the remaining larger part of the muscle, the **longissimus dorsi**.

The **ilio-costalis** (m. ilio-costalis lumborum) is **inserted** by six slender slips into he lower six ribs.

Internal to the insertion of each is the origin of a slip of the **accessorius muscle**

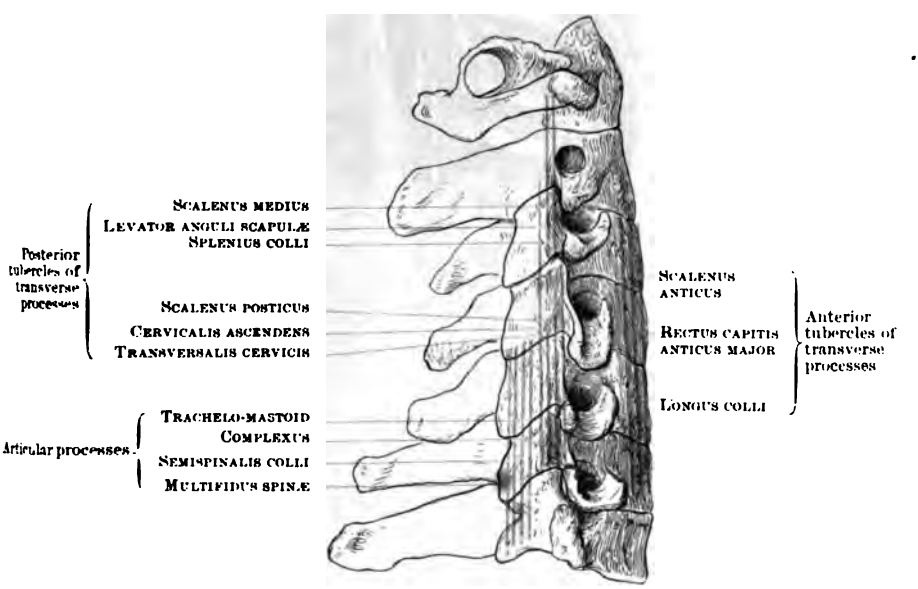


Fig. 308.—Scheme of Muscular-Attachments to the Transverse Processes of the Cervical Vertebræ.

m. ilio-costalis dorsi), which, **arising** from the lower six ribs internal to the ilio-ostalis, is **inserted** in line with it by similar slips into the upper six ribs.

The **cervicalis ascendens** (m. ilio-costalis cervicis) **arises** in the same way by ix slips from the upper six ribs, internal to the insertions of the accessorius. It orms a narrow band, which, extending into the neck, is **inserted** into the posterior ubercles of the transverse processes of the fourth, fifth, and sixth cervical vertebræ, ehind the scalenus posticus. The ilio-costalis, accessorius, and cervicalis ascendens orm together a continuous muscular column, and constitute the outermost group the component elements of the erector spinæ.

The longissimus dorsi is the largest element in the erector spinæ muscle.

With its cervical prolongations—the transversalis cervicis and trachelo-mast it forms the middle column of the erector spinæ. Mostly tendinous on the su at its origin, it becomes fleshy in the upper part of the loin. It is thickest i loin, and becomes thinner as it passes upwards in the back between the co formed by the ilio-costalis, etc., externally, and the spinalis dorsi internally is **inserted** by two series of slips, inner and outer, externally into nearly al

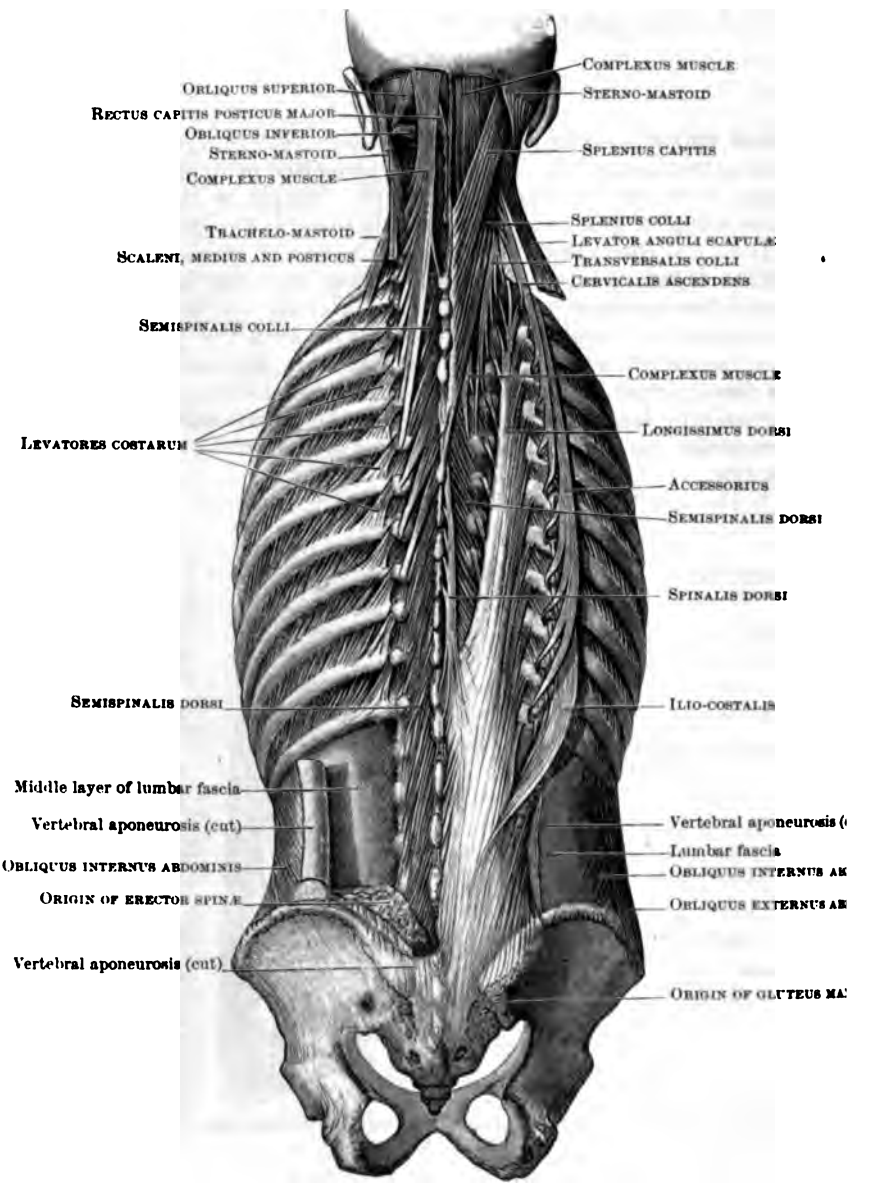


Fig. 309.—Deeper Muscles of the Back.

ribs, and internally into the transverse processes of the thoracic and the acc processes of the upper lumbar vertebræ. It is prolonged upwards into the by its association with the common origin of two muscles, the transversalis c and the trachelo-mastoid.

The **transversalis cervicis** (m. longissimus cervicis) has an **origin** fro transverse processes of the upper six thoracic vertebræ, internal to the inse of the longissimus dorsi. Extending upwards into the neck, it is **inserted** in

tubercles of the transverse processes of the second, third, fourth, fifth, h cervical vertebræ. It lies in the neck, underneath the cervicalis ascendens nius colli muscles.

trachelo-mastoid (m. longissimus capitis) **arises**, partly by an origin to it and the previous muscle, from the transverse processes of the upper ıcic vertebræ, and partly by an additional origin from the articular pro- f the lower four cervical vertebræ. Separating from the transversalis the muscle ascends through the neck as a narrow band which is **inserted** mastoid process beneath the splenius capitis muscle. In the neck the s placed between the splenius capitis and complexus.

spinalis dorsi forms the innermost column of the erector spinæ. It the thoracic portion of the back, and **arises** by tendinous fibres from the o thoracic and upper two lumbar spinous processes, and also directly from on of the longissimus dorsi. It is a narrow muscle which, lying close to ıcic spinous processes internal to the longissimus dorsi and complexus, is into the upper (four to eight) thoracic spines. This muscle is not prolonged neck. It partially covers the semispinalis, dorsi, and colli.

erector spinæ muscle is bound down by the vertebral aponeurosis, and ıled by the more superficial muscles (sterno-mastoid, trapezius, levator :apulæ, rhomboids, splenius, serrati postici). It covers the ribs posteriorly, ially conceals the semispinales and complexus muscles.

complexus muscle (m. semispinalis capitis) closely resembles in position :hments the trachelo-mastoid. It takes **origin** by tendinous slips from the ;e processes of the upper six thoracic and the articular processes of the ur cervical vertebræ, internal to the transversalis cervicis and trachelo-

It has an additional origin also from the spinous process of the last vertebra. It forms a broad muscular sheet which extends upwards in the be **inserted** by fleshy and short tendinous fibres into the inner impression the superior and inferior curved lines of the occipital bone (Fig. 312,

The inner portion of the muscle is separate, and forms the **biventer** consisting of two fleshy bellies with an intervening tendon, placed vertically :t with the ligamentum nuchæ. The insertion of the muscle is crossed by pital artery. The complexus is covered mainly by the splenius and ·mastoid muscles. It conceals the semispinalis colli and the muscles of ccipital triangle, along with the accompanying vessels and nerves.

Third Group.

group comprises the semispinales and multifidus spinæ.

e muscles are only incompletely separate from one another. The semi- dorsi, and colli, form a superficial stratum, the multifidus spinæ being more aced. The more superficial muscles have the longer fibres; the fibres of the ıs spinæ pass over fewer vertebræ. Both muscles extend obliquely upwards ısverse to spinous processes.

semispinalis muscle extends from the loin to the axis vertebra. Its e artificially separated into an inferior part, the **semispinalis dorsi**, and r part, the **semispinalis colli**.

semispinalis dorsi arises from the transverse processes of the lower six vertebræ. It is **inserted** into the spinous processes of the last two cervical four thoracic vertebræ.

semispinalis colli or **cervicis arises** from the transverse processes of the thoracic vertebræ and the articular processes of the lower four cervical

It is **inserted** into the spines of the cervical vertebræ from the second to

The semispinalis muscle occupies the vertebral furrow, and is concealed ector spinæ and complexus; it covers the multifidus spinæ muscle. It is me plane as the muscles of the suboccipital triangle.

nultifidus spinæ differs from the previous muscle in extending from the o the axis, and in the shortness of its fasciculi, which pass over fewer to reach their insertion. It **arises** from the sacrum, from the posterior

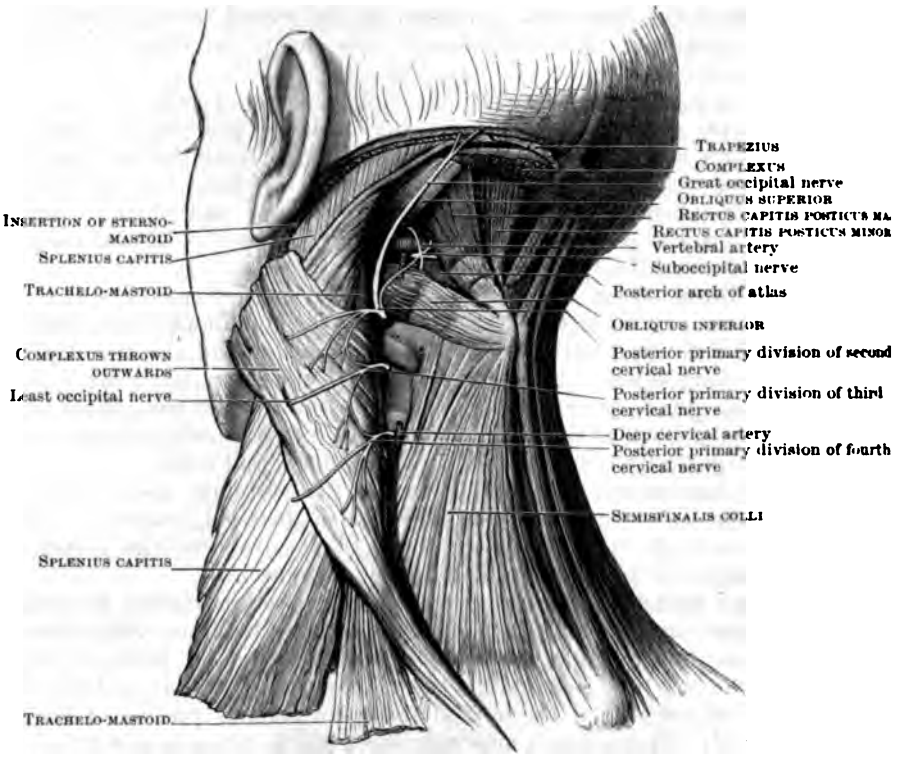


Fig. 310.—The Suboccipital Triangle.

sacro-iliac ligament (Fig. 311, p. 396), from the mammillary processes of

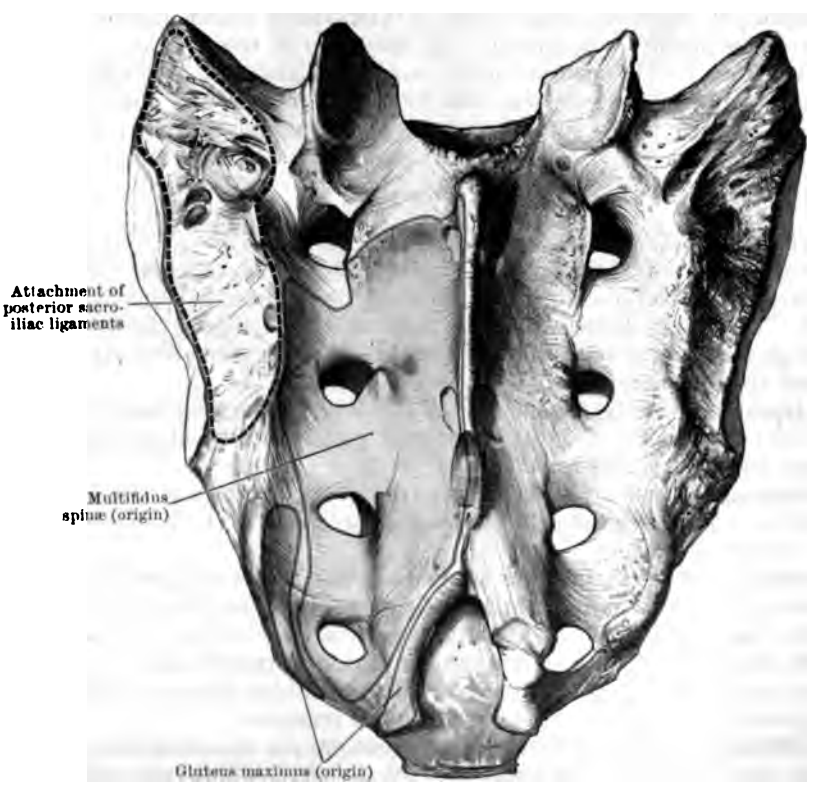


Fig. 311.—Muscle-Attachments to the Sacrum (Posterior Aspect).

ıbar vertebræ, from the transverse processes of the thoracic vertebræ, and from articular processes of the lower four cervical vertebræ. It is **inserted** into the nes of the vertebræ up to and including the axis. Lying in contact with the tebral laminæ, the muscle is covered in the back and neck by the semispinalis, l in the loin by the erector spinæ muscle.

Fourth Group.

This group includes several sets of small muscles, which are vertebro-cranial or er-vertebral in their attachments.

The muscles bounding the **suboccipital triangle** are four in number—obliquus erior, obliquus superior, rectus capitis posticus major, and rectus capitis posticus nor.

These muscles are concealed by the complexus and splenius capitis; they enclose triangular space (the suboccipital triangle) in which the vertebral artery, posterior primary division of the suboccipital nerve, and the posterior arch of

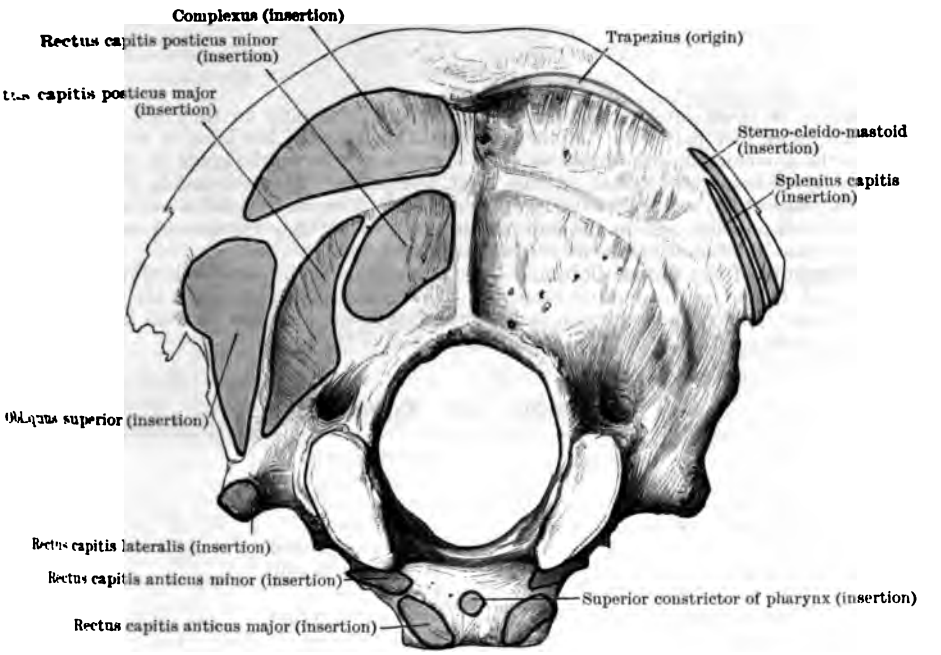


Fig. 312.—Muscle-Attachments to Occipital Bone (Inferior Surface).

the atlas are contained. The obliquus inferior is separated from the semispinalis muscle by the great occipital (second cervical) nerve.

The **obliquus inferior arises** from the spine of the axis, and is **inserted** into the transverse process of the atlas.

The **obliquus superior arises** from the transverse process of the atlas, and is **inserted** into the occipital bone beneath and external to the complexus and above the inferior curved line (Fig. 312, p. 397).

The **rectus capitis posticus major arises** from the spine of the axis, and is **inserted** into the occipital bone beneath the obliquus superior and complexus, and below the inferior curved line (Fig. 312, p. 397).

The **rectus capitis posticus minor arises** beneath the previous muscle from the spine of the atlas, and is **inserted** into the occipital bone below the inferior curved line internal to and beneath the rectus capitis posticus major (Fig. 312, p. 397).

The **rotatores dorsi** are eleven pairs of small muscles occupying the vertebral groove in the thoracic region, beneath the transverso-spinales, of which they form the deepest fibres. Each consists of a small slip **arising** from the transverse process, and **inserted** into the lamina of the vertebra directly above.

The **inter-spinales** are bands of muscular fibres connecting together the s processes of the vertebræ.

The **inter-transversales** are slender slips extending between the trai processes. They are double in the neck, the anterior divisions of the spinal passing between them.

The **rectus capitis lateralis**, extending from the transverse process of th to the jugular process of the occipital bone (Fig. 312, p. 397), is homologou the posterior of the two inter-transverse muscles. In the loin the inter-transv muscles are usually double, but they are often absent, or are replaced by mem

Nerve-Supply.

With the exception of the vertebro-scapular and vertebro-humeral muscles (tr latissimus dorsi, levator anguli scapulæ, rhomboidei, p. 318), the muscles of the back supplied by the *posterior primary divisions* of the spinal nerves. In the upper part of th the muscles are supplied mainly by the external branches; in the lower part chiefly internal branches of the nerves. In the cervical and sacral regions a limited plexiform a ment of the nerves occurs (*posterior cervical* and *posterior sacral plexuses*).

Actions.

The action of these muscles is extremely complex. Not only do they act on the column, ribs, head, and pelvis, in conjunction with other muscles, but some of them act relation to the movements of the limbs as well. In this section will be given an analysis movements in relation to the spinal column, head, and pelvis. The movements of the li of the ribs (respiration) are dealt with in other sections. The chief muscles are engaged serving the erect position, and in the movements of the trunk they are assisted in large by muscles whose chief movements are referred to elsewhere.

1. **Movements of the Spinal Column.**—The movements of the vertebral column are extension, and lateral movement or rotation. These movements occur in all regions thorax, and loin; flexion and extension and lateral movement are most limited in the r the thorax; while rotation is most limited in the region of the loin.

a. **Flexion** and **Extension.**

Longus colli	Serrati postici
Rectus capitis anticus major	Splenius capitis
Scaleni antici (together)	Splenius colli
Psoas magnus and parvus	Erector spinæ
Levator ani	Semispinalis dorsi
Ischio-coccygeus	Semispinalis colli
	Complexus
Sphincter ani externus	Multifidus spinæ
Rectus abdominis	Interspinales
Pyramidalis abdominis	
Obliquus externus abdominis	Intercostal muscles
Obliquus internus „	Diaphragm
Transversalis „	Triangularis sterni

b. **Lateral Movement (Rotation).**

Levator anguli scapulæ	Rectus capitis anticus major
Serrati postici	Scaleni, anticus, medius, posticus
Splenius colli	Psoas (magnus and parvus)
Erector spinæ	Quadratus lumborum
Complexus	Obliquus externus abdominis
Semispinalis	Obliquus internus „
Multifidus spinæ	Transversalis „
Rotatores dorsi	Rectus „
Inter-transversales	Pyramidalis „
Longus colli	

2. **Movements of the Head.**—The movements of the head are flexion and extension occipito-atlantoid articulation; lateral movement and rotation at the atlanto-axial joint.

a. **Flexion** and **Extension.**	
tric	Sterno-mastoid
-hyoid	Splenius capitis
-pharyngeus	Trachelo-mastoid
-hyoid	Complexus
glossus	Obliquus inferior
o-hyoid	Recti capitis postici (major and minor)
o-thyroid	
hyoid	
capitis antici (major and minor)	
(the muscles of both sides acting together)	

b. **Lateral Movement.**	*c.* **Rotation.**
o-mastoid	Sterno-mastoid
ius capitis	Splenius capitis
elo-mastoid	Trachelo-mastoid
lexus	Complexus
uus superior	Obliquus inferior
s capitis lateralis	„ superior
	Recti capitis postici (major and minor)

ients of the Pelvis.—The movements of the pelvis (as in locomotion) are partly certain of the muscles of the back. Those muscles, which are attached to the spinal the ribs on the one hand, and to the innominate bone on the other, produce the (flexion, extension, and lateral movement) of the whole pelvis. In addition, the ssing between the innominate bone and femur, in certain positions of the lower limb, ese movements.

a. **Extension** and **Flexion.**	
imus dorsi	Psoas magnus and parvus
or spinæ	Rectus abdominis
fidus spinæ (acting on both sides)	Pyramidalis abdominis
	Obliquus externus abdominis
	Obliquus internus „
	Transversalis abdominis (acting on both sides)
	Pyriformis
	Glutei
	Obturator (externus and internus)
	Sartorius
	Tensor fasciæ femoris
	Iliacus
	Rectus femoris
	Adductors (in the erect position)
b. **Lateral Movement.**	
iors and extensors of side only	Quadratus lumborum

E FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE HEAD AND NECK.

FASCIÆ.

uperficial fascia of the head and neck possesses certain features of special Over the scalp it is closely adherent to the skin and subjacent epicranial is, and contains the superficial vessels and nerves. Beneath the skin of s it is loose and thin and contains no fat. Over the face and at the e neck it is separated from the deep fascia by the facial muscles and ma myoides. In the hollow between the buccinator and the masseter nuous with a pad of fat (*suctorial pad*) occupying the interval between cles.

The **extrinsic muscles of the ear** are three in number: retrahens, att and attrahens aurem.

The **retrahens aurem** (m. auricularis posterior) is a narrow fleshy slip arises from the surface of the mastoid process and is inserted into the deep su of the pinna. It bridges across the groove between the mastoid process an pinna, and conceals the posterior auricular vessels and nerve.

The **attollens aurem** (m. auricularis superior) is a small fan-shaped m which arises from the temporal fascia, and descends to be inserted into the t the root of the pinna.

The **attrahens aurem** (m. auricularis anterior) is a similar small muscle, p in front of the attollens, and stretching obliquely between the temporal fasci the top of the root of the pinna.

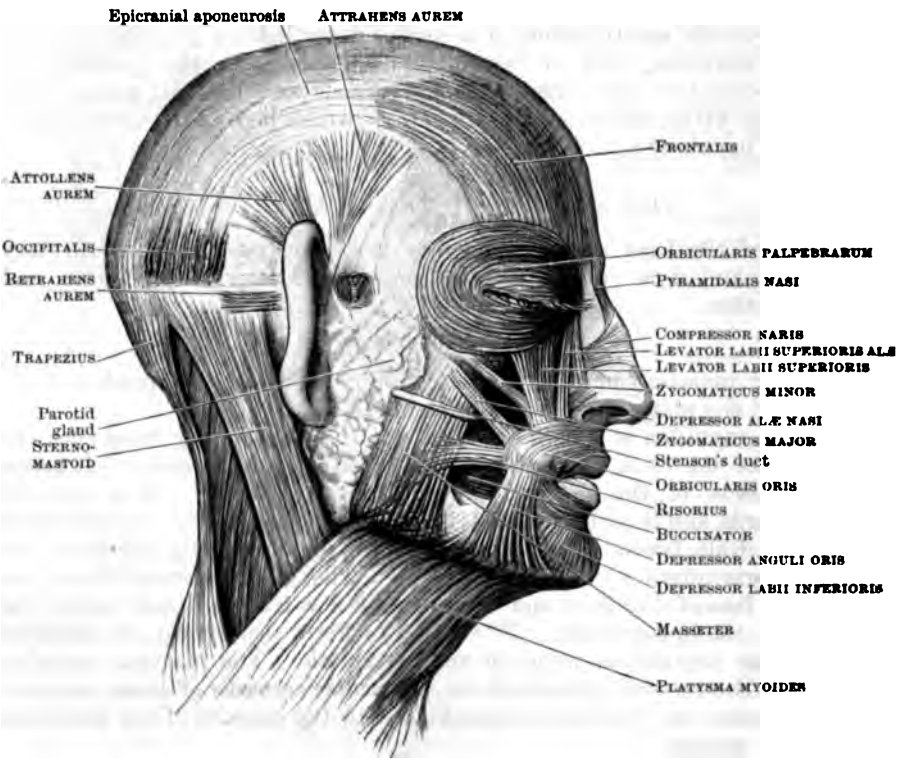


FIG. 314.—THE MUSCLES OF THE FACE AND SCALP (muscles of expression).

These two muscles conceal branches of the temporal vessels as they lie temporal fascia.

The ear muscles are rudimentary and usually functionless.

THE MUSCLES OF THE FACE.

The facial muscles are divided into three groups, associated with the s apertures of the eye, nose, and mouth.

1. The **muscles of the eyelids** include four muscles: the levator pal superioris (described with the orbital muscles), orbicularis palpebrarum, tensor and corrugator supercilii.

The **orbicularis palpebrarum** (m. orbicularis oculi) is a transversely sphincter muscle surrounding and occupying the eyelids. It is divisible in *external portion* (pars orbitalis) composed of coarse fibres, spreading on to the for temple, and cheek, and an *internal portion* (pars palpebralis), composed o fibres, situated beneath the skin of the eyelids. At the inner canthus of t the muscle (by its palpebral fibres) gains an attachment to the tarsal lig

l **the borders** of the naso-lachrymal groove. Its fibres enclose the lachrymal **and the canaliculi.** The posterior fibres, extending between the posterior edge **the naso-lachrymal** groove and the tarsal ligaments behind the lachrymal sac, **ıstitute the tensor tarsi muscle.** The fibres of the muscle which extend along the **ırgins of the lids constitute a separate ciliary bundle.**

Externally the orbicularis palpebrarum has no bony attachment; so that when **contracts and closes** the eyelids, both lids at the same time tend to be drawn **wards towards** the inner canthus of the eye.

The corrugator supercilii arises from the nasal eminence, and passing horizon**lly outwards, blends** with the upper fibres of the orbicularis palpebrarum on its **ıder surface.** The contraction of this muscle throws the skin of the forehead into **rtical folds,** while at the same time drawing the inner half of the eyebrow upwards, **produces** concentric curved folds on each side of the middle line of the forehead.

2. The **muscles of the nose** comprise five small muscles proper to the nose, and **e common** to the nose and upper lip: the pyramidalis nasi, compressor naris. **latores naris** (anterior and posterior), depressor alæ nasi, and levator labii **perioris alæque nasi.** They are all small and feeble.

The **pyramidalis nasi arises** from the occipito-frontalis muscle and the skin **er the glabella;** it is **inserted** into a membrane stretching over the nose, which **so** gives attachment to the compressor naris.

The **compressor naris** (m. nasalis) **arises** by a narrow origin from the superior **ıxilla,** under cover of the levator labii superioris alæque nasi. It passes forwards **er the bridge** of the nose, and ends in a membranous **insertion** common to it and **e** previous muscle.

The **dilatores naris** are feeble muscular slips placed on the outer side of the **ırgin** of the nostril, one anteriorly, the other posteriorly.

The **depressor alæ nasi** is a small muscle **arising** from the upper part of the **:isor fossa** of the maxilla; it divides into two parts as it passes upwards and **wards,** and is **inserted** into the ala and the septum of the nose (depressor septi).

The **levator labii inferioris alæque nasi** is a narrow band **arising** from the root **the nasal process** of the maxilla. It descends alongside the nose, and is **inserted** **rtly** into the ala of the nose and partly into the orbicularis oris muscle.

3. The **muscles of the mouth** comprise eleven muscles, of which all but one, **ıe** orbicularis oris, are bilaterally placed. The muscles are: levator labii superioris **aeque** nasi, levator labii superioris, levator anguli oris, zygomatici (major and **inor**), risorius, orbicularis oris, depressor anguli oris, depressor labii inferioris, **vator** menti, and buccinator.

The **orbicularis oris** is the sphincter muscle surrounding the lips. It is con**nuous** with the other muscles converging to the mouth. It lies between the skin **nd** mucous membrane of the mouth, and is limited above by the nose, below by **he** junction of lower lip and chin. Its mesial fibres are attached above to the **eptum** of the nose (naso-labial band) and to the incisor fossa (superior incisive **undle**); below they are attached to the lower jaw on each side of the symphysis **inferior** incisive bundle). These bundles radiate outwards to join the rest of the **nuscle,** which is joined at its margin by the levators and depressors of the lower **ip** and angle of the mouth, and by the buccinator muscle. The *lower fibres* of the **nuscle** are continued laterally into the buccinator and levator anguli oris; its *pper fibres* are continued into the buccinator and depressor anguli oris.

The **levator labii superioris alæque nasi** has already been described.

The **levator labii superioris arises** from the superior maxilla just above the **nfra-orbital** foramen. It passes almost vertically downwards to join the orbi**ularis** oris and the skin of the upper lip between the attachments of the levator **abii superioris** alæque nasi and the levator anguli oris. It conceals the infra**rbital** vessels and nerve.

The levator anguli oris arises from the canine fossa of the upper jaw below the **nfra-orbital foramen** and under cover of the foregoing muscle. It is directed **outwards and downwards,** to be **inserted** into the orbicularis oris and the skin at **he angle of the mouth.**

The **zygomatici (major and minor)** are more superficial than the prec muscle.

The **zygomaticus minor** is the anterior muscle. It **arises** from the malar and is often continuous with the most peripheral fibres of the **orbicularis p** brarum. It is directed obliquely downwards and forwards over the **levator a** oris, to be **inserted**, along with the levator labii superioris, into the **orbicularis** The **zygomaticus major** is a narrow muscular band which **arises** from the r portion of the zygomatic arch. It passes to the angle of the mouth, to be ins partly into the skin, partly into the orbicularis oris.

The **risorius** is a thin flat muscle which forms in part a continuation o platysma myoides on the face, in part a separate muscle, with an **origin** fron masseteric fascia. It passes transversely forwards, to be **inserted** at the ang the mouth into the orbicularis oris and skin.

The **depressor anguli oris arises** from the external oblique line of the lowe and from the platysma myoides (Fig. 319, p. 407). It is triangular in for fibres converging to the angle of the mouth, where they are **inserted** int orbicularis oris and the skin. Some of the fibres reach the upper lip throug orbicularis muscle.

The **depressor labii inferioris arises** from the outer surface of the lowe beneath and internal to the depressor anguli oris (Fig. 319, p. 407). It is qu lateral in form, and is directed upwards, to be **inserted** into the orbicularis ori the skin of the lower lip. Its external fibres conceal the mental foramen, an overlapped by the depressor anguli oris. Its internal fibres join with those o opposite muscle.

The **levator menti** is a small muscle which **arises** from the incisor fossa o lower jaw (Fig. 319, p. 407), and passing forwards, is **inserted** into the sk the chin.

The **buccinator muscle** forms the lateral wall of the mouth, and is in posteriorly with the constrictor muscles of the pharynx. It **arises** (1) fron alveolar arches of the upper and lower jaws (Fig. 319, p. 407), and between attachments, from the pterygo-mandibular ligament. Its fibres are dir forwards to the angle of the mouth, where they blend with the correspo (upper and lower) portions of the orbicularis oris muscle. The *middle fibres* muscle decussate at the angle of the mouth, so as to pass, the lower set t upper lip, the upper set to the lower lip. The buccinator is covered on its surface by the mucous membrane of the mouth. Superficially it is conceale the muscles above mentioned, which converge to the angle of the mouth; separated from the masseter by the *suctorial pad of fat*; it is pierced by the of the parotid gland, and by branches of the long buccal nerve.

Nerve-Supply.

The facial and scalp muscles are all innervated by the **facial nerve**. The *posterior au branch* supplies the retrahens aurem and occipitalis; the branches forming the *pes an* supply the frontalis, attollens, and attrahens aurem, the several muscles associated wi apertures of the eye, nose, and mouth (including the buccinator), and the platysma myoide

Actions.

The almost infinite variety of facial expression is produced partly by the action o muscles, partly by their inactivity, or by the action of antagonising muscles (antithesis). one hand joy is, for example, betrayed by the action of one set of muscles, while grief is panied by the contraction of another (opposing) set. Determination or eagerness is accom by a fixed expression due to a combination of muscles acting together; despair, on the hand, is expressed by a relaxation of muscular action. For a philosophical account of the of the facial muscles, the student should consult Darwin's *Expression of the Emotions in M Animals*, and Duchenne's *Mechanisme de la Physiologie humaine*.

The **platysma myoides** retracts and depresses the angle of the mouth, and depresses th jaw. The **occipito-frontalis**, by its anterior belly, raises the eyebrows; both bellies together tighten the skin of the scalp; acting along with the orbicularis palpebrarum, it the scalp backwards and forwards. The **corrugator supercilii** draws inwards the e and vertically wrinkles the skin of the forehead. The **pyramidalis nasi** draws downwa skin between the eyebrows, as in frowning. The upper eyelid is raised by the **levator pa superioris**. The closure of the lids is effected by the **orbicularis palpebrarum**, whose fibr

ıe **lowering** of the eyebrows, in the protection of the eyeball, and, by pressure on nal **gland**, in the secretion of tears. The **tensor tarsi**, acting along with the orbicularis m, **compresses** the lachrymal sac and aids in the passage of its contents into the nasal e **muscles of the ear** and **nose** have quite rudimentary actions expressed by their f the muscles of the mouth, the **orbicularis oris** has a complex action, depending on the ɔntraction of its component parts. It causes compression and closure of the lips in ,ys, tightening the lips over the teeth, contracting them as in osculation, or causing protrusion of one or the other. The **accessory muscles** of the **lips** draw them upwards i, levator anguli oris, levator labii superioris alæque nasi, levator labii superioris), zygomaticus major, risorius, platysma, depressor anguli oris, buccinator), and down- ressor anguli oris, depressor labii inferioris, platysma). The **levator menti** elevates the : chin and protrudes the lower lip. The **buccinator** retracts the angles of the mouth, ɜ cheeks, and brings them in contact with the teeth.

The Fascia and Muscles of the Orbit.

eyeball with its muscles, vessels, and nerves, is lodged in a mass of soft ling fat which entirely fills up the cavity of the orbit. Surrounding rior part of the eye- ıe **capsule of Tenon**, ɔnstitutes a large space or synovial relation to the eye- ıteriorly the capsule ntact with the con- ɜ, and intervenes the latter and the ; posteriorly it is by and prolonged e optic nerve. It is membrane connected lobe of the eye by ɔolar tissue. It is ɔy the tendons of the uscles, along which it sends prolongations continuous with the muscular sheaths.

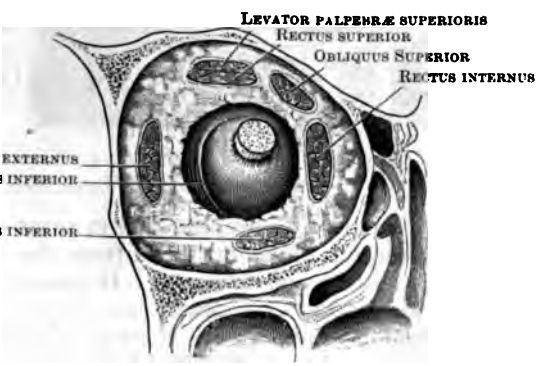


Fig. 315.—Transverse Vertical Section through the Orbit behind the Eyeball to show the Arrangement of Muscles.

316.—The Muscles of the Orbit (from above).

The **muscles of the orbit** are seven in number: one, the levator palpebræ superioris, belongs to the upper eyelid; the other six are muscles of the eyeball.

The **levator palpebræ superioris** lies immediately beneath the orbital periosteum and covers the superior rectus muscle. It has a narrow **origin** above that muscle from the margin of the optic foramen. It expands as it passes forwards, to end, in relation to the upper lid, in a membranous expansion which is **inserted** in a fourfold manner: (1) slightly into the orbicularis palpebrarum and skin of the upper lid, (2) mainly into the upper border of the tarsal cartilage, (3) slightly into the conjunctiva, and (4) by its edges into the upper border of the margin of the orbital opening.

The **recti muscles** are four in number—**superior**, **inferior**, **internal**, and **external**. They all **arise** from a membranous ring surrounding the optic foramen, which is separable into two *superior common tendon*, giving origin to the superior and internal

recti and the upper head of the external rectus; and an *inferior common ten* giving origin to the internal and inferior recti and the lower head of the exte rectus. The two origins of the external rectus muscle are separated by the pas into the orbit of the oculo-motor, nasal, and abducent nerves. Forming flatte bands which traverse the fat of the orbit around the optic nerve and eyeball, four muscles in tendons wh pierce the cap of Tenon, and inserted into sclerotic about 6 millimetres (th to four lines) beh the margin of cornea. The erior and infe recti are inserte the vertical p slightly interna the axis of the ball; the exte and internal rec the transverse p

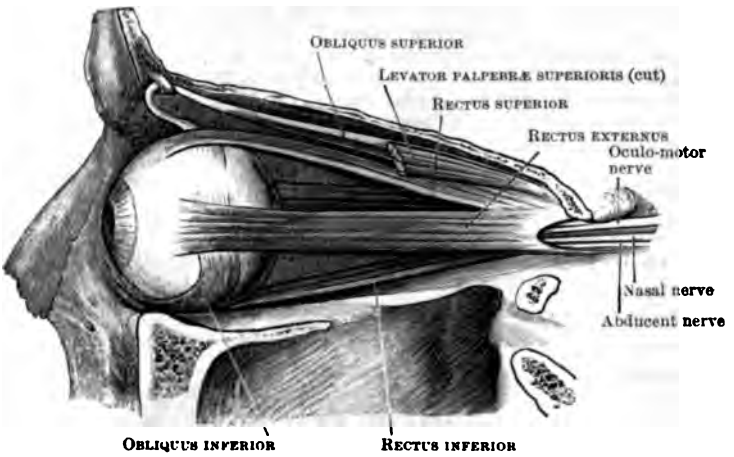


Fig. 317.—The Muscles of the Orbit (from without).

of the eyeball; and all are attached in front of the equator of the eyeball.

The **obliquus superior arises** from the margin of the optic foramen betw the recti superior and internus. It passes forwards as a narrow muscular b internal to the rectus superior, and at the anterior margin of the orbit forn narrow tendon which passes through a special fibrous pulley (trochlea) atta to the roof of the orbit. Its direction is then altered, and passing outw

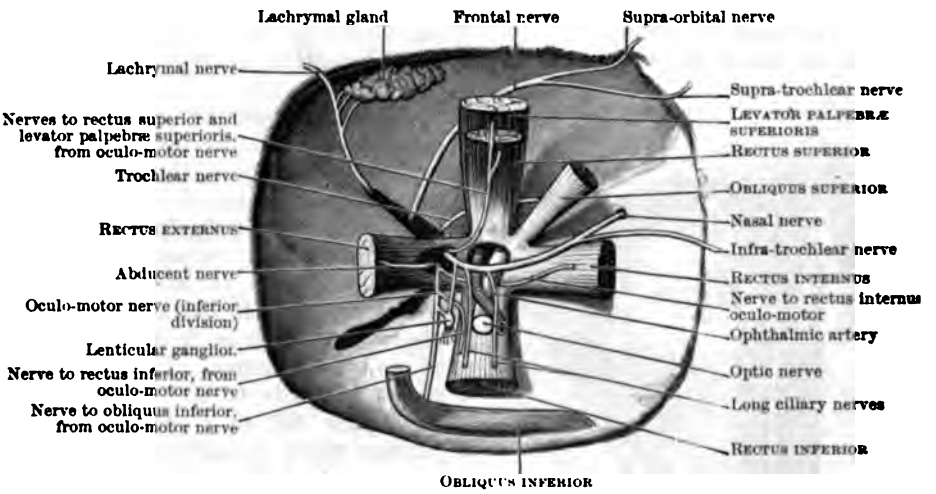


Fig. 318.—Schematic Representation of the Nerves which traverse the Cavity of the Or

between the tendon of the superior rectus and the eyeball, it is **inserted** into sclerotic between the superior and external recti, midway between the margi the cornea and the entrance of the optic nerve.

The **obliquus inferior arises** from the inner side of the floor of the orbit behind its anterior margin, and external to the naso-lachrymal groove. It fo a slender rounded slip, which curls round the inferior rectus tendon, and pa between the external rectus and the eyeball, to be **inserted** into the scler between the superior and external recti, and farther back than the supe oblique muscle.

Müller's muscle is a rudimentary bundle of non-striated muscular fibres bridging acros

o-maxillary fissure and infra-orbital groove. It is supplied by fibres from the sympathetic, ıay have a slight influence in the protrusion of the eyeball.

Nerve-Supply.

ıe muscles of the orbital cavity are supplied by the third, fourth, and sixth cranial nerves. fourth nerve (trochlearis) supplies the obliquus superior; the sixth (abducens) supplies the ı externus; the third nerve (motor oculi) supplies the others—levator palpebræ superioris, superior, inferior and internus, and obliquus inferior.

Actions.

ıe **levator palpebræ superioris** elevates the upper eyelid and antagonises the orbicularis brarum muscle. The six muscles inserted into the eyeball serve to move the longitudinal f the eyeball upwards, downwards, inwards, and outwards, besides causing a rotation of the ll on its own axis. The following table expresses the action of individual muscles. It must membered that, while similar movements occur simultaneously in the two eyeballs, the ıntal movements may, by adduction of the muscles of both sides, cause convergence of the f the two eyeballs for the purposes of near vision.

a. **Adduction** and **Abduction.**	
Rectus internus Rectus superior } Rectus inferior }	Rectus externus Obliquus superior } (*correcting* Obliquus inferior } *adductors*)
b. **Elevation** and **Depression.**	
Rectus superior Obliquus inferior	Rectus inferior Obliquus superior
c. **Rotation outwards.**	**Rotation inwards.**
Obliquus inferior	Obliquus superior Rectus superior } Rectus inferior } (*in adduction*)

Muscles of Mastication.

he muscles of mastication comprise the masseter, temporal, external and ıal pterygoids, buccinator (de- ed above).

he **masseter** ın **origin** which ırtly tendinous ıartly fleshy. It s in two parts: ıperficially from lower border of zygoma in its rior two-thirds. (2) more deeply the deep or r surface of the ma in its whole h. The super- l fibres are ted downwards backwards to- s the angle of jaw; the deeper fibres are directed vertically downwards. The muscle is ted by fleshy and tendinous fibres into the outer surface of the ramus and e of the lower jaw and the coronoid process (Fig. 319, p. 407). The deepest s blend with the fibres of the subjacent temporal muscle.

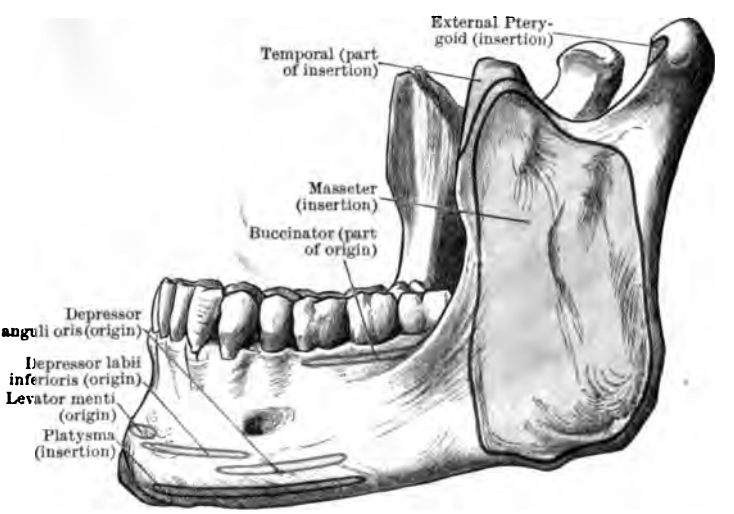


Fig. 319.—Muscle-Attachments to the Outer Aspect of the Lower Jaw.

The masseter muscle occupies the posterior part of the cheek. It is covered by the parotid gland, and is crossed by Stenson's duct and the branches of

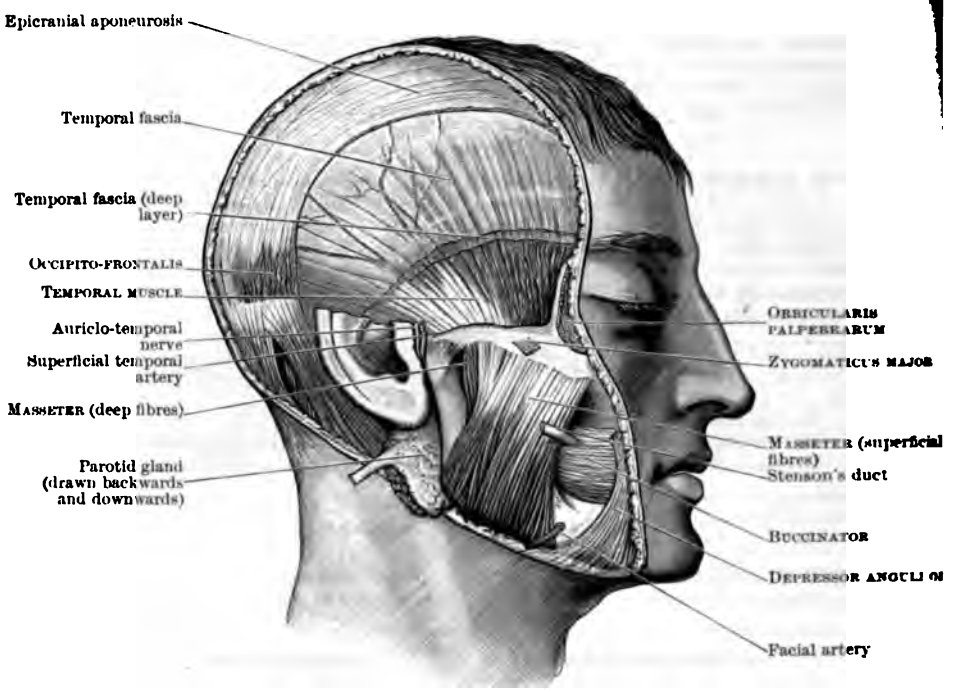


Fig. 320.—Muscles of Mastication (superficial view).

facial nerve. It conceals the lower jaw and a part of the temporal muscle, and separated from the buccinator muscle anteriorly by a pad of fat.

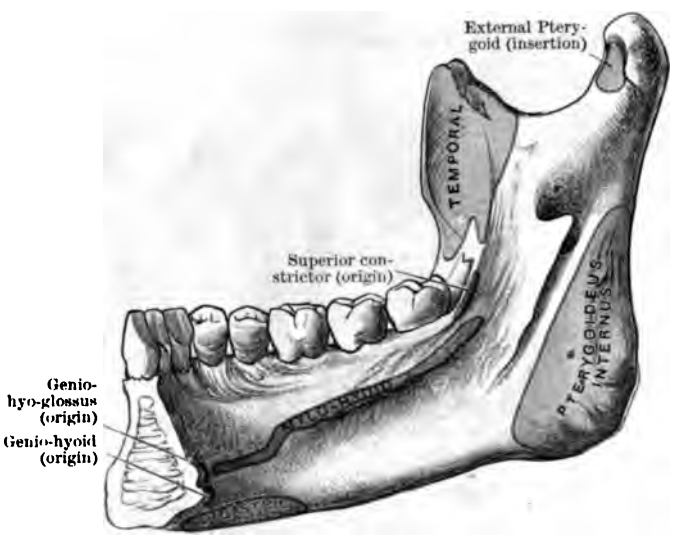


Fig. 321.—Muscle-Attachments on the Inner Side of the Lower Jaw.

The **temporal muscle** is a fan-shaped muscle **arising** from the whole area of the temporal fossa, as well as from the temporal fascia which covers it. Its converging fibres pass beneath the zygomatic arch. In the pterygoid region the muscle is **inserted** into the deep surface and apex of the coronoid process, and into the anterior border of the ramus of the lower jaw (Figs. 319, p. 407, and 321, p. 408).

The muscle is concealed by the temporal fascia, zygoma, the masseter muscle, and the coronoid process. It crosses over the external pterygoid muscle and the internal maxillary artery.

The **external pterygoid muscle arises** by two heads, upper and lower. The upper head is attached to the under surface of the great wing of the sphenoid; the lower head takes origin from the outer surface of the external pterygoid plate. The

uscle is directed outwards and backwards, to be inserted into (1) the depression in ont of the neck of the lower jaw (Figs. 319, p. 407, and 321, p. 408), and (2) the ter-articular fibro-cartilage and capsule of the temporo-maxillary articulation.

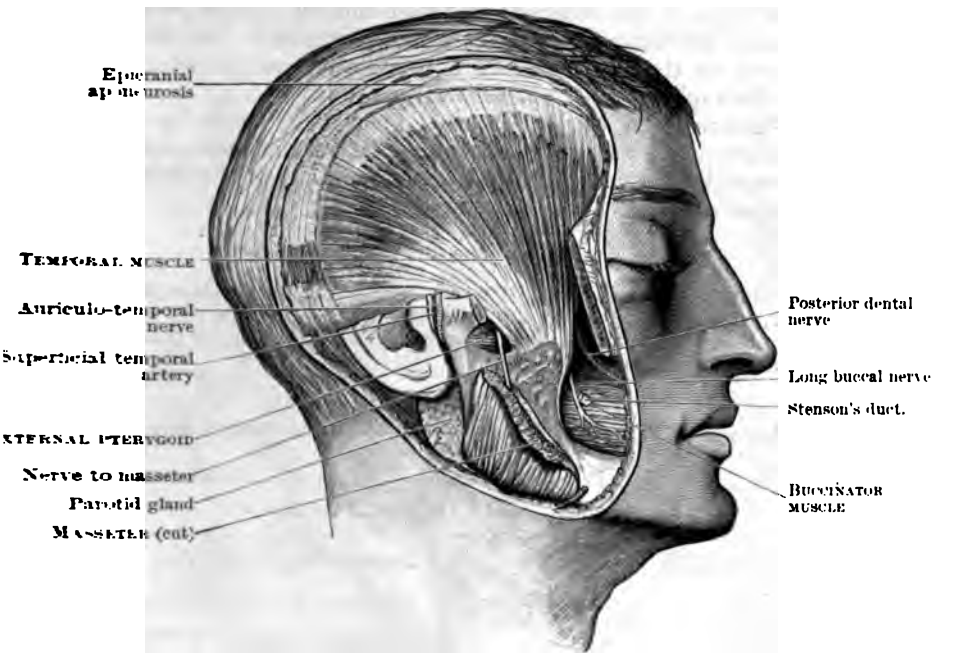


Fig. 322.—Muscles of Mastication, Deeper View (zygoma and masseter muscle removed).

The muscle is placed deeply in the pterygoid region. Covered by the temporal muscle and coronoid process, it partially conceals the internal pterygoid muscle

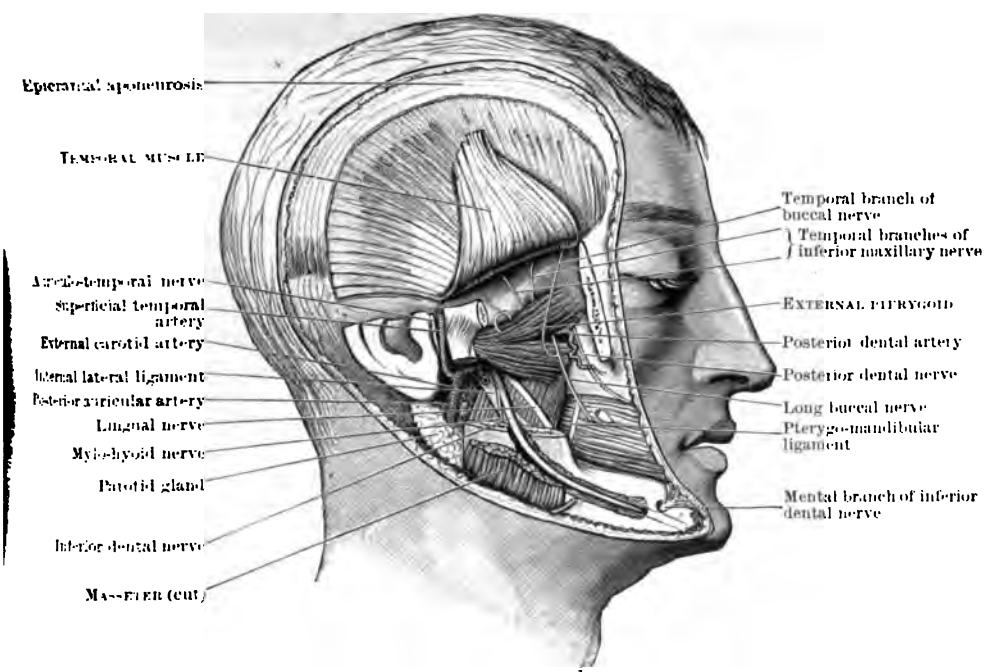


Fig. 323.—Pterygoid Region.

and the trunk and branches of the inferior maxillary nerve. The internal maxillary artery passes over or under the muscle, and disappears between its two heads of origin on its way to the spheno-maxillary fossa.

The **internal pterygoid muscle** has likewise a double **origin**—(1) from the d surface of the external pterygoid plate and the tuberosity of the palate, and by a stout tendon from the tuberosity of the upper jaw. Its two heads of ori embrace the lower fibres of the external pterygoid muscle. It is quadrilateral form, and is directed downwards, outwards, and backwards, to be **inserted int** triangular impression on the inner surface of the lower jaw, between the my hyoid groove and the angle of the bone (Fig. 321, p. 408).

The muscle is covered over by the external pterygoid muscle, by branches the inferior maxillary nerve, and by the internal lateral ligament and ramus the lower jaw. Beneath it are the Eustachian tube, muscles of the soft palate, a the pharynx (superior constrictor).

Nerve-Supply.

The **inferior maxillary division of the fifth nerve** supplies all the muscles of masticati except the buccinator, which is supplied by the **facial nerve**. The internal pterygoid muscle supplied by the nerve before its division into anterior and posterior parts; the other muscles a innervated by the anterior trunk.

Actions.

The above muscles, assisted by others in the neck, produce the various movements of th lower jaw, as follows:—

***a.* Opening and Closure of the Jaw.**	
Weight of the jaw Digastric Mylo-hyoid Genio-hyoid Genio-hyo-glossus Infra-hyoid muscles	Masseter Temporal Internal pterygoid
***b.* Protrusion and Retraction.**	
External pterygoid Internal pterygoid Temporal (*anterior fibres*)	Temporal (*posterior fibres*)
***c.* Lateral Movement of the Jaw.**	
External pterygoid } (*of one side*) Internal „ }	

THE MUSCLES OF THE NECK.

The muscles in the neck include, in addition to those included in the description of the muscles of the back (p. 395), the following series: (1) sterno-cleido-mastoid; (2) the muscles of the hyoid bone (supra-hyoid and infra-hyoid); (3) the muscles of the tongue (extrinsic and intrinsic); (4) the muscles of the pharynx and soft palate; and (5) the prævertebral muscles.

The **sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle** is the prominent muscle projecting on the side of the neck. It **arises** by two heads—(1) a narrow tendinous *sternal* **head**, from the anterior surface of the manubrium sterni (Fig. 246, p. 322), and (2) a broader *clavicular* origin, partly tendinous, partly fleshy, from the upper surface of the clavicle in its inner third (Fig. 243, p. 319). The muscle is **inserted into the** outer surface of the mastoid process and into the superior curved line of the occipital bone (Fig. 324, p. 411).

The sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle stretches obliquely across the neck, and separates the anterior and posterior triangles from one another. Superficially it is covered by the platysma myoides muscle, the external jugular vein, and some of the superficial branches of the cervical plexus. It conceals the splenius capitis, digastric, levator anguli scapulæ, scaleni and infra-hyoid muscles, the carotid

sheath, the cervical plexus, and the spinal accessory nerve. The last-named nerve pierces the muscle.

The sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle is properly divisible into three parts: (1) **sterno-mastoid,** placed superficially, and passing obliquely from the sternum to the mastoid process; (2) **cleido-mastoid,** placed more deeply, and directed vertically upwards from the clavicle to the mastoid

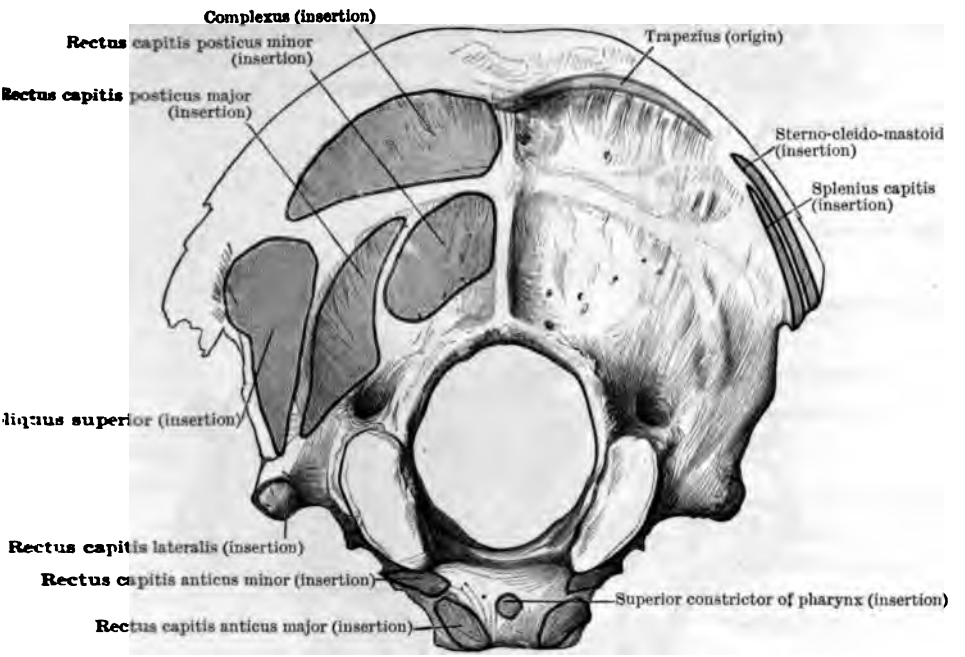


FIG. 324.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO OCCIPITAL BONE (Inferior Surface).

process; and (3) **cleido-occipitalis,** passing obliquely upwards and backwards behind the cleido-mastoid to the superior curved line of the occipital bone.

The sterno-mastoid muscle is innervated by the spinal accessory nerve, joined by a branch from the cervical plexus (C. 2).

The action of the muscle is referred to below.

THE MUSCLES OF THE HYOID BONE.

The muscles attached to the hyoid bone are in three series: (1) infra-hyoid muscles, connecting the hyoid bone to the scapula, thorax, and thyroid cartilage; (2) supra-hyoid muscles, connecting it to the lower jaw, cranium, and tongue; and (3) the middle constrictor muscle of the pharynx.

The infra-hyoid muscles comprise the omo-hyoid, sterno-hyoid, sterno-thyroid, and thyro-hyoid muscles.

The omo-hyoid is a muscle with two bellies, anterior and posterior. The *posterior* belly **arises** from the superior border of the scapula and the suprascapular ligament (Fig. 250, p. 325). It forms a narrow muscular band, which is directed obliquely forwards and upwards, to end in an intermediate tendon beneath the sterno-mastoid muscle. From this tendon the anterior belly proceeds upwards to be **inserted** into the outer part of the lower border of the body of the hyoid bone.

The posterior belly of the muscle separates the posterior triangle into occipital and subclavian parts; the anterior belly crosses the common carotid artery at the level of the cricoid cartilage, and in the anterior triangle forms the boundary between the muscular and carotid triangles. A process of the deep cervical fascia binds down the tendon and the posterior belly to the scapula and the first rib.

The sterno-hyoid muscle arises from the posterior surface of the presternum, from the back of the first costal cartilage, and from the clavicle (Fig. 243, p. 319). It passes vertically upwards in the neck, internal to the omo-hyoid and in front of the sterno-thyroid muscle, to be **inserted** into the inner part of the body of the

hyoid bone. Except near its origin the muscle lies superficially in the ante triangle, alongside the omo-hyoid and in front of the sterno-thyroid and thy hyoid muscles, the trachea and the thyroid body.

The **sterno-thyroid muscle arises** beneath the sterno-hyoid from the back the presternum and first costal cartilage. Broader than the preceding muscle passes upwards and slightly outwards in the neck in front of the trachea a thyroid body, and beneath the omo-hyoid and sterno-hyoid muscles, to be inser

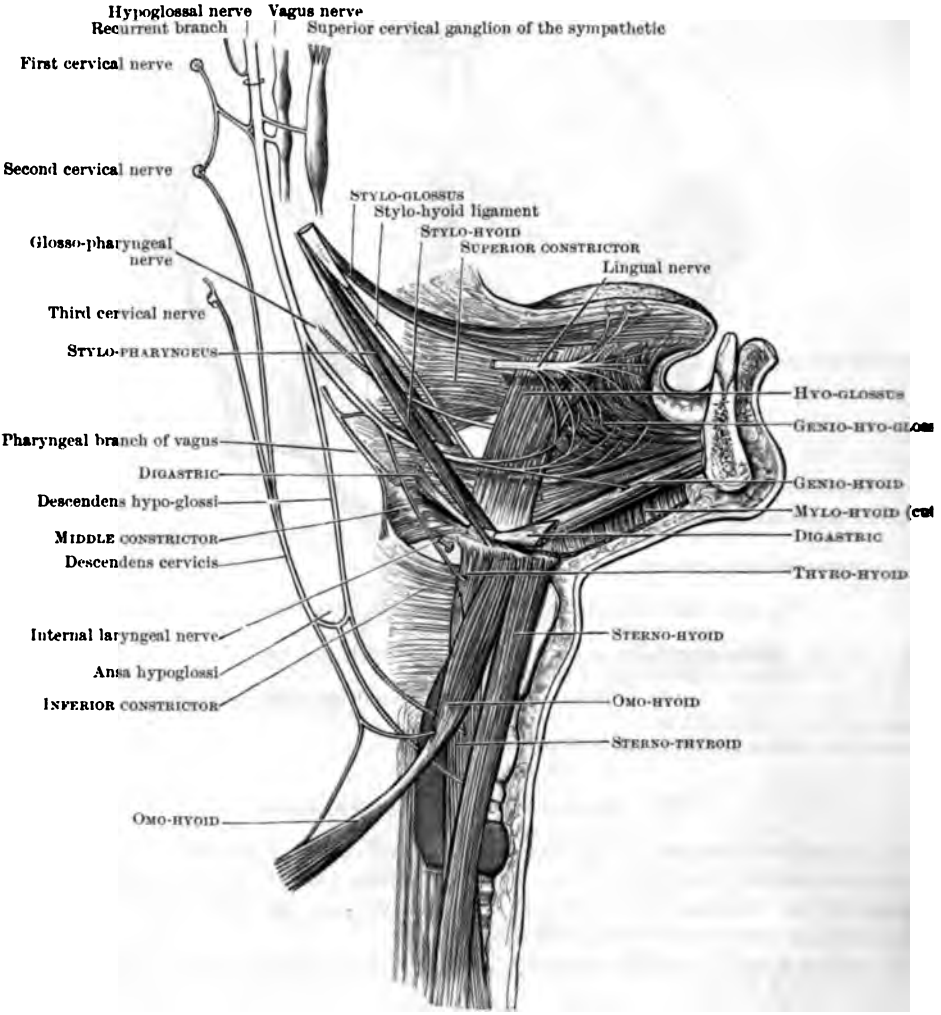


FIG. 325.—THE MUSCLES OF THE HYOID BONE AND STYLOID PROCESS, AND THE EXTRINSIC MUSCLES OF THE TONGUE, WITH THEIR NERVES.

into the oblique line of the thyroid cartilage. The muscle is marked by an oblic tendinous intersection in the middle of its length.

The **thyro-hyoid muscle** continues the line of the preceding **muscle to** hyoid bone. Short and quadrilateral, it **arises** from the oblique line of the thyr cartilage, and passing over the thyro-hyoid membrane beneath the omo-hyoid a sterno-hyoid, it is **inserted** into the body and great cornu of the hyoid bone.

The **levator glandulæ thyroideæ** is an occasional slip stretching between the hyoid b and the isthmus or pyramid of the thyroid body.

The **supra-hyoid muscles** comprise the digastric, stylo-hyoid, **mylo-hyo** genio-hyoid muscles, and also two muscles, the genio-hyo-glossus and **hyo-glos** which will be described along with the extrinsic muscles of the tongue.

The digastric muscle, as its name implies, possesses two bellies—anterior and **posterior.** The posterior belly **arises** from the digastric groove beneath the mastoid **process.** It is directed forwards and downwards to end in an intermediate tendon, **which is connected** by a pulley-like band of cervical fascia to the body of the hyoid **bone.** The anterior belly of the muscle is directed forwards and upwards to the **chin, and is inserted** into an oval impression on the lower border of the mandible **close** to the symphysis (Fig. 327, p. 414). The muscle forms the boundary of the **submaxillary** space. The posterior belly is concealed at its origin by the mastoid

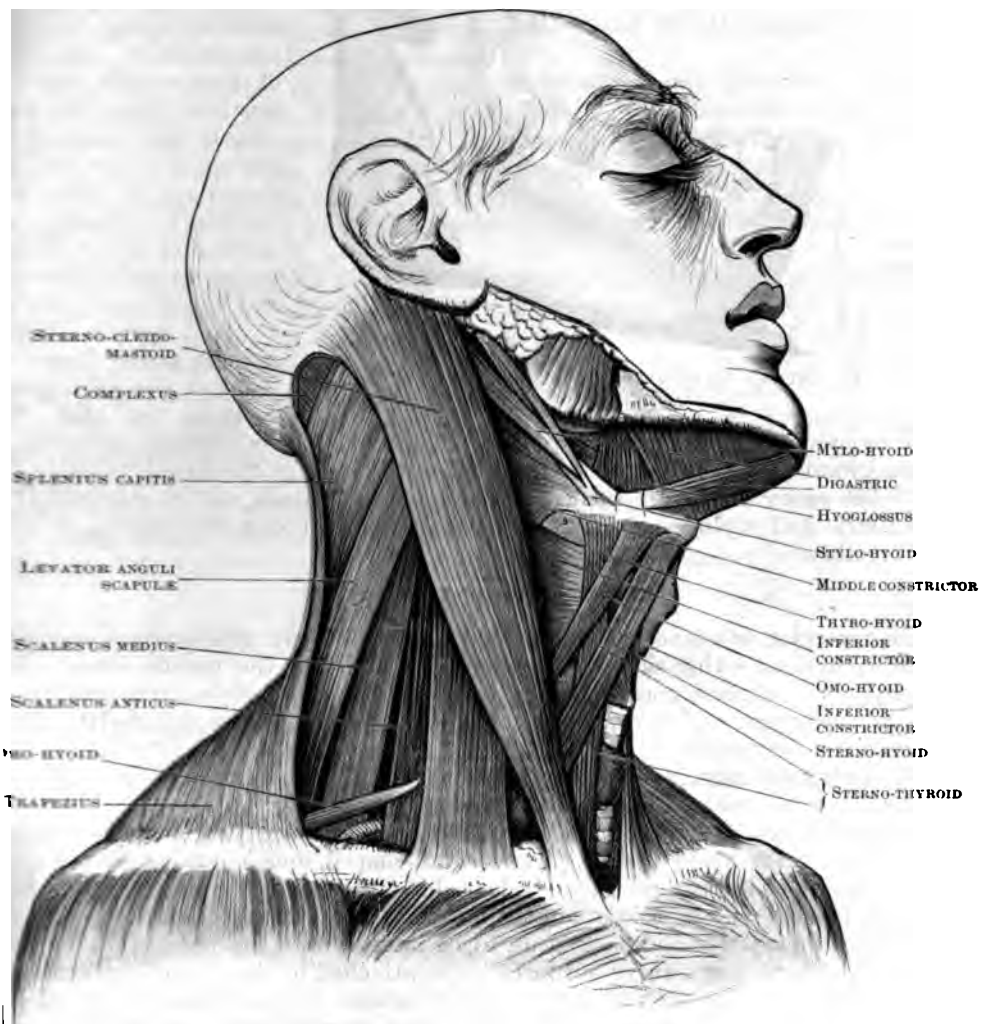


Fig. 326.—The Triangles of the Neck (Muscles).

process and the muscles attached to it. In company with the stylo-hyoid muscle it crosses the carotid vessels and the hypoglossal nerve in the anterior triangle. The anterior belly of the digastric covers the mylo-hyoid muscle.

The **stylo-hyoid muscle arises** from the styloid process of the temporal bone near its base, and is **inserted** into the body of the hyoid bone by two slips which enclose the tendon of the digastric muscle. It is directed downwards and forwards alongside the posterior belly of the digastric, and crosses the anterior triangle in front of the carotid vessels.

The **mylo-hyoid muscle arises** from the lower three-fourths of the mylo-hyoid ridge of the lower jaw (Fig. 327, p. 414). It is directed downwards and inwards, to be **inserted** into (1) the upper border of the body of the hyoid bone, and more

anteriorly (along with the opposite muscle) into (2) a median raphe extendin the hyoid bone nearly to the chin. The muscle forms a diaphragm in the the mouth, and contact with its ficial or external the digastric mus the submaxillary Its deep or in surface is par covered by the r membrane of th of the mouth, separated from th glossus and geni glossus muscles deep part of th maxillary glan sublingual gland, ton's duct and the and hypoglossal

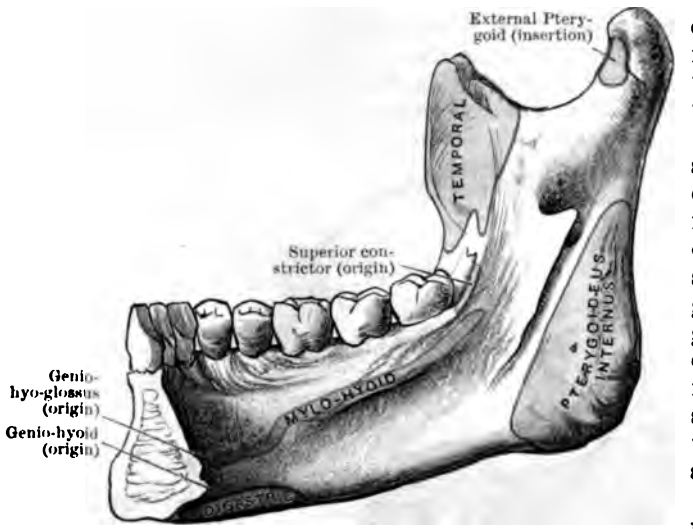


FIG. 327.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS ON THE INNER SIDE OF THE LOWER JAW.

The **genio-muscle arises** fr lower of the two tubercles on the of the symphysis of the lower jaw (Fig. 327, p. 414). It is directed dow and backwards, to be **inserted** into the front of the body of the hyoid bone muscle lies along the lower border of the genio-hyoglossus, and is conce the digastric and mylo-hyoid muscles. The muscles of opposite sides ar fused together.

THE MUSCLES OF THE TONGUE.

The muscular substance of the tongue consists of two symmetrical s muscles placed on either side of a membranous raphe in the middle line. composed of (1) **extrinsic muscles** arising from the soft palate, styloid proces bone and lower jaw, and (2) **intrinsic muscles** proper to the tongue itself. set consists of four series of muscles.

The **extrinsic muscles** are four in number: (1) genio-hyo-glossus, (glossus, (3) stylo-glossus, and (4) palato-glossus.

The **genio-hyo-glossus muscle** (Fig. 325) is an extrinsic muscle of the as well as a supra-hyoid muscle. It is a fan-shaped muscle **arising** by i from the upper of the two genial tubercles behind the symphysis of the low (Fig. 327, p. 414). From this origin the muscular fibres diverge; the lowes are directed downwards and backwards, to be **inserted** into the body of the bone; the highest fibres curve forwards, to be attached to the tip of the t the intermediate fibres are attached to the substance of the tongue in its length between the base and tip. The muscles of opposite sides are separa the median raphe of the tongue. On the outer side of each are the hyo-gloss mylo-hyoid muscles. Between the hyo-glossus and genio-hyo-glossus are pla stylo-hyoid ligament, the lingual artery, and the glosso-pharyngeal nerve.

The **hyo-glossus muscle** is also an extrinsic muscle of the tongue as w supra-hyoid muscle. It **arises** from the hyoid bone (body and great cornu) directed upwards and forwards, to be **inserted** into the side of the tongue, its fibre lacing at its insertion with the fibres of the stylo-glossus. The muscle is quadri and lies between the genio-hyo-glossus and mylo-hyoid muscles, separated fr latter by the mucous membrane of the floor of the mouth, the sublingual ar of the submaxillary glands, the lingual and hypoglossal nerves, and Wharton

The **chondro-glossus** is a small separated slip of the hyo-glossus, not always present.

The **stylo-glossus muscle arises** beneath the parotid gland from the lov

he **styloid process** and from the stylo-mandibular ligament. It sweeps forwards inwards, and is **inserted** into the side and under surface of the tongue, its es spreading out to decussate with those of the palato-glossus and hyo-glossus scles. It is covered by the internal pterygoid muscle and by the mucous nbrane of the tongue.

The **palato-glossus** is a thin sheet of muscular fibres **arising** from the under face of the soft palate, where it is continuous with fibres of the opposite muscle. asses downwards in the anterior pillar of the fauces, and spreads out, to be in-ed into the sides of the tongue, blending with the stylo-glossus and the deep nsverse fibres of the tongue. The muscle is placed directly beneath the mucous nbrane of the soft palate and tongue.

Intrinsic Muscles of the Tongue.—Besides receiving the fibres of insertion he extrinsic muscles, the substance of the tongue is composed of four intrinsic scles on either side, two in the sagittal plane, the superior and inferior linguales; in the coronal plane, the transverse and vertical fibres.

The **superior lingualis muscle** extends from base to tip of the tongue, placed on dorsum immediately under the mucous membrane, into which many of its fibres inserted.

The **inferior lingualis** is a cylindrical band of muscular fibres occupying the under t of the organ on each side, in the interval between the genio-hyo-glossus and hyo-glossus muscles. Posteriorly some of its fibres extend to the hyoid bone.

The **transverse fibres** arise from the median raphe, and radiate outwards to the sum and sides of the tongue, decussating with the extrinsic muscles and the es of the vertical muscle. They occupy the substance of the tongue between superior and inferior linguales.

The so-called **vertical fibres** arise from the dorsal surface of the tongue, and ep downwards and outwards to its sides, intermingled with the fibres of the vious muscle and the insertions of the extrinsic muscles. These two muscles n a very considerable part of the total muscular substance of the organ.

Nerve-Supply.

The muscles of the hyoid bone and of the tongue are for the most part supplied by the **ansa ricalis** (C. 1. 2. 3.) and by the **hypoglossal nerve**. A few of the muscles are supplied by the eminal, facial, and spinal accessory nerves.

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Omo-hyoid Sterno-hyoid Sterno-thyroid	Ansa cervicalis	C. 1. 2. 3.
Thyro-hyoid Genio-hyoid Genio-hyo-glossus Hyo-glossus Stylo-glossus Intrinsic muscles of tongue	Hypoglossal	C. 1. 2. Hypoglossal.
Palato-glossus	Pharyngeal plexus	Spinal accessory.
Mylo-hyoid Digastric Anterior belly	Mylo-hyoid branch of inferior dental nerve	Trigeminal.
Posterior belly Stylo-hyoid	Facial	Facial.

Actions.

These muscles have a complexity of action, owing to their numerous attachments to more ss movable points. The movements for which they are responsible in whole or part are (1) ements of the hyoid bone in mastication and deglutition, (2) movements of the thyroid lage, (3) movements of the tongue, (4) movements of the head, (5) movements of the shoulder, (6) respiration.

1) **Movements of the Hyoid Bone.**—The hyoid bone is elevated or depressed, and moved

forwards or backwards along with the lower jaw and tongue, in speech, masticatic swallowing.

a. **Elevation** and **Depression.**		*b.* **Protraction** and **Retraction.**	
Digastric	Thyro-hyoid	Genio-hyoid	Stylo-hyoid
Stylo-hyoid	Sterno-hyoid	Genio-hyo-glossus	Middle constrict
Mylo-hyoid	Omo-hyoid		
Genio-hyoid	Sterno-thyroid		
Genio-hyo-glossus			
Hyo-glossus			
Muscles closing the mouth			

(2) **Movements of the Thyroid Cartilage.**—The thyroid cartilage is raised and l during speech and deglutition.

Elevation.	**Depression.**
Thyro-hyoid	Sterno-thyroid
Stylo-pharyngeus	Crico-thyroid
Palato-pharyngeus	Depressors of hyoid bone
Elevators of hyoid bone	
Muscles closing mouth	

(3) **Movements of the Tongue.**—The chief movements of the tongue in speech a glutition are elevation and depression, protrusion and retraction, and lateral movements.

a. **Elevation** and **Depression.**	
Stylo-glossus (base)	Genio-hyo-glossus
Palato-glossus	Hyo-glossus
Muscles elevating hyoid bone	Chondro-glossus
Muscles closing mouth	Muscles depressing the hyoid bone

b. **Protrusion** and **Retraction.**	
Genio-hyo-glossus (*posterior fibres*)	Genio-hyo-glossus (*anterior fibres*)
	Stylo-glossus

c. **Lateral Movements.**—The muscles of one side only.

(4) **Movements of the Head.**—The sterno-mastoid muscles, acting together, flex the l the spinal column, assisted by the supra-hyoid and infra-hyoid muscles. The sterno-m muscle of one side, acting alone, bends the head to the same side, and simultaneously ro to the opposite side, as seen in *torticollis* (wryneck).

(5) **Movements of the Shoulder Girdle.**—The omo-hyoid and sterno-mastoid muscl already been included among the elevators of the shoulder girdle.

(6) **Respiration.**—The muscles in the front of the neck are auxiliary muscles in extraor or difficult inspiration. The masseter and temporal muscles fix the lower jaw; the hyoi is raised and fixed by the supra-hyoid muscles; and the sternum is raised by the sterno-m and infra-hyoid muscles.

The Muscles of the Pharynx.

The muscular envelope of the pharynx is composed of two strata. The *ea* or *circular layer* consists of the three constrictor muscles; the *internal* or *tudinal layer* consists of the fibres of the stylo-pharyngeus and palato-phary muscles.

The **superior constrictor muscle** is triangular or fan-shaped. It successively from the lower half of the posterior border of the internal pte plate, from the pterygo-mandibular ligament, from the mylo-hyoid ridge

ver jaw (Fig. 327, p. 414), and from the mucous membrane of the floor of the outh (*glosso-pharyngeus*). The muscular fibres radiate backwards, and are **inserted** the most part into a median raphe extending down the back wall of the pharynx the middle line. The highest fibres are attached to the pharyngeal spine of the cipital bone (Fig. 333, p. 421), and the lowest fibres are overlapped by the iddle constrictor. A crescentic interval occurs above the muscle, below e base of the skull, in which the ustachian tube and the levator and nsor palati muscles appear. Its wer border is separated from the iddle constrictor by the stylo-aryngeus muscle and the glosso-aryngeal nerve. The superior nstrictor muscle separates the internal carotid artery from the cavity the pharynx and tonsil.

Fig. 328.—Posterior View of the Pharynx and Constrictor Muscles.

The **middle constrictor muscle ises** from the stylo-hyoid ligament nd from both cornua of the hyoid one. From its origin the muscular bres radiate backwards, to be **in-rted** into the median raphe on the osterior aspect of the pharynx. The pper fibres overlap the lower part of he superior constrictor; the lower ibres are concealed from view by the nferior constrictor muscle. In the nterval between the middle and nferior constrictors are found the nternal laryngeal artery and nerve.

The **inferior constrictor muscle rises** from the oblique line of the thyroid cartilage, and from the side of the cricoid cartilage. Its fibres radiate backwards, to be **inserted** into the median raphe on the back of the pharynx, the upper fibres overlapping the lower part of the middle constrictor, the lower fibres blending with the muscular fibres of the œsophagus. Below the lower border of the muscle the inferior laryngeal artery and nerve enter into relation with the larynx.

The **deeper longitudinal stratum** of muscles in the pharyngeal wall is composed of the insertions of the stylo-pharyngeus and palato-pharyngeus muscles.

The **stylo-pharyngeus arises** from the root of the styloid process on its inner side, and passes downwards between the external and internal carotid arteries. It enters the wall of the pharynx in the interval between the superior and middle constrictor muscles. Spreading out beneath the middle constrictor muscle, it is **inserted** into the superior and posterior borders of the thyroid cartilage and into the wall of the pharynx itself, becoming continuous posteriorly with the palato-pharyngeus. In the neck the glosso-pharyngeal nerve winds round it on its way to the tongue.

The **palato-pharyngeus** occupies the soft palate and the pharyngeal wall. In the substance of the soft palate it consists of two layers, a postero-superior layer, thin, and continuous across the middle line with the corresponding layer on the opposite side, and an antero-inferior layer, which is thicker, and is attached to the posterior border of the hard palate. The levator palati and azygos uvulæ muscles are enclosed between the two layers, which unite at the posterior edge of the palate, receiving at the same time additional fibres arising from the Eustachian tube (*salpingo-pharyngeus*). The muscle descends to the pharynx in the posterior pillar

of the fauces. Its fibres spread out in the form of a thin sheet in the wa the pharynx, in continuity anteriorly with the stylo-pharyngeus, and are ins into the posterior border of the thyroid cartilage, and behind that into aponeurosis of the pharynx, reaching down as far as the lower border of the inf constrictor. The muscle is placed beneath the middle and inferior constrictor the pharyngeal wall, and the fibres of the muscles of opposite sides decussate i middle line beneath the median raphe.

The Muscles of the Soft Palate.

The soft palate and uvula form a muscular fold, covered on each surfac mucous membrane, projecting backwards into the pharynx, and forming the post part of the ro the mouth.

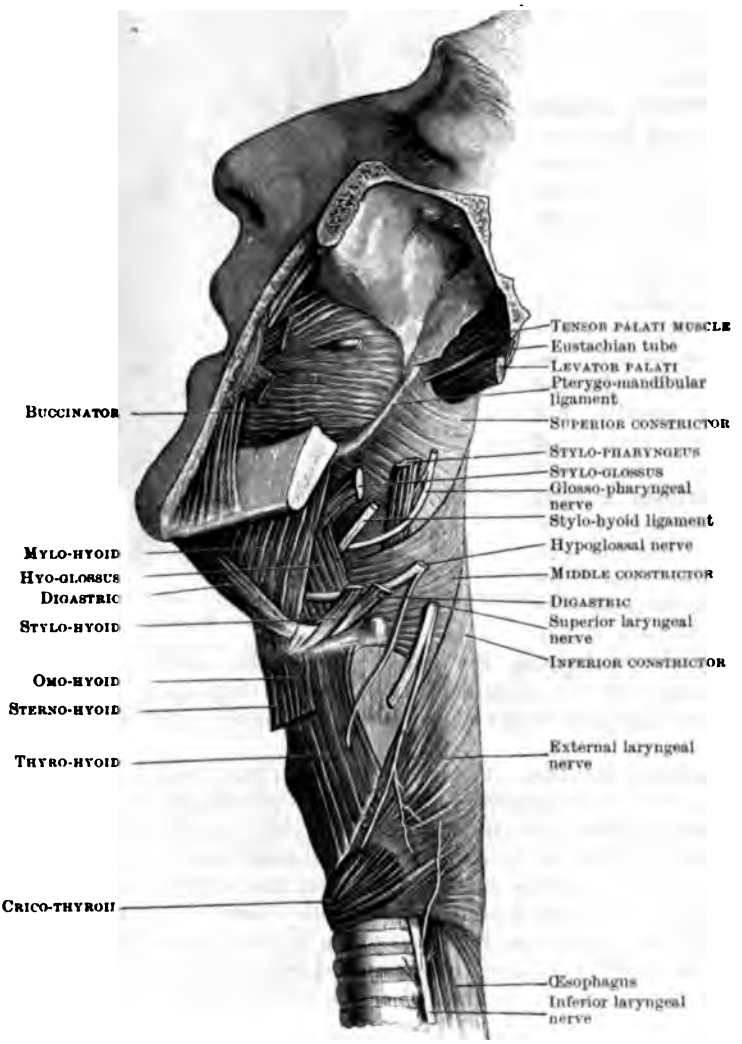


Fig. 329.—Lateral View of the Wall of the Pharynx.

The mus fold is compos five pairs of cles—the pa pharyngeus salpingo-pha geus), az uvulæ, lev palati, te palati, and pa glossus.

The **pal pharyngeus** cle has been ali described (p. among the mu of the pharyn

The **azy uvulæ** consis two narrow bu enclosed, a with the inse of the lev palati, betwee layers of the pa pharyngeus. slips **arise** fro posterior r spine and the neurosis of th palate, and as they pr backwards t in the uvula.

The **lev palati** has a d **origin**: (1) the under su of the apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and (2) from lower part of the cartilaginous Eustachian tube. It passes obliquely d wards and inwards, across the upper border of the superior constrictor m and enters the soft palate between the two layers of the palato-pharyngeus m It is **inserted** into the aponeurosis of the soft palate, and some of its fibres be continuous with those of the opposite muscle. It is separated from the t

palati muscle by the Eustachian tube and the deeper layer of the palato-pharyngeus **muscle.**

The tensor (circumflexus) palati arises (1) from the scaphoid fossa and the alar spine of the sphenoid bone, and (2, from the outer side of the cartilaginous Eustachian **tube.** It descends between the internal pterygoid muscle and the internal pterygoid plate, and ends in a tendon which hooks round the hamular process, and is **inserted** beneath the levator palati into the posterior border of the hard palate, and into the aponeurosis of the soft palate.

The **palato-glossus muscle,** occupying the under surface of the soft palate and the anterior pillar of the fauces, has already been described with the muscles of the tongue (p. 415).

NERVE-SUPPLY.

The chief nerve supplying the muscles of the pharynx and soft palate is the **spinal accessory nerve,** aided by the **fifth** (otic ganglion) and the **ninth** (glosso-pharyngeal) nerves and the laryngeal **branches** of the **vagus nerve.**

Muscles.	Nerves.	Origin.
Constrictors of pharynx Palato-glossus Palato-pharyngeus Levator palati Azygos uvulæ	Pharyngeal plexus	XI.
Tensor palati	Otic ganglion	V.
Stylo-pharyngeus	Glosso-pharyngeal	IX.
Inferior constrictor	External laryngeal Inferior laryngeal	X.

ACTIONS.

The muscles of the pharynx and soft palate are chiefly brought into action in **the act of swallowing.** This act is divided into a *voluntary stage,* in which the bolus lies in front of the pillars of the fauces, and an *involuntary stage,* during which the food passes from the mouth through the pharynx. The movements occurring during the passage of food through the mouth are as follows: the cheeks are compressed by the action of the buccinator muscles; the tongue, hyoid bone, and thyroid cartilage are successively raised upwards by the action of the muscles which close the mouth and elevate the hyoid bone. By these means the food is pushed backwards between the pillars of the fauces.

At the same time, by the contraction of the palato-glossus and palato-pharyngeus, the pillars of the fauces are narrowed, while the muscles of the soft palate, contracting, tighten the soft palate, and by bringing it in contact with the posterior wall of the pharynx, shut off the upper (nasal) portion of the cavity. The elevation of the tongue, hyoid bone, and larynx simultaneously causes the elevation of the epiglottis and the aperture of the glottis, which is closed by the approximation of the arytenoid cartilages and the combined action of laryngeal muscles (arytenoideus, thyro-arytenoideus, and thyro-aryteno-epiglottideus). The food thus slips over the posterior surface of the epiglottis and the closed aperture of the glottis, and between the pillars of the fauces on either side, into the pharynx. It is now clasped by the constrictor muscles, which, by their contractions, force it down into the œsophagus. The contraction of the constrictor muscles results in a flattening of the pharynx and elevation of its anterior attachments.

During the act of swallowing, it is generally thought that the Eustachian tube is opened by the contraction of the tensor palati muscle which arises from it. It has been held, on the other hand, that the Eustachian tube is closed during swallowing by the compression of its wall by the contraction of the levator palati.

DEEP LATERAL AND PRÆVERTEBRAL MUSCLES OF THE NECK.

Three series of muscles are comprised in this group: (1) vertebro-costal (scaleni, nticus, medius, and posticus), (2) vertebro-cranial (recti capitis antici, major and inor, and lateralis), and (3) vertebral (longus colli).

The **scalenus anticus arises** from the anterior tubercles of the transverse rocesses of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth cervical vertebræ, and descends ehind the carotid sheath, to be **inserted** into the scalene tubercle and ridge on the rst rib (Fig. 330, p. 420). In front of the muscle are the subclavian and nternal jugular veins, and the nerves descending through the neck. Behind, it is

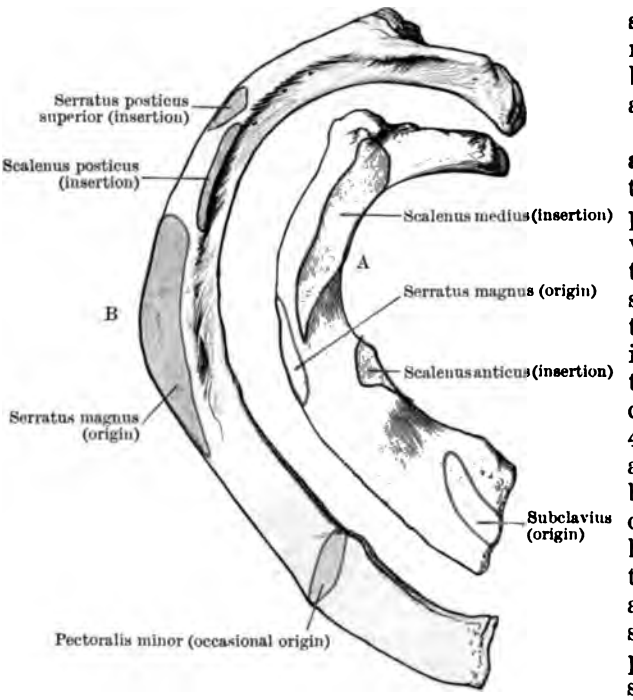


FIG. 330.—MUSCLE-ATTACHMENTS TO THE UPPER SURFACE OF THE FIRST RIB, AND THE OUTER SURFACE OF THE SECOND RIB.

A, First rib; B, Second rib.

and sixth cervical transverse processes, and is **inserted** into a linear impression on the outer side of the second rib. It is concealed behind by the levator anguli scapulæ, and is in contact anteriorly with the scalenus medius.

The **rectus capitis anticus major arises** from the anterior tubercles of the transverse processes of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth cervical vertebræ. It forms a flat triangular muscle, which is directed upwards, to be **inserted** into an impression on the under surface of the basilar process of the occipital bone in front and to the outer side of the pharyngeal spine (Fig. 333, p. 421). It lies on the cervical vertebræ behind the *carotid vessels* and the

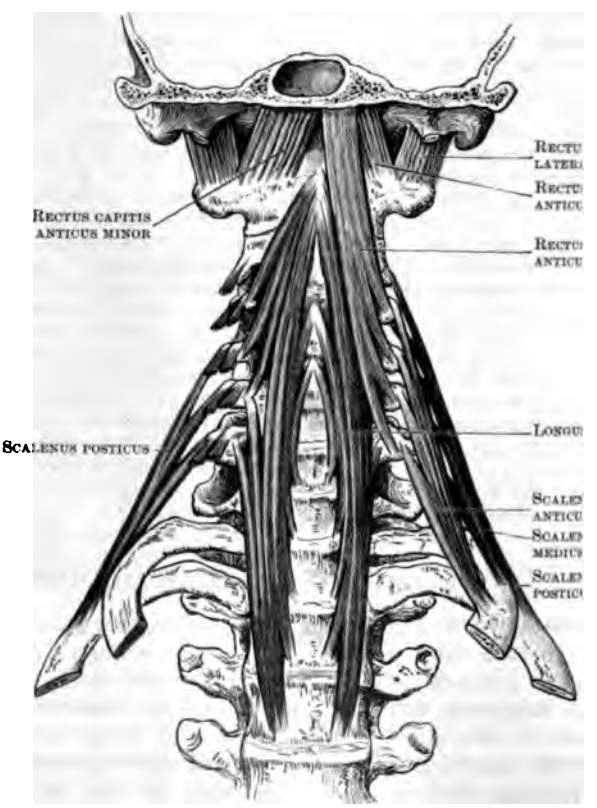


FIG. 331.—THE PRÆVERTEBRAL MUSCLES OF THE NECK

separated from the s medius by the cords brachial plexus, the sub artery, and the pleura.

The **scalenus m arises** from the po tubercles of the tra processes of the c vertebræ, from the sec the sixth inclusive. scends in the floor of t terior triangle, to be i into the rough impress the first rib behind t clavian artery (Fig. 420). The muscle is c anteriorly by the cords brachial plexus, the clavian artery, and th hyoid muscle, and is i tact behind with the anguli scapulæ and scalenus posticus. pierced by the po scapular and pos thoracic nerves.

The **scalenus po arises** from the po tubercles of the fourth

arynx, external to the longus colli, and internal at its origin to the scalenus **icus.**

The rectus capitis anticus minor arises from the anterior arch of the atlas, and

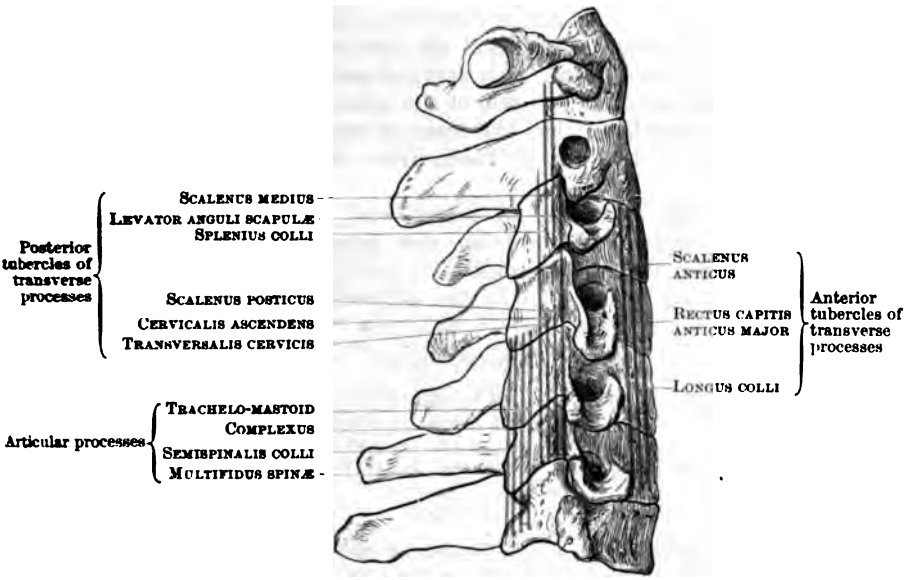


Fig. 332.—Scheme of Muscular-Attachments to Cervical Vertebræ.

is inserted into the basilar process between the previous muscle and the occipital condyle (Fig. 333, p. 421). It is concealed by the rectus capitis anticus major.

The **longus colli** is a flattened muscular band extending from the third thoracic

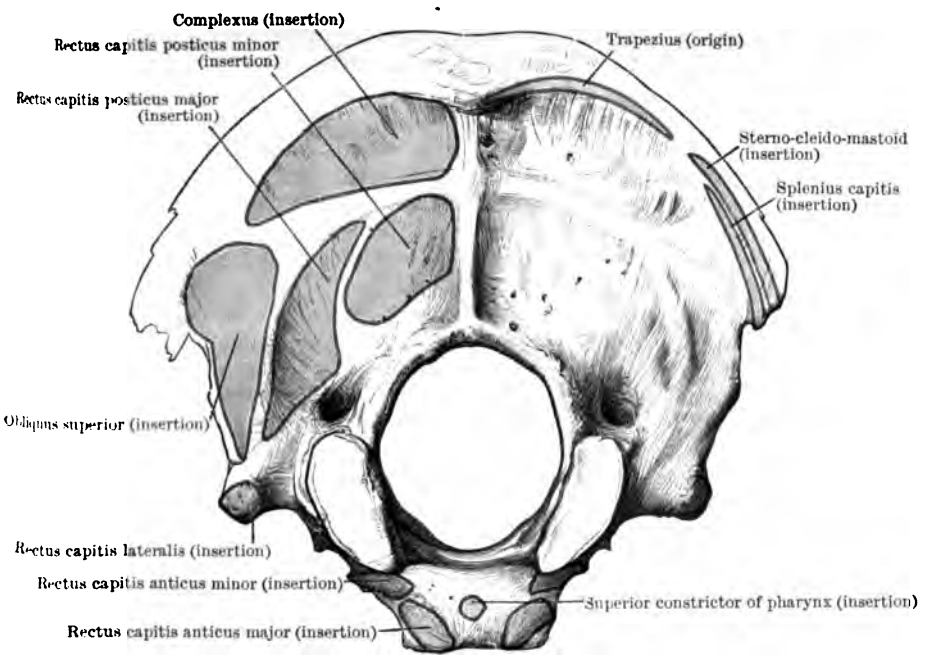


Fig. 333.—Muscle-Attachments to Occipital Bone (Inferior Surface).

rtebra to the atlas. It is divisible into three portions—a vertical, a lower *lique, and an upper oblique portion.*

*The **vertical portion** of the muscle* **arises** from the bodies of the first three

thoracic and the last three cervical vertebræ; and passing vertically upwards, **inserted** into the bodies of the second, third, and fourth cervical vertebræ.

The **lower oblique portion arises** from the bodies of the first three thor vertebræ, and is **inserted** into the anterior tubercles of the fifth and sixth cerv vertebræ.

The **upper oblique portion arises** from the anterior tubercles of the transv processes of the third, fourth, and fifth cervical vertebræ, and is directed upwa to be **inserted** into the anterior tubercle of the atlas.

The longus colli muscle clothes the front of the vertebral column in the n and is separated by the deep cervical fascia from the carotid vessels, pharynx, œsophagus.

The **rectus capitis lateralis**, in series with the posterior inter-transv muscles in the neck, **arises** from the transverse process of the atlas, and is inse into the under surface of the ex-occipital bone. It is placed alongside the r capitis antici, separated from them by the anterior primary division of the cervical nerve.

NERVE-SUPPLY.

The prævertebral muscles are all supplied by anterior primary divisions of the **cervical** s **nerves**: the rectus capitis anticus minor, and rectus capitis lateralis, by the loop between th two nerves; the rectus capitis anticus major by the first four; the longus colli by the se third, and fourth; the scaleni by the lower four or five cervical nerves.

ACTIONS.

The movements produced by these muscles are considered along with those of other m acting on the head, spinal column, and thorax (pp. 398. 426).

THE MUSCLES OF THE THORAX.

MUSCLES OF RESPIRATION.

The muscles which complete the boundaries of the thorax are the diaphr and intercostal muscles (external and internal), along with three series of sm muscles—the triangularis sterni, the levatores costarum, and the infra-costales.

The **intercostal muscles** are arranged in eleven pairs, forming thin la filling up the intercostal spaces.

Each **external muscle arises** from the sharp lower border of a rib, is directed downward and forward, to be **inserted** into the outer edge of upper border of the rib below. It extends from the tubercle of the rib bel nearly to the costal cartilage in front. The *anterior intercostal aponeurosi* continuous with it anteriorly, and extends forwards to the side of the sternum.

Each **internal muscle arises** from the costal cartilage and the inner edge of subcostal groove, and is directed downwards and backwards, to be **inserted** into inner edge of the upper border of the rib and costal cartilage below. It exte from the side of the sternum in front to the angle of the rib behind, wher becomes continuous with the *posterior intercostal aponeurosis* extending to tubercle of the rib.

The external intercostal muscles are covered by the pectoral muscles, serr magnus, and the muscles of the back; the internal muscles are in contact v the pleura. The intercostal vessels and nerve lie between the two muscles in posterior part of the thorax.

The **levatores costarum** are in series with the external intercostal mus They are twelve small slips **arising** from the transverse processes of the sev cervical and upper eleven thoracic vertebræ. They spread out in a fan-like ma as they descend, to be **inserted** into the outer surface of the ribs posterior to angles. They lie under cover of the longissimus dorsi muscle.

The **infra-costales** (subcostales) are slips of muscles found on the inner sur of the lower ribs near their angles. They are in series with the internal in costal muscles, but pass over the deep surface of several ribs.

The **triangularis sterni** (m. transversus thoracis) occupies the posterior as

e anterior thoracic wall. It **arises** from the back of the ensiform cartilage mesosternum as high as the level of the third costal cartilage. From this n its fibres radiate outwards, the lower ones horizontally, the upper ones uely upwards, to be **inserted** into the costal cartilages of all the true ribs ot the first and seventh. The muscle lies against the pericardium and pleura. separated from the chest wall by the internal mammary vessels and the ior branches of the intercostal nerves. The muscle is continuous below with ransversalis abdominis.

he **diaphragm** is the great membranous and muscular partition separating avities of the thorax and abdomen. It forms a thin lamella arching over

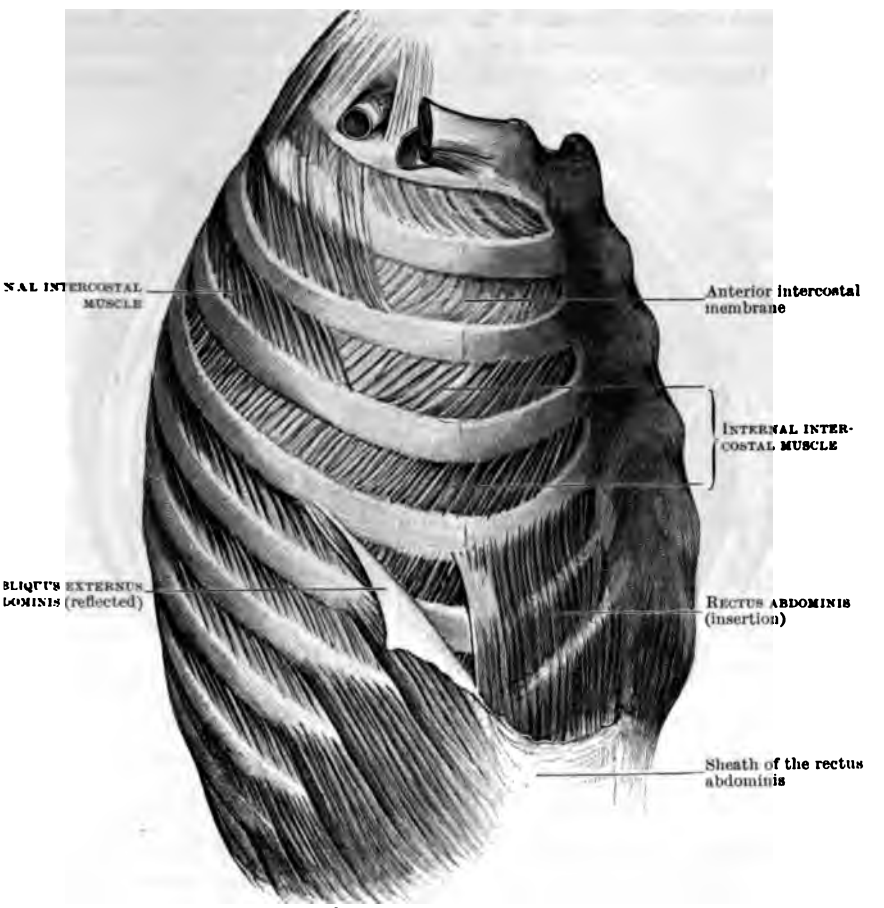


FIG. 334.—THE MUSCLES OF THE THORACIC WALL.

liver, stomach, and spleen, with its convex upper surface in contact with the ardium, pleuræ, and chest wall. It possesses a peripheral origin from the num, ribs, and vertebral column, and an insertion into a central tendon. It s (1) *anteriorly* from the posterior surface of the ensiform cartilage by two ler fleshy slips, directed backwards; (2) *laterally*, from the deep surface of the r six rib-cartilages on each side by fleshy bands which interdigitate with those e transversalis abdominis; (3) *posteriorly*, from the lumbar vertebræ, by the , and from the arcuate ligaments. The **crura** are two elongated fibro-muscular les which arise from the front of the bodies of the lumbar vertebræ, on the side from the first three, on the left side from the first two vertebræ. They irected upwards and, passing in front of the aorta, decussate across the middle in front of that vessel, the fibres of the right crus passing in front of those of eft crus. The fibres then encircle the œsophagus, forming an elliptical opening

for its passage, and finally join the central tendon, after a second decussation in front of the gullet.

The **arcuate ligaments** are five in number.

The **middle arcuate ligament** is a fibrous arch connecting together the crura of the diaphragm in front of the aorta, and giving origin to fibres which join the crura as they decussate to encircle the gullet.

The **internal arcuate ligament** is a thickening formed by the attachment of the psoas fascia to the body of the first lumbar vertebra internally and its transverse process externally. Stretching across the upper end of the psoas muscle, the ligament gives origin to muscular fibres directed upwards on each side of the crura.

The **external arcuate ligament** is the thickened upper end of the fascia over the quadratus lumborum (anterior layer of the lumbar fascia), and is attached internally to the transverse process of the first lumbar vertebra, and externally to the

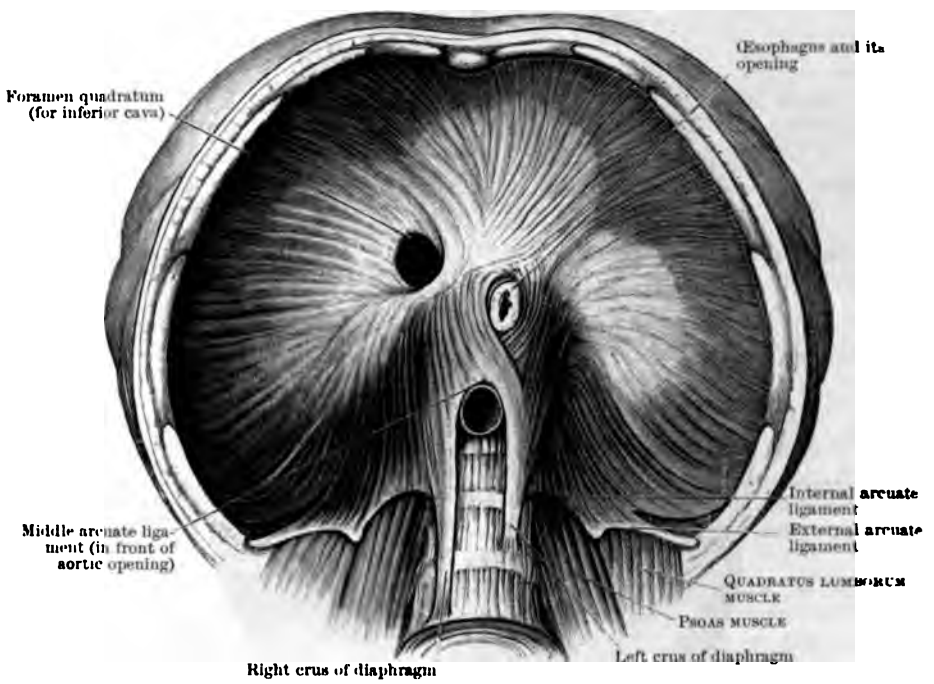

Œsophagus and its opening
Foramen quadratum (for inferior cava)
Internal arcuate ligament
External arcuate ligament
Middle arcuate ligament (in front of aortic opening)
Quadratus lumborum muscle
Psoas muscle
Left crus of diaphragm
Right crus of diaphragm

FIG. 335.—THE DIAPHRAGM (from below).

last rib. It gives origin to another broad band of muscular fibres, separated from those arising from the internal arcuate ligament by an interval, and passing upwards to the central tendon of the diaphragm.

From this extensive origin the muscular fibres of the diaphragm converge to an **insertion** into a large trilobed **central tendon**. Of its lobes the right one is the largest, the middle or anterior is intermediate in size, and the left is the smallest. It does not occupy the centre of the muscle, being placed nearer the front than the back. The fibres of the crura are consequently the longest; those from the sternum are the shortest.

The diaphragm is pierced by numerous structures. The superior epigastric artery enters the sheath of the rectus abdominis between its sternal and costal origins; the musculo-phrenic artery passes between its attachments to the seventh and eighth ribs. The sympathetic cord and the splanchnic nerves pierce or pass behind the diaphragm; the last thoracic nerve passes beneath the external arcuate ligament; and the aorta, the vena azygos major, and thoracic duct pass between the crura, underneath the middle arcuate ligament (*aortic opening*). The special foramina are two in number. The *foramen quadratum* in the right lobe of the central tendon transmits the inferior vena cava, and small branches of the right

phrenic nerve. The *œsophageal opening* is in the muscular substance of the diaphragm, behind the central tendon, and is surrounded by a sphincter-like arrangement of the crural fibres. Besides the œsophagus, this opening transmits the two pneumogastric nerves. The upper convex surface of the diaphragm forms the sloping floor of the thorax, and is in contact with the pleuræ and the pericardium (which is firmly bound down to the central tendon, and less firmly to the

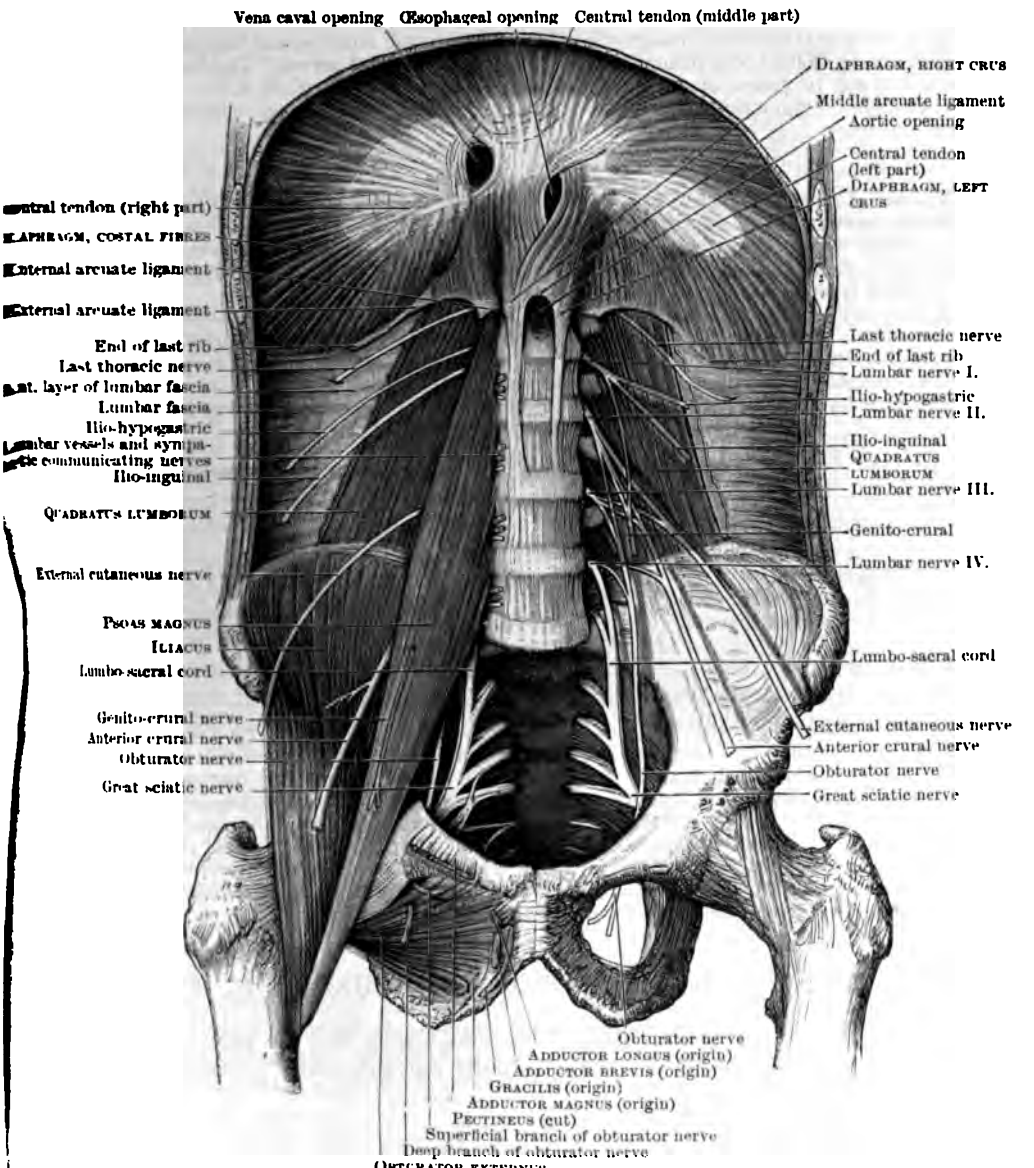


Fig. 336.—View of the Posterior Abdominal Wall, to show the Muscles and the Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus.

muscular fibres on the left side). By its lateral margins the diaphragm is in contact on each side with the thoracic wall beyond the reflection of the pleura, and behind with the œsophagus and descending thoracic aorta. The under surface of the diaphragm is concave, and is for the most part invested by peritoneum. It is in relation with the liver, stomach, spleen, kidneys, suprarenal bodies, duodenum and pancreas, the inferior vena cava, and the branches of the cœliac axis. Its vault is higher on the right side than on the left, owing to the upward projection of the liver on that side.

The diaphragm is found as a complete septum between the thorax and abdomen only in mammals. It is occasionally deficient in the human subject, producing *hernia of the diaphragm* either into the pericardial cavity through the central tendon, or into the thoracic cavity through the lateral portions of the muscle. A rare condition is congenital deficiency of a part of the lateral half of the muscle, generally placed posteriorly, and on the left side. This produces, by continuity of the peritoneum and pleura behind the diaphragm, a *congenital diaphragmatic hernia*.

Nerve-Supply.

The intercostal muscles, levatores costarum, infra-costal muscles, and triangularis sterni, are all supplied by the anterior primary divisions of the **intercostal nerves**. The diaphragm receives its chief, if not its entire, motor supply from the **phrenic nerves** (C. 3. 4. 5.) It is innervated also by the diaphragmatic plexus of the sympathetic, and is said to receive fibres from the lower intercostal nerves.

Actions.

The act of respiration consists of two opposite movements, inspiration and expiration.

1. The **movement of expiration** is performed by (1) the elasticity of the lungs, (2) the weight of the chest walls, (3) the elevation of the diaphragm, (4) the action of muscles—triangularis sterni and muscles of the abdominal wall. It is sometimes stated that the interosseous fibres of the internal intercostal muscles are depressors of the ribs.

2. The **movement of inspiration** results in the enlargement of the thoracic cavity in all its diameters. Its antero-posterior and transverse diameters are increased by the elevation and forward movement of the sternum, and by the elevation and eversion of the ribs, while its vertical diameter is increased by the descent of the diaphragm.

The muscles of **inspiration** are divided into two series—ordinary and accessory.

a. **Ordinary Muscles.**	*b.* **Extraordinary and Accessory Muscles**
Diaphragm	Quadratus lumborum
Intercostals	Pectorales
Scaleni	Serratus magnus
Serrati postici	Sterno-mastoid
Levatores costarum	Latissimus dorsi
	Infra-hyoid muscles
	Extensors of the spine

Of the ordinary muscles the diaphragm is the most important. Its action is twofold—**centrifugal**, elevating the ribs and increasing the transverse and antero-posterior diameters of the thorax, and **centripetal**, drawing downwards the central tendon and increasing the vertical diameter of the thorax. Of the two movements the former is the more important. There has been considerable diversity of opinion regarding the action of the intercostal muscles. It is generally agreed that the external muscles elevate the ribs; it is probable that the whole of each internal muscle acts in the same way, although it has been stated by different observers that the whole internal muscle is a depressor; or that the interosseous part is a depressor, the interchondral portion of the muscle an elevator of the ribs.

FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE ABDOMINAL WALL.

The space between the margins of the bony thorax and the pelvis is filled up by a series of muscular sheets, covered externally and internally by fasciæ.

FASCIÆ.

The fasciæ of the abdominal wall are—*externally*, the superficial and deep fasciæ; *internally*, the fascia transversalis, which is continuous with the diaphragmatic, lumbar, psoas, iliac, and pelvic fasciæ, and is lined within by the **extra-peritoneal tissue**.

The **superficial fascia** of the abdomen is liable to contain a large quantity of fat. It is separated in the groin into *two layers*: a superficial fatty layer continuous over Poupart's ligament with the fascia of the front of the thigh (p. 356), and a deeper membranous layer attached to the inner half of Poupart's ligament, and more externally to the fascia lata of the thigh below Poupart's ligament. The two layers are separated by the lymphatic glands and the superficial vessels of the groin. Higher up in the abdominal wall the two layers blend together, and passing

wnwards over the spermatic cord, they unite to form the fascia and dartos uscle of the scrotum. The attachment of the fascia to the groin prevents the ssage into the thigh of fluid extravasated in the abdominal wall.

The **deep fascia** of the abdominal wall resembles similar fasciæ in other situaons. It forms an investment for the obliquus externus muscle, and becomes thin nd almost imrceptible in reation to the poneurosis of hat muscle.

The **fascial ning** of the abominal cavity **ascia transverlis**) consists of a ontinuous layer f membrane hich receives ifferent names in ifferent parts of ts extent. It overs the deep urface of the ransversalis musle, and is coninuous internally through the lumar fascia) with the fasciæ of the quadratus lumborum and the psoas muscles. It is continuous above with the diaphragmatic fascia, and below (the iliac crest and Poupart's ligament intervening) with the fascia iliaca. Along with the last-named fascia it forms the **femoral sheath**. It is pierced by the spermatic cord or round ligament of the uterus at the internal abdominal ring, and its prolongation into the inguinal canal around the cord forms the **infundibuliform fascia**. It is lined internally by the peritoneum, from which it is separated by a layer of **extra-peritoneal tissue**.

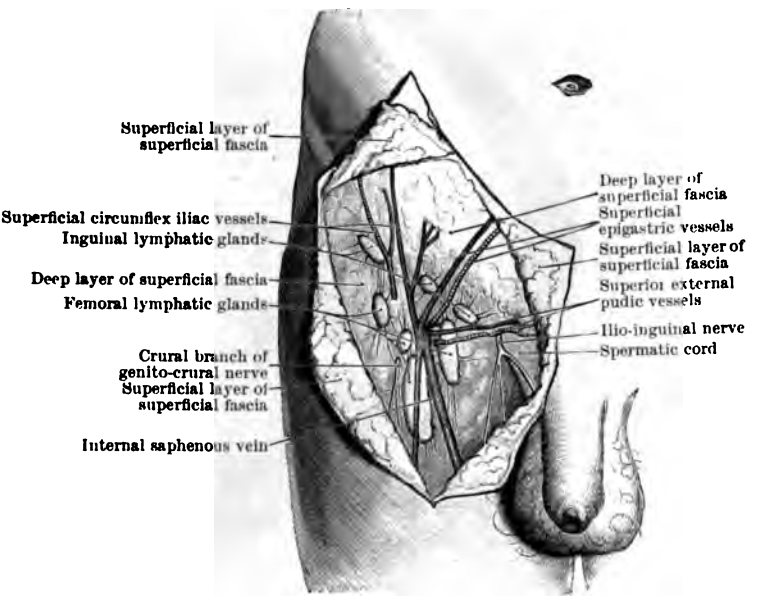


FIG. 337.—THE GROIN. STRUCTURES BETWEEN THE LAYERS OF THE SUPERFICIAL FASCIA.

The **extra-peritoneal tissue** is usually loaded with fat; it envelops the kidneys, ureters, suprarenal capsules, abdominal aorta and inferior vena cava and their branches, and forms sheaths for the vessels and ducts (ureter, vas deferens, etc.) It is continued upwards into the posterior mediastinum of the thorax through the aortic opening in the diaphragm, and below is in continuity with the extra-peritoneal tissue in the pelvis. It not only completely invests the kidneys and suprarenal capsules, but it also becomes interpolated between the layers of peritoneum upholding and enveloping the intestines. This tissue is absent in relation to the diaphragm, on the under surface of which there is also no fat.

THE MUSCLES OF THE ABDOMINAL WALL.

The muscles of the abdominal wall are in three series—lateral, anterior, and osterior.

The **lateral muscles** of the abdominal wall comprise the obliquus externus, bliquus internus, and transversalis abdominis.

The **obliquus externus abdominis** is a broad thin sheet of muscle, with an **igin** from the outer surfaces of the lower eight ribs, by slips which intergitate with the serratus magnus and latissimus dorsi muscles. The muscular bres radiate downwards and forwards, the lowest fibres passing vertically downards. The lower and posterior part of the muscle is **inserted** directly by fleshly bres into the outer lip of the iliac crest in its anterior half or two-thirds (Fig.

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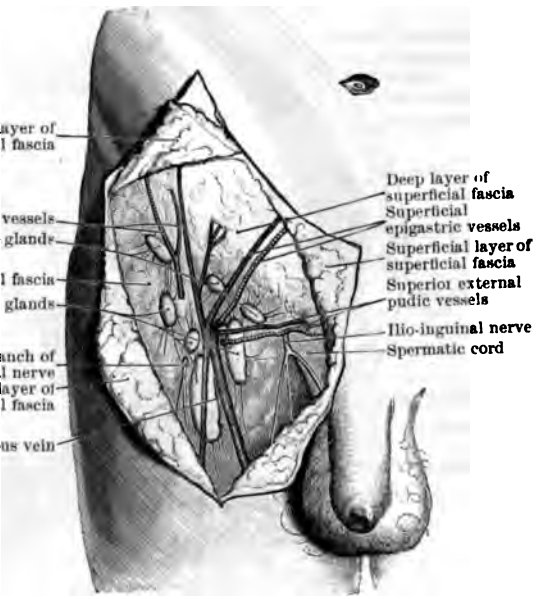

FIG. 337.—THE GROIN. STRUCTURES BETWEEN THE LAYERS OF THE SUPERFICIAL FASCIA.

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290, p. 373). The rest of the muscle is inserted into an extensive triangular aponeurosis covering the anterior abdominal wall. This aponeurosis is broader below than above; it is united with part of the aponeurosis of the obliquus internus in the upper three-fourths of its extent, to form the anterior layer of the **sheath of the rectus muscle**. It thus gains an attachment, above to the ensiform cartilage, below to the symphysis pubis, and by its intermediate fibres to the **linea alba**, a broad interlacing band of fibres about half an inch in width which occupies the middle line of the anterior abdominal wall in its whole extent, and forms the greater part of the ultimate insertion of all the lateral abdominal muscles.

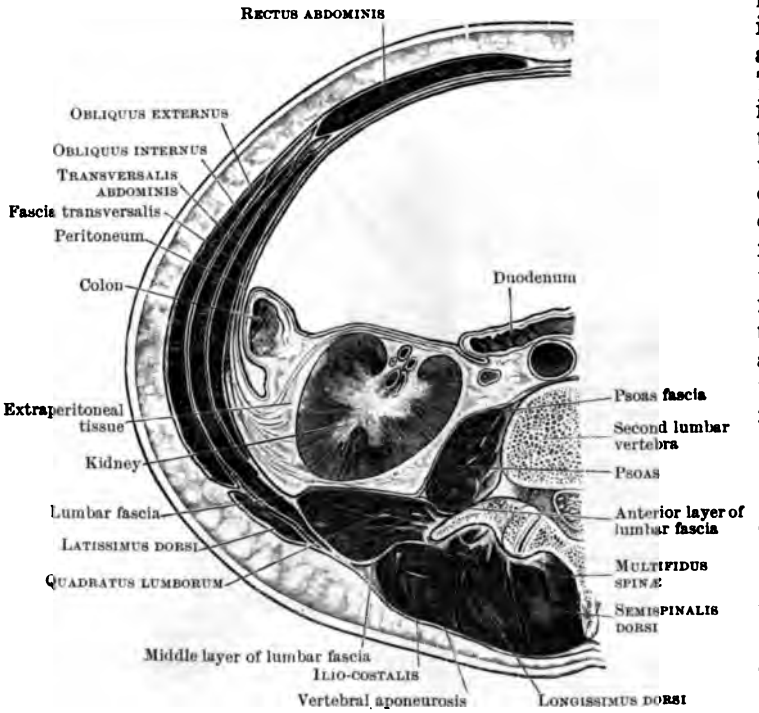


Fig. 338.—Transverse Section through the Abdomen, opposite the Second Lumbar Vertebra.

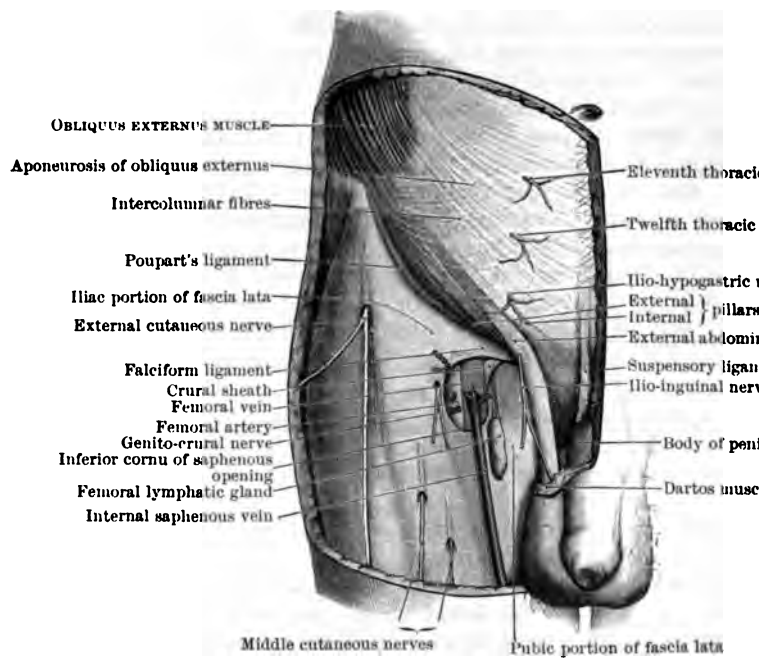


Fig. 339.—The Groin. The Structures seen on removal of the Superficial Fascia.

The upper part of the aponeurosis covers the insertion of the rectus abdominis

muscle on the chest wall, and gives origin to fibres of the pectoralis major. Below, the groin, it gives rise to Poupart's ligament, Gimbernat's ligament, the external abdominal ring with its two pillars, the intercolumnar fascia and fibres, and the triangular fascia.

Poupart's ligament is a fascial band which extends from the anterior superior

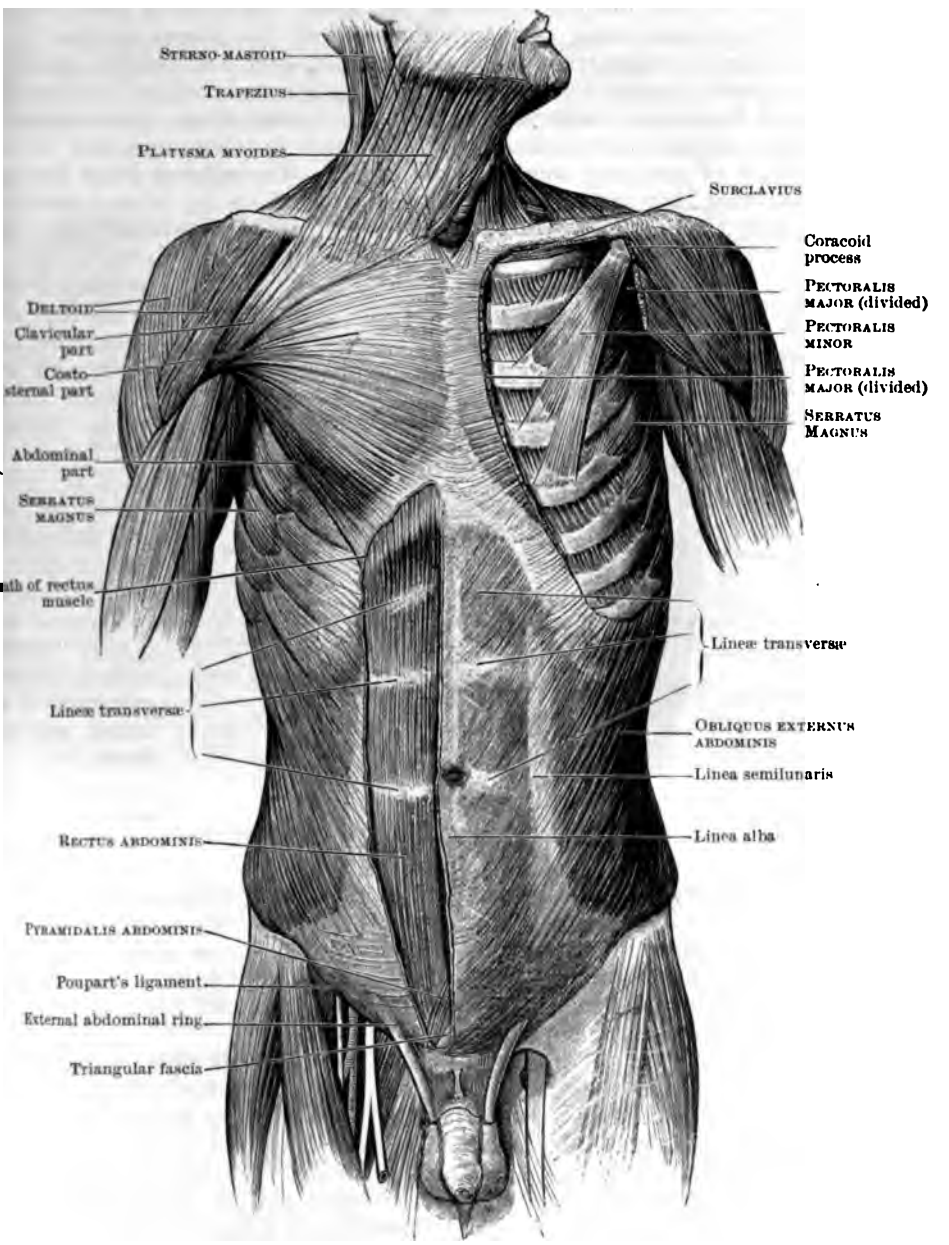


Fig. 340.—Anterior Muscles of the Trunk.

iliac spine to the spine of the pubis, arching over the iliacus, psoas, and pectineus muscles. It represents the lower limit of the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus abdominis, and gives attachment below to the fascia lata of the thigh. Its outer part affords partial origin to the deeper lateral muscles of the abdominal wall, and receives the attachment of the fascia transversalis and fascia iliaca; the inner part forms the gutter-like floor of the inguinal canal. At its inner end a triangular band of fibres is reflected horizontally backwards to the ilio-pectineal line, forming

Gimbernat's ligament, the outer edge of which limits internally **the crural ring**. The femoral vessels enclosed in the femoral sheath enter the thigh beneath Poupart's ligament, in front of the psoas muscle, and the term *superficial crural arch* is given to the part of the ligament which covers the vessels.

The **external abdominal ring**, the place of exit of an inguinal hernia, is a split in the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus, just above the spine of the pubis. It transmits the spermatic cord, or round ligament of the uterus, covered by the cremaster muscle or cremasteric fascia. The opening is of considerable extent, and its edges are drawn together by a thin fascia, strengthened superficially by a number of arched and horizontal fibres, called the **intercolumnar fibres**, which arise from Poupart's ligament and sweep inwards across the cleft in the aponeurosis.

The margins of the ring constitute its pillars. The **external pillar** is narrow and is formed from that part of the aponeurosis which joins the pubic spine, and is continuous with the inner end of Poupart's ligament. The **internal pillar** is the part of the aponeurosis internal to the ring which is attached to the crest and symphysis of the pubis. It is flat and broad.

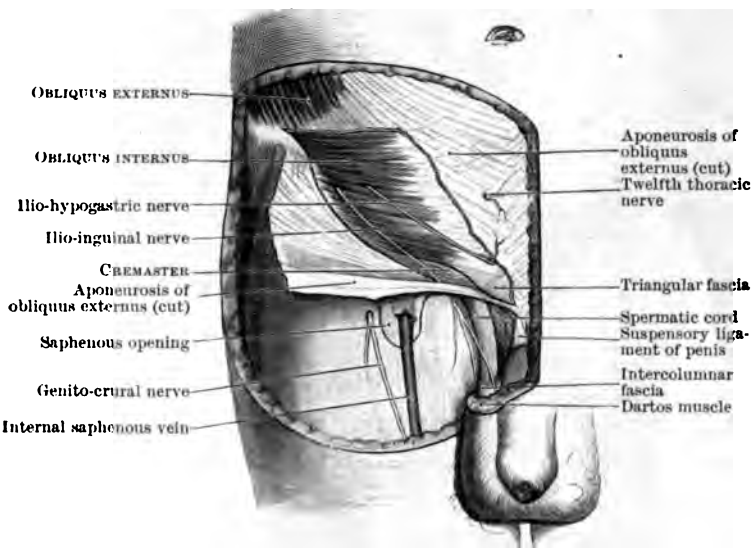


FIG. 341.—THE GROIN. THE STRUCTURES SEEN ON REMOVAL OF PART OF THE OBLIQUUS EXTERNUS.

The **intercolumnar fibres** and the pillars of the external abdominal ring are continuous with a thin tubular sheath, the **intercolumnar** or **external spermatic fascia**, which is attached to the margins of the "ring," and forms an envelope for the spermatic cord or round ligament in their further passage beyond the abdominal wall.

The **triangular fascia**, lastly, is a triangular band of fibres placed behind the internal pillar of the external abdominal ring. It consists of fibres from the *opposite* external oblique aponeurosis, which, having traversed the linea alba, gain an insertion into the crest and spine of the pubis.

The obliquus externus muscle is superficial in almost its whole extent. It is overlapped posteriorly by the latissimus dorsi muscle, but may be separated from it just above the iliac crest by an angular interval (triangle of Petit).

The **obliquus internus abdominis**, a broad thin sheet lying between the obliquus externus and the transversalis, **arises** from (1) the lumbar fascia, (2) the anterior half of the iliac crest, and (3) the outer half of Poupart's ligament. Directed for the most part upwards and forwards, its highest fibres are **inserted** directly into the last three ribs. The rest of the fibres form an extensive aponeurosis, broader above than below, which splits along the **linea semilunaris**, to form, along with the aponeuroses of the obliquus externus and transversalis muscles, the **sheath of the rectus abdominis**, and is thereafter inserted into the seventh, eighth, and ninth costal cartilages, and into the linea alba from the ensiform cartilage to the symphysis pubis. The fibres arising from Poupart's ligament join with those of the transversalis muscle having a similar origin to form the **conjoint tendon**, which passes altogether in front of the rectus muscle, to be attached to the pubic crest and spine and to the ilio-pectineal line.

The obliquus internus is limited above by the costal arch. Its lower fibres, **hing over the spermatic cord, assist in forming, externally, the anterior wall of inguinal canal**; internally, by means of the conjoint tendon, it helps to form **posterior wall of the canal.**

Its lowest fibres are continued into the cremaster muscle, which is prolonged **ng the spermatic cord through the inguinal canal.**

The cremaster muscle may be said to have an **origin** from the lower border of the **iquus internus,** and from the centre of Poupart's ligament. It forms a thin sheet, **reloping the testicle and spermatic cord**; its fibres are arranged in loops which arch **er the cord, and are inserted** into the fascia, and to a less extent (uppermost fibres) into **e pubic spine. The muscle is more largely represented by fascia in the female, and nstitutes the cremasteric fascia.**

The transversalis muscle arises (1) from the under surface of the costal **rtilages of the lower six ribs, inter-digitating with the origins of the diaphragm**; **) from the lumbar fascia**; (3) from the anterior half of the inner lip of the iliac **est**; and (4) from the outer third of Poupart's ligament. The muscular fibres

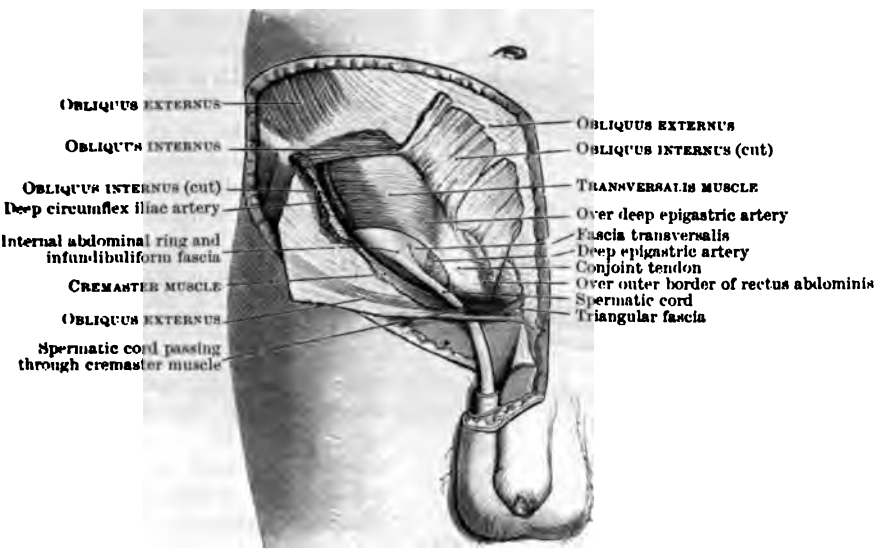


Fig. 342.—The Groin. The Structures seen on reflexion of part of the Obliquus Internus.

are directed for the most part horizontally forwards, and end in an aponeurosis which has a twofold **insertion.** (1) After forming (along with the aponeurosis of the obliquus internus) the posterior layer of the sheath of the rectus, the aponeurosis is attached to the ensiform cartilage and linea alba. (2) The lower fibres of the muscle arising from Poupart's ligament are joined by the lower part of the obliquus internus to form the larger part of the **conjoint tendon,** which passes in front of the lower part of the rectus muscle, to be inserted into the crest and spine of the pubis and the ilio-pectineal line.

The transversalis muscle is separated by the lower intercostal nerves from the obliquus internus muscle, and is lined on its deep surface by the transversalis fascia. Its lower border forms a concave edge, separated from Poupart's ligament by a annular interval in which the transversalis fascia appears, and through which the spermatic cord emerges at the internal abdominal ring, under cover of the obliquus internus muscle and the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus.

The **anterior muscles** of the abdominal wall include the pyramidalis and rectus abdominis, enveloped by the sheath of the rectus on either side of the linea alba.

The **pyramidalis abdominis** is a small triangular muscle **arising** from the pubic crest in front of the rectus muscle (Fig. 282, p. 366). It is directed obliquely

upwards, to be **inserted** for a variable distance into the linea alba. The mu
is often absent.

The **rectus abdominis muscle** is broad and strap-like, and **arises**, by an in
and an outer head, from the symphysis and crest of the pubis (Fig. 282, p. 3
Expanding as it passes upwards, the muscle is **inserted** from within outwards i
the front of the ensiform cartilage (Fig. 246, p. 322), and into the front of
seventh, sixth, and fifth costal cartilages. On its anterior surface, but
extending through the entire substance of the muscle, are three or more transve
tendinous intersections (**lineæ transversæ**), adherent to the sheath of the muscl
the lowest opposite the umbilicus, and the highest about the level of the ensifor
cartilage. Enclosed in its sheath, and covered anteriorly by the pyramidalis muscl
the rectus conceals the superior and dee
epigastric vessels, the terminal branche
of the lower thoracic nerves (whic
pierce the muscle to reach the anteri
abdominal wall), the fold of Dougl
and the fascia transversalis. The inn
border of the muscle lies alongside the
linea alba; its outer border is convex, and
corresponds to the **linea semilunaris**.

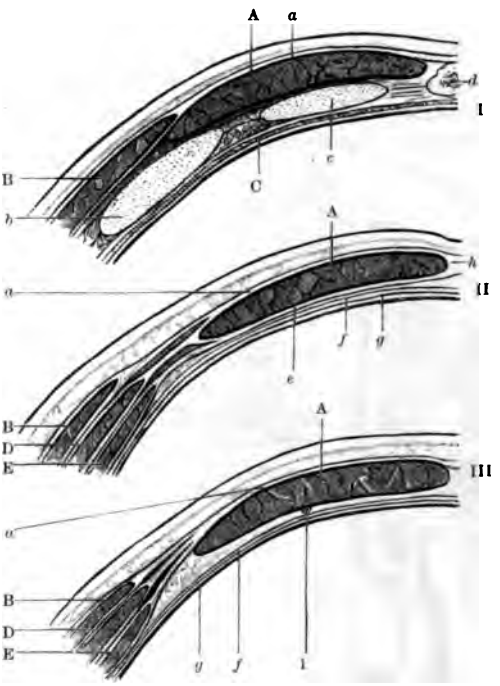


FIG. 343.—THE SHEATH OF THE RECTUS ABDOMINIS MUSCLE.

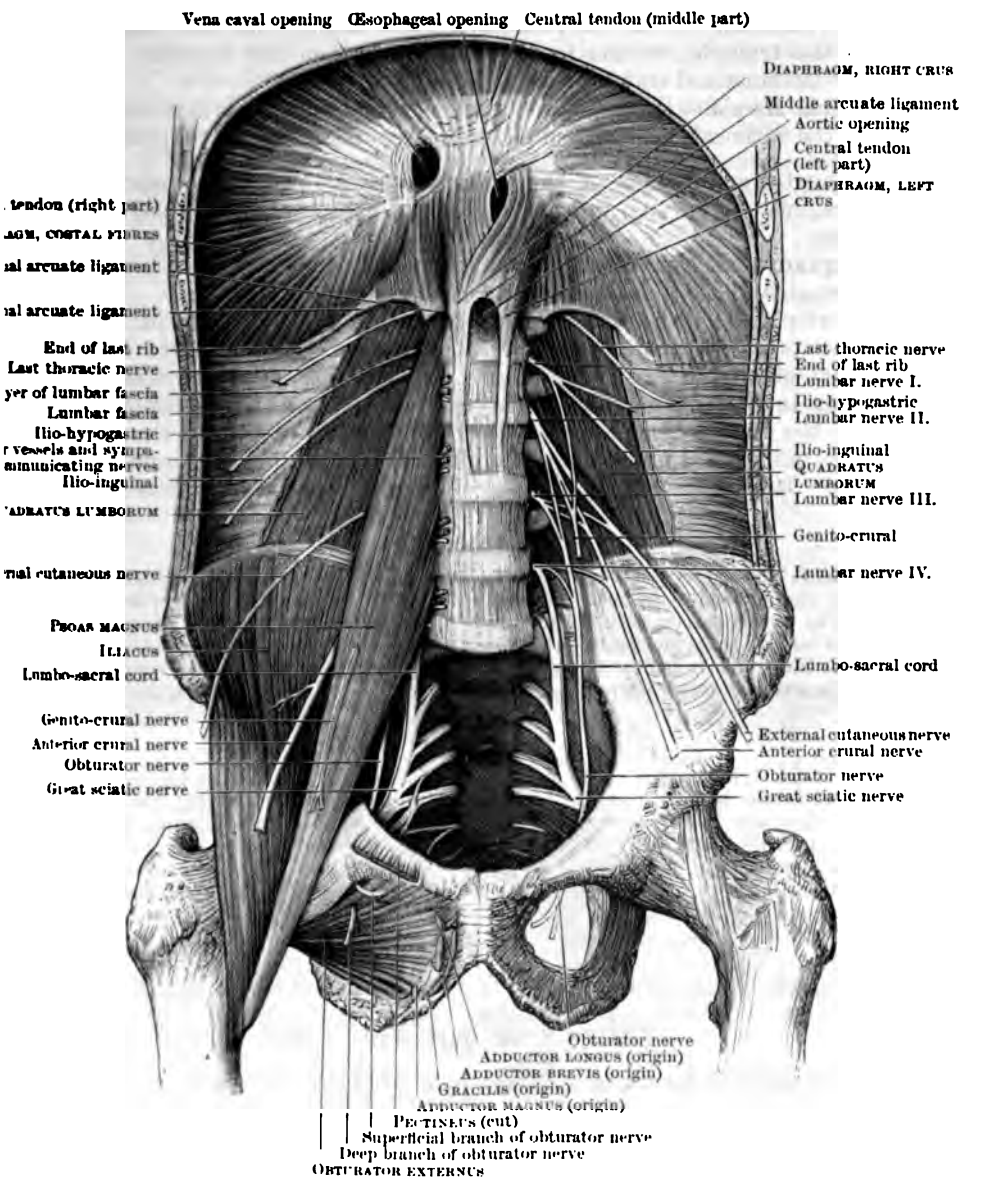
(I.) In the thoracic wall; (II.) In the upper three-quarters of the abdominal wall; (III.) In the lower fourth of the abdominal wall.

A, RECTUS MUSCLE; B, OBLIQUUS EXTERNUS; C, DIAPHRAGM; D, OBLIQUUS INTERNUS; E, TRANSVERSALIS ABDOMINIS. *a*, Anterior layer of rectus sheath; *b*, Fifth costal cartilage; *c*, Sixth costal cartilage; *d*, Xiphoid cartilage; *e*, Posterior layer of rectus sheath; *f*, Transversalis fascia; *g*, Peritoneum; *h*, Linea alba. 1, Deep epigastric artery.

The **sheath of the rectus muscle** is derived from the aponeuroses of the lateral muscles of the abdominal wall, which, after enclosing the muscle, give rise in the middle line to the linea alba. At the linea semilunaris, at the outer border of the rectus muscle, the aponeurosis of the obliquus internus splits into anterior and posterior layers. The anterior layer, joined by the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus, passes in front of the rectus, and constitutes the anterior lamina of the sheath. The posterior layer, joined by the aponeurosis of the transversalis muscle, passes behind the rectus, and constitutes the posterior lamina of its sheath. This arrangement obtains in the upper three-fourths of the abdominal wall. Below the level of the iliac crest the sheath of the muscle is deficient posteriorly, and a crescentic border, the **fold of Douglas**, marks the lower limit of the posterior lamina. In consequence, the rectus in the lower fourth of the abdominal wall rests upon the fascia transversalis directly. Close examination, however, usually reveals a thin layer behind the muscle in continuity with the fold of Douglas, and merging below with the fascia transversalis. In this region the rectus is covered anteriorly by the conjoint tendon of the obliquus internus and transversalis, and by the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus, which is gradually becoming separate from the subjacent aponeurosis. The upper part of the rectus, lying on the chest wall, is only covered anteriorly by a single layer of aponeurosis derived from the obliquus externus, which in this situation is giving origin to the pectoralis major muscle.

Inguinal Canal.—The spermatic cord in the male, and the round ligament in the female, in their passage through the lower part of the abdominal wall, pass through the inguinal canal, which is bounded by these abdominal muscles. The canal begins at the *internal abdominal ring*, placed half an inch above Poupart's

nent, and midway between the anterior superior iliac spine and the symphysis s. It ends at the *external abdominal ring*, placed above the spine and crest he pubis. The *front wall* of the canal is formed by the aponeurosis of the quus externus, and in its outer part by the muscular fibres of the obliquus rnus; the *back wall* of the canal is formed by the fascia transversalis, and in nner part the conjoint tendon; while the *floor* of the canal is formed by



'G. 344.—View of the Posterior Abdominal Wall, to show the Muscles and the Nerves of the Lumbo-Sacral Plexus.

part's ligament, and in its inner part by Gimbernat's ligament. The spermatic l, piercing the transversalis fascia, enters the inguinal canal at the internal ominal ring, and is there invested by its *first envelope*, the **infundibuliform** or **rnal spermatic fascia**, a sheath of fascia derived from the margin of the ring and tinuous with the fascia transversalis. It then passes obliquely inwards, downds, and forwards, and escapes below the lower border of the obliquus internus cle, from which it carries off a *second investment*, partly fascial, partly muscular

—the **cremaster muscle** or **cremasteric fascia**. Continuing its course in front of t conjoint tendon, it emerges through the external abdominal ring, from the edges which the **intercolumnar fascia** is derived, the *third* or *external investment* for the co

Hesselbach's triangle, bounded below by the line of Poupart's ligament, interna by the rectus abdominis muscle, and externally by the deep epigastric artery, the mesial side of the internal abdominal ring, is the site of one form of inguin hernia. The spermatic cord passes over the base of the triangle, covered o by the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus. Behind the cord, and forming t floor of the triangle, are the fascia transversalis and the conjoint tendon of t obliquus internus and transversalis muscles.

Inguinal Hernia.—For an account of the anatomical relations of the inguin canal to the various forms of inguinal hernia, see the section on "Applied Anatomy."

The **posterior muscles of the abdominal wall and false pelvis** include th psoas (magnus and parvus) and iliacus, described already (p. 363), and the quadratu lumborum.

The **quadratus lumborum** lies on the posterior wall of the abdomen extern to the psoas, and extends between the iliac crest and the last rib. It **arises** from the posterior part of the iliac crest, from the ilio-lumbar ligament, and from the transverse processes of the lower lumbar vertebræ. It is **inserted** above into the inner part of the lower border of the last rib and the transverse processes of the upper lumbar vertebræ. It is enclosed between the anterior and middle layers of the lumbar aponeurosis (p. 391), and is placed behind the colon, kidney, and psoas muscle, in front of the multifidus spinæ and the lumbar transverse processes. Its outer border is directed obliquely upwards and inwards.

Nerve-Supply.

The nerve-supply of all the foregoing muscles except the psoas, cremaster, quadratus lumborum, and iliacus, is derived from the anterior primary divisions of the **lower six thoracic nerves**. The pyramidalis muscle is innervated by the **last thoracic nerve**. The cremaster muscle receives its supply from the **genito-crural nerve**, whilst the quadratus lumborum is innervated by the first three or four **lumbar nerves**. The psoas and iliacus muscles are supplied, directly or through the **anterior crural nerve**, from the second, third, and fourth lumbar nerves.

Actions.

Many of the actions of the above muscles have already been given in previous sections. (1) Their chief action is to retract the abdominal walls, and, by compressing the contents of the abdomen, they are powerful agents in vomiting, defæcation, micturition, parturition, and laboured expiration. (2) They are also flexors of the spine and pelvis—the muscles of both sides acting together; the spine and pelvis are laterally flexed, when one set of muscles acts alone. (3) The quadratus lumborum is a muscle of inspiration, an extensor of the spine, and a lateral flexor of the spine and pelvis.

FASCIÆ AND MUSCLES OF THE PERINEUM AND PELVIS.

FASCIÆ OF THE PERINEUM.

The **superficial fascia** of the perineum possesses certain special features. It is continuous with the superficial fascia of the abdominal wall, thigh, and buttock, and is prolonged on to the penis and scrotum. In relation to the penis, it is devoid of fat and consists only of areolar tissue. In relation to the scrotum, it is intermingled with involuntary muscular fibres, and constitutes the **dartos muscle**, which assists in suspending the testicles and corrugating the skin of the scrotum. This fascia also forms the **septum of the scrotum**, which, extending upwards, incompletely separates the two testicles and their coverings. In the female the superficial fascia takes a large share in the formation of the mons veneris and labia majora, in which a considerable quantity of fat occurs.

The fascia over the posterior part of the perineum fills up the ischio-rectal fossæ, in the form of two pads of adipose tissue, on either side of the rectum and anus. Over the tuberosities of the ischium the fat is largely replaced by bands of fibrous tissue closely adherent to the subjacent deep fascia.

The fascia in the anterior part of the perineum closely resembles the same cia in the groin. It is divisible into a superficial fatty and a deeper membranous er; the former continuous with the same layer in the thigh, and with the fat the ischio-rectal fossa posteriorly. The deeper membranous layer is attached erally to the pubic arch, posteriorly to the base of the triangular ligament, and the middle line to the root of the penis (bulb and corpus spongiosum) by a dian raphe continuous farther forwards with the septum of the scrotum entioned above. Anteriorly the fascia is continued over the spermatic cords to e anterior abdominal wall. The importance of this fascia lies in relation to the travasation of urine from a rupture of the urethra. By the fascial attachments e fluid is prevented from passing backwards into the ischio-rectal fossa, or terally into the thigh. It is directed forwards into relation with the scrotum d penis, and along the spermatic cord to the anterior abdominal wall. The ptum of the scrotum being incomplete, fluid extravasated on one side can pass ross the middle line to the opposite half of the perineum and scrotum.

The **deep fascia** of the perineum only exists in the form of the delicate oneuroses of the muscles.

THE MUSCLES OF THE PERINEUM.

The perineal muscles are naturally separated into a superficial and a deep set by e triangular ligament. Superficially are the sphincter ani externus, transversus

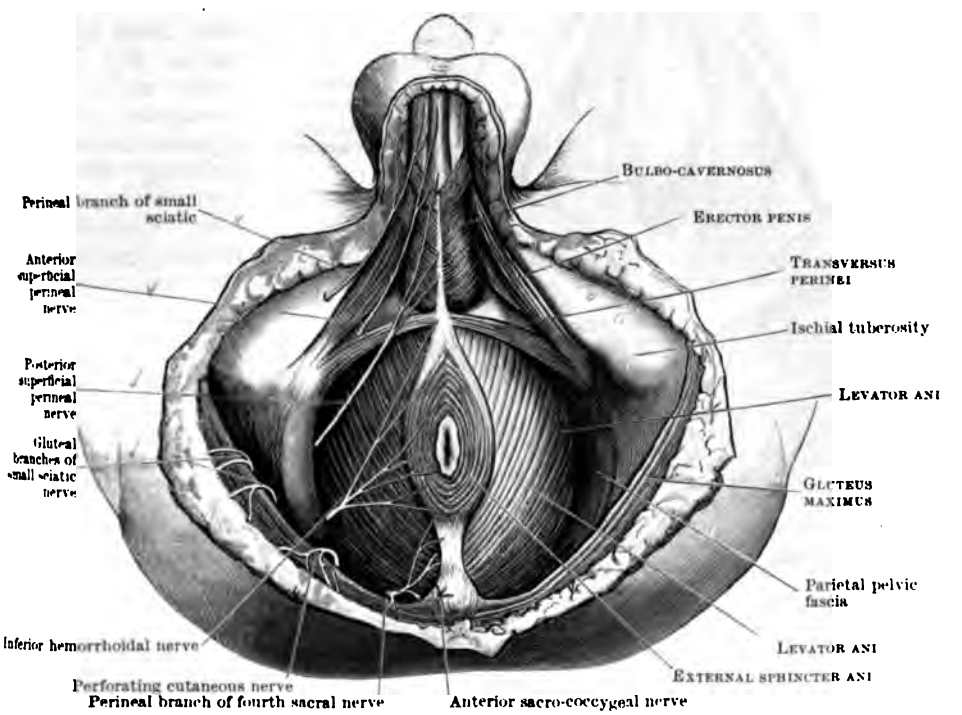


Fig. 345.—The Muscles and Nerves of the Male Perineum.

erinei superficialis, bulbo-cavernosus, and ischio-cavernosus; beneath the triangular gament is the compressor urethræ.

Sphincter ani Externus.—This muscle is fusiform in outline, flattened, and bliquely placed around the anus and anal canal. It can be separated into ree layers,—subcutaneous, superficial, and deep. (1) The most **superficial lamina** nsists of subcutaneous fibres decussating behind and in front of the anus, but thout bony attachments. (2) The **sphincter ani superficialis** constitutes the ain portion of the muscle. It is attached posteriorly to the coccyx, and in ont of the anus reaches the central point of the perineum. (3) The **deep fibres**

of the muscle form for the most part a complete sphincter for the anal canal. They are continuous with the fibres of the levator ani; they encircle the anal canal, and blend anteriorly with the central point of the perineum and the transverse perinei.

The muscle surrounds the anus, covered only by the skin, superficial fascia, and the **corrugator cutis ani** (a series of non-striated muscular fibres radiating from the anal opening). It rests on the edge of the levator ani, and forms the medial boundary of the ischio-rectal fossa.

The **transversus perinei superficialis** is not always present. It consists of a more or less feeble bundle of fibres, **arising** from the ascending ramus of the ischium and the fascia over it, and from the base of the triangular ligament. It is directed inwards and forwards to be **inserted** into the central point of the perineum. It conceals the base of the triangular ligament, and has a variable relation to the superficial perineal vessels and nerves.

The **bulbo-cavernosus** (ejaculator urinæ), *in the male*, surrounds the bulb, corpus spongiosum, and root of the penis. It is sometimes separated into two parts—*posterior* (compressor bulbi), and *anterior* (compressor radicis penis). It **arises** from the central point of the perineum, and from a median raphe on the under surface of the bulb and corpus spongiosum. The muscular fibres are directed outwards and forwards, and have a triple **insertion**: from behind forwards, (1) into the under surface of the triangular ligament; (2) into the membrane covering the corpus spongiosum; and (3), after encircling the corpora cavernosa, into the fascia covering the dorsum of the penis.

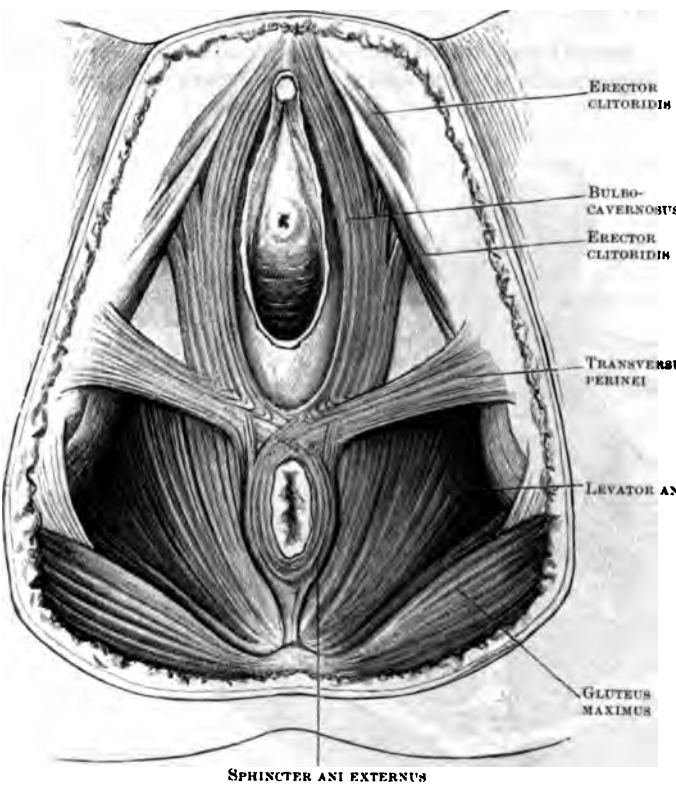


FIG. 346.—THE MUSCLES OF THE FEMALE PERINEUM (after Peter Thompson).

The **ischio-bulbosus**, not always present, **arises** from the ischium, and passes obliquely inwards and forwards over the bulbo-cavernosus, to be **inserted** into the raphe superficial to that muscle. It belongs to the same stratum as the transversus perinei and erector penis.

The **compressor hemispherium bulbi** is frequently absent. It consists of a thin cap-like layer of muscular fibres surrounding the extremity of the bulb under cover of the bulbo-cavernosus.

The **bulbo-cavernosus** (sphincter vaginæ), *in the female*, is separated into lateral halves by the vaginal and urethral openings. It forms two thin lateral layers covering the vaginal bulbs, and **arises** behind the vaginal orifice from the central point of the perineum. Anteriorly it is **inserted** into the root of the clitoris, some of its fibres embracing the corpora cavernosa so as to reach the dorsum of the clitoris.

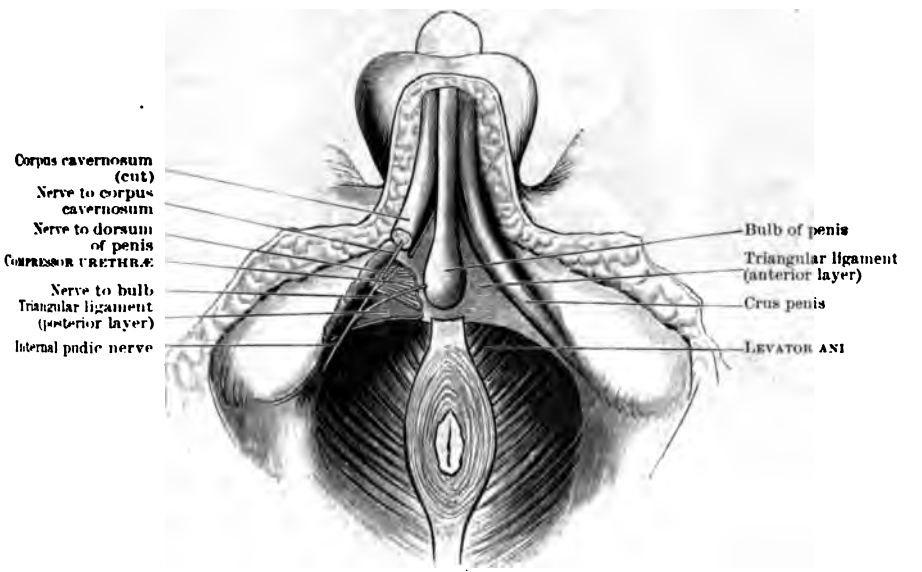
The **ischio-cavernosus** (erector penis), *in the male*, covers the crus penis. It

s from the ischial tuberosity and the great sacro-sciatic ligament, and passing ards, is **inserted** by a fascial attachment into the under surface of the crus s, and into the outer side and dorsal aspect of the corpus cavernosum.
The **ischio-cavernosus** (erector clitoridis), *in the female*, has a similar disposition, is of much smaller size than in the male.

The **pubo-cavernosus** is an occasional slip **arising** from the pubic ramus, and **inserted** into dorsum of the penis. It corresponds to the levator penis of lower animals.

The **compressor urethræ** (constrictor urethræ) constitutes the deeper muscular tum of the perineum. It is placed on the pelvic aspect of the triangular ment. It **arises** from the lower part of the pubic ramus, and is directed inwards, fibres radiating so as to enclose the membranous urethra. It is **inserted** into a lian raphe, partly in front of the urethra, but for the most part behind it. The es most intimately related to the urethra form a tubular sheath for the canal, have no bony attachments.

The most anterior and most posterior fibres of the compressor urethræ exist sometimes eparate muscles.
The **transversus perinei profundus** consists of a bundle of fibres on either side, **ing** from the ascending ramus of the ischium just below the compressor urethræ. It **serted** into a median raphe continuous with that of the compressor urethræ. The cle, in fact, constitutes a separate bundle below and behind the compressor urethræ.
The **ischio-pubicus** is a term applied to a feeble bundle of fibres which, when



347.—The Triangular Ligament of the Perineum, and the Termination of the Pudic Nerve.

sent, lies above and in front of the compressor urethræ. It **arises** from the pubic nus, and is **inserted** into a median raphe in front of the membranous urethra. This scle is homologous with the **compressor venæ dorsalis penis** of lower animals.

The **compressor urethræ** *in the female* is smaller than in the male. Its ertion is modified by the relations of the urethra to the vagina. The anterior es are continuous with those of the opposite side in front of the urethra; the rmediate fibres pass between the urethra and vagina, and the posterior fibres attached, along with the **transversus perinei profundus** (transversus vaginæ), into side of the vagina.

Nerve-Supply.

The **pudic nerve** (S. 2. 3. 4.) supplies all the muscles in this group; the external sphincter ugh the inferior hemorrhoidal, and the others through the perineal branch of the nerve. external sphincter is also supplied by the perineal branch of the **fourth sacral nerve.**

ACTIONS.

The **external sphincter** closes the anal canal. The **transversus perinei superficialis** d... back and fixes the central point of the perineum, assisted by the external sphincter. The **bu... cavernosus** of the male constricts the bulb and corpus spongiosum, and so expresses the last d... of urine or semen. In the female it acts as a feeble sphincter of the vagina. The **is... cavernosus** and **bulbo-cavernosus** help in erection of the penis or clitoris. The **compr... urethræ** constricts the membranous urethra, and in the female helps to flatten and fix the wa... the vagina. It also assists in causing erection of the penis or clitoris by compression of the v... in relation to it.

FASCIA OF THE PELVIS.

The pelvic basin, placed obliquely, deeper and more hollowed behind than ... front, and imperfect in its bony boundaries, is to a large extent completed by li... ments. The sacro-sciatic ligaments behind, the obturator membrane laterally, a... the triangular ligament in front assist in filling up its osseous deficiencies. It ... almost entirely clothed internally by muscles: by the pyriformis on each s... behind, the obturator internus at the side, and the compressor urethræ in cont...

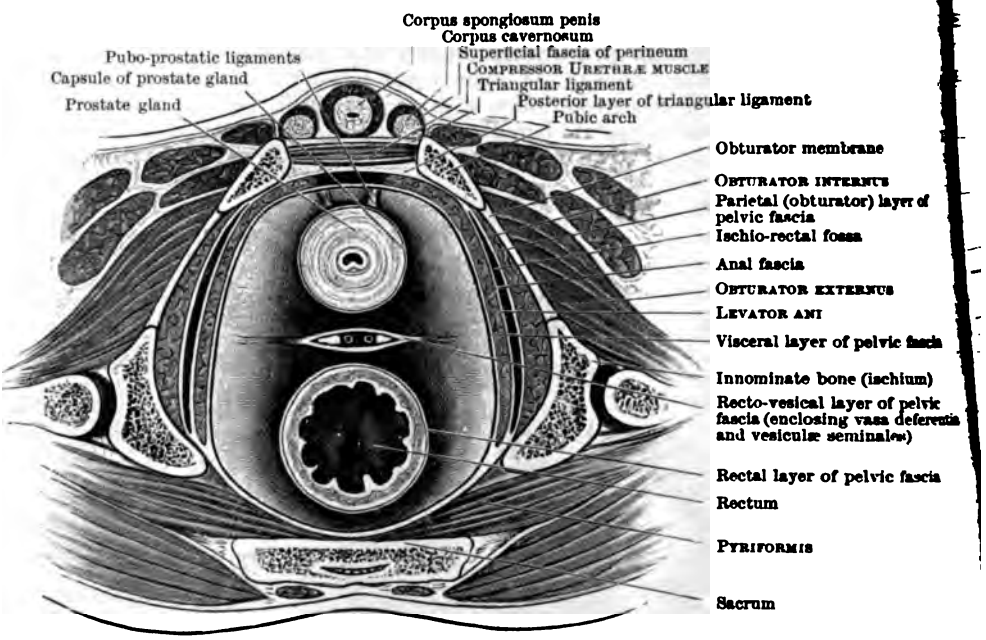


FIG. 348.—DISSECTION OF THE PELVIC FASCIA FROM ABOVE (diagrammatic).

with the triangular ligament in front. Indeed, the bones of the pelvis only project into the cavity in three places; the spines of the ischium project into the cavity on each side, and the pubis appears in its anterior wall.

The pelvic fascia forms a cylindrical membrane lining the wall of the pelvis, as an aponeurosis for its muscles. It is attached above and below to the inlet and outlet of the pelvis; above to the promontory of the sacrum, ilio-pectineal line, and back of the pubis; below to the coccyx, great sacro-sciatic ligament, tuber ischii, and the base of the triangular ligament. This cylindrical membrane is the **parietal pelvic fascia**; it forms the **pyriformis fascia** behind, the **obturator fascia** at the side of the pelvis, and the so-called **posterior layer** of the **triangular ligament** in front. As this fascia lines the pelvic wall it obtains attachments to the projecting bones, to the back of the pubis anteriorly, and to the spine of the ischium on each side. It is deficient in relation to the obturator groove, through which the obturator artery and nerve pass to reach the thigh.

The **white line**, a thickened band of the fascia, extends between the back of the pubis and the spine of the ischium, and roughly indicates the line of separation of the pelvic cavity from the ischio-rectal fossa. The white line serves two purposes; it gives origin to fibres of the levator ani muscle, and also to a **secondary**

fascia, known as the **visceral pelvic fascia**, which arches downwards and across the floor of the pelvis to be connected with the pelvic viscera. This ane is thin and unimportant behind, as it passes forwards from the lower ertebræ to the rectum. It is thicker at the sides and front of the pelvis, it forms nembrane upwards, ious mesi- with the coats of tum and , and en- g the pros- land and e semin- t the front pelvis this extends ne back of ubis, to it is di- attached, eck of the and pros- land, and

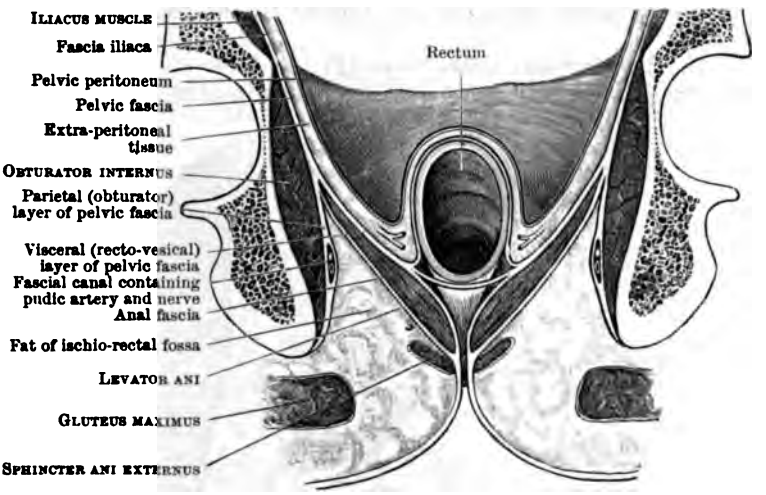
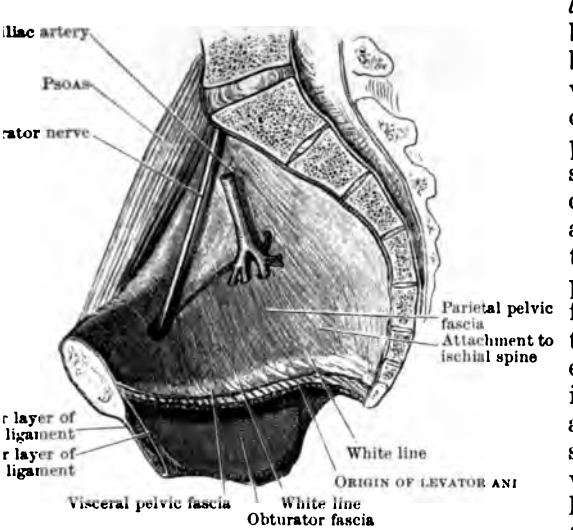


Fig. 349.—Oblique Section across the Pelvis, to show the Disposition of the Pelvic Fascia and the Boundaries of the Ischio-Rectal Fossa.

ise to two lateral folds—the **pubo-prostatic ligaments**, which enclose a them a hollow on the pelvic aspect of the fascia, known as the **cavum** The lateral portion of the visceral pelvic fascia constitutes the **recto-vesical** ivisible into three parts—*vesical*, *rectal*, and between these the *recto-vesical layer*, a partition insinuated between the rectum and bladder, and enclosing the vesiculæ seminales and vasa deferentia. This visceral pelvic fascia thus forms a support for the pelvic viscera, and at the same time acts as a partition between the pelvic cavity and the perineum. It is separated from the pelvic cavity by the peritoneum and the extra-peritoneal tissue, and is in contact with the levator ani muscle on its perineal surface. The internal iliac vessels and their branches lie on the pelvic aspect of the fascia, and the parietal vessels pierce it, and are en-



350.—The Outer Wall of the Pelvis (Pelvic Fascia).

d by it as they leave the pelvis. On the other hand the spinal nerves the sacral plexus lie outside the fascia with one exception. The obturator fter piercing the inner border of the psoas muscle and the psoas fascia, leaves vis through a special hole in the pelvic wall, after traversing the extra- eal tissue.

pelvic fascia in the female only differs in slight detail from that of the It encloses the neck of the bladder and vagina instead of the prostate and invests the lower part of the neck of the uterus instead of the vesiculæ les.

MUSCLES OF THE PELVIS.

The pelvic diaphragm consists of several more or less rudimentary mus slips, constituting the levator ani and ischio-coccygeus muscles, which serv uphold the pelvic floor, and are related to the rectum and the prostate glan vagina.

The **levator ani arises** from (1) the back of the body of the pubis, (2 parietal pelvic fascia above or along the *white line*, and (3) the spine of the isch

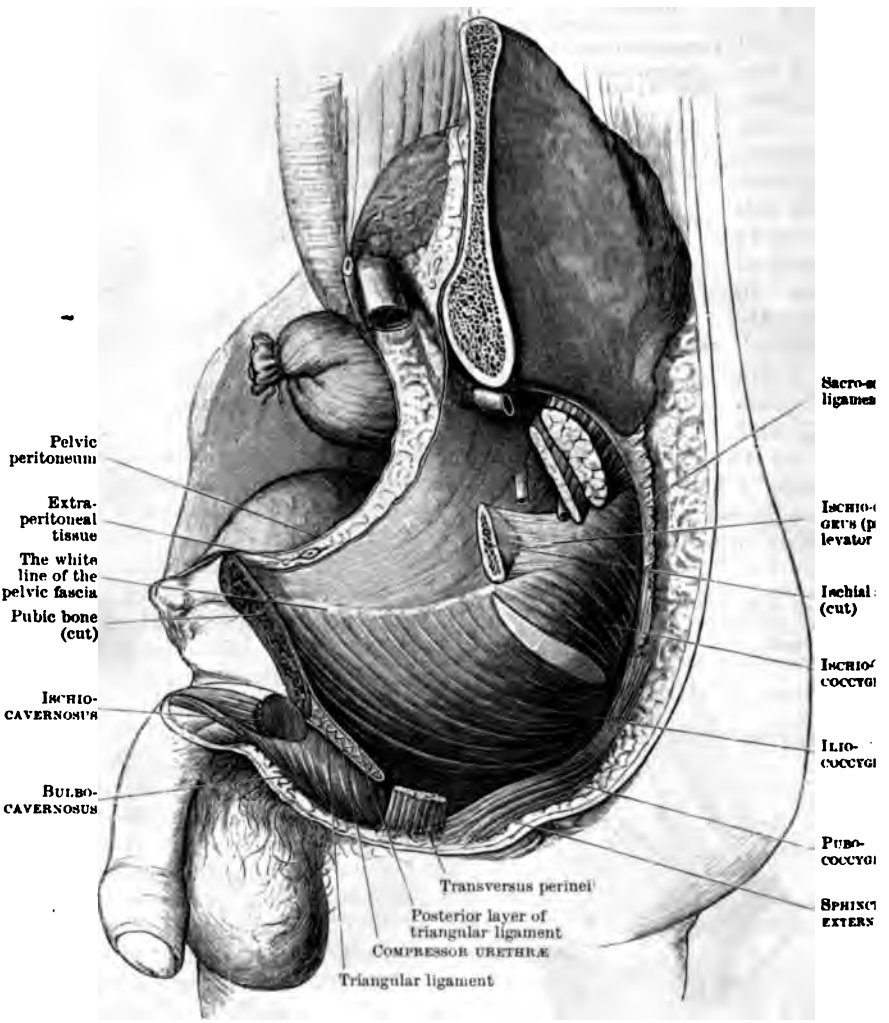


Fig. 351.—The Fascial and Muscular Wall of the Pelvis after Removal of Part of the Innominate Bone.

Its fibres are directed downwards and backwards, to be **inserted** into (1) the ce point of the perineum, (2) the external sphincter around the anus and the coccygeal raphe behind the anus, and (3) into the sides of the lower sacral an coccygeal vertebræ.

The concave upper surface of the muscle is covered in part by the vis pelvic fascia; in part it is in contact with the rectum behind and the pro gland or vagina in front. The inferior convex surface of the muscle form inner wall of the ischio-rectal fossa. Its posterior edge is overlapped by ischio-coccygeus; its anterior edge is in contact with the posterior layer o triangular ligament.

ıe **levator ani** is divisible into four parts—pubo-rectalis, pubo-coccygeus, ilio-ɔeus, and ilio-sacralis. The **pubo-rectalis** (levator prostatæ) is the part inserted into ntral point of the perineum. The **pubo-coccygeus** is the part inserted into the anus ıe ano-coccygeal raphe, and the **ilio-coccygeus** and **ilio-sacralis** are represented by ɔres attached to the sacrum and coccyx. The first two are best developed; the last ries of fibres are the most rudimentary. These several parts of the muscle represent mains of the flexor caudæ of tailed animals.

he **ischio-coccygeus** is a rudimentary muscle overlapping the posterior border e levator ani. It **arises** from the ischial spine and the small sacro-sciatic ıent, and is **inserted** into the sides of the lower two sacral and upper two geal vertebræ. The muscle is separated from the rectum by the visceral c fascia, and is in contact externally with the sacro-sciatic ligaments.

NERVE-SUPPLY.

ıe **levator ani** is supplied from two sources: by the perineal (muscular) branch of the pudic , and, on its pelvic surface, by special branches from the third and fourth sacral nerves. **schio-coccygeus** is supplied on its pelvic surface by the third and fourth sacral nerves.

ACTIONS.

The levator ani and ischio-coccygeus serve to uphold and slightly raise the pelvic floor. hey are likewise capable of producing slight flexion of the coccyx. (3) The anterior fibres e levator ani, in the female, sweeping round the vagina, compress its walls laterally, and with the sphincter vaginæ, help to voluntarily diminish the lumen of the tube. (4) The part of the muscle in the male elevates the prostate gland (levator prostatæ). (5) The chief ı of the levator ani is in *defæcation*. Along with the external sphincter it acts as a sphincter e rectum, closing the anal canal. During defæcation the muscle draws upwards the anus the fæcal mass, and so assists in its expulsion. (6) *In parturition*, in the same way, the le, contracting below the descending fœtal head, retards delivery. Contracting on the fœtal it draws upwards the pelvic floor over the fœtus, and so assists delivery.

IE DEVELOPMENT AND MORPHOLOGY OF THE SKELETAL MUSCLES.

ur knowledge of the development and morphology of the muscular system is very nplete. It has already been shown, in the chapter on general embryology, that the blast on either side of the embryonic medullary tube separates into three main parts—**nyotome, nephrotome,** and **sclerotome** or **lateral plates** (somatopleure and splanchno-e).

he **myotomes** are probably directly or indirectly the source of the striated muscles ıe whole body. Each consists at first of a quadrilateral bilaminar mass, resting ıst the medullary tube and notochord on either side. The cleft between its two layers sents the remains of the cœlomic cavity. In the early stages of embryonic life the th of the myotome is rapid. On its inner side masses of cells arise, which grow in- s and surround the medullary tube and notochord to form the foundation of the bral column. On its outer side cells appear to be given off which participate in the ation of the cutis vera. At the same time the dorsal and ventral borders of the tome continue to extend, and present extremities (growing points) with an epithelial ture for a considerable period. *On the dorsal side* it overlies the medullary tube, and rise to the muscles of the back; while by its *ventral extension*, which traverses the topleuric mesoblast in the body wall, it produces the lateral and ventral muscles of runk. By an inward extension it probably gives rise also to the hypaxial muscles of ıeck and loin. The cells of the inner layer of the myotome are responsible for the ation of the muscle fibres. The cells elongate in a direction parallel to the axis of the embryo, and give rise, by fusion with the cells of neighbouring myotomes, e columns and sheets of muscles of the back and trunk. For the most part (*e.g.* back abdomen) the originally segmental character of the muscular elements is lost by the or less complete fusion of adjacent myotomes. The intercostal muscles, however, he direct derivatives of individual myotomes.

Muscles of the Limbs.—In fishes and (doubtfully) reptiles there is evidence that nyotomes are concerned in the formation of the limb-muscles by their extension into imb-bud in a manner similar to that described for the trunk. In birds and mammals, ver, in which the limb-bud arises as an undifferentiated, unsegmented mass of blastic tissue, partly from the mesoblast surrounding the notochord, and partly from somatopleuric mesoblast, the myotomes stop short at the root of each limb, and ot penetrate into its substance. Instead, the muscular elements of the limb take

origin independently as *double dorsal* and *ventral strata* of fusiform cells on the dorsal and ventral surfaces of the limb-bud. These strata are *unsegmented*; they are grouped around the skeletal elements of the limb, and they gradually become differentiated into the muscle masses and individual muscles of the limb.

Muscles of the Head.—Notwithstanding the obscurity and complexity of this

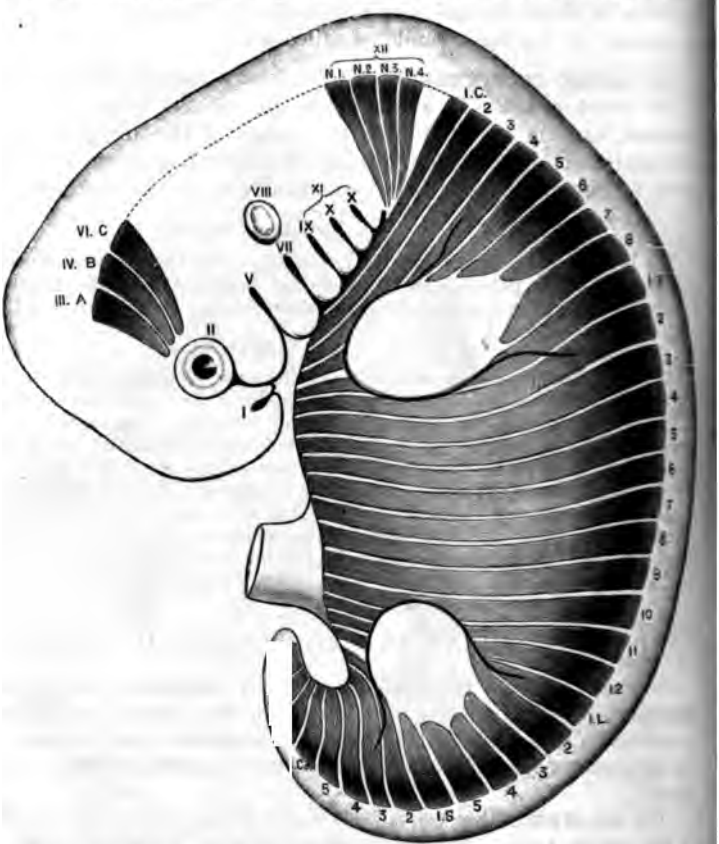


FIG. 352.

SCHEME TO ILLUSTRATE THE DISPOSITION OF THE MYOTOMES IN THE EMBRYO IN RELATION TO THE HEAD, TRUNK, AND LIMBS.

A, B, C, First three cephalic myotomes; N, 1, 2, 3, 4, Last persisting cephalic myotomes; C., T., L., S., Co., The myotomes of the cervical, thoracic, lumbar, sacral, and caudal regions; I., II., III., IV., V., VI., VII., VIII., IX., X., XI., XII., refer to the cranial nerves and the structures with which they may be embryologically associated.

subject, it appears certain that *at least two series* of elementary structures are concerned in the formation of the muscles of the head and face—the **cephalic myotomes** and the muscular structure of the **branchial arches.**

The number of myotomes originally existing in the region of the head is not known, although it is stated with some authority that nine is the perfect number. The *first three* are described as persisting in the form of the ocular muscles, the *last three* in relation to the muscles of the tongue, while the *three intervening myotomes* disappear.

The following table shows the possible fate of the cephalic myotomes:—

First, Superior, internal and inferior recti, obliquus inferior, levator palpebræ superioris.
Second, Obliquus superior.
Third, Rectus externus.
Fourth, *Fifth* and *Sixth*, Absent.
Seventh, *Eighth*, } Muscles of the tongue.
Ninth, *Tenth* (*first cervical*) } Muscles connecting the cranium and shoulder girdle.

The **mesoblastic tissue of the branchial arches** is probably concerned in the production of the following muscles of the face and neck:—

First (*mandibular*) *arch* . .	Muscles of mastication.
Second (*hyoid*) *arch* . . .	Platysma myoides and facial muscles. Muscles of the soft palate. Stapedius, stylo-hyoid, and digastric.
Third (*thyro-hyoid*) *arch* . .	Stylo-pharyngeus. Superior constrictor.
Fourth and Fifth (*branchial*) *arches*	Middle and inferior constrictors. Muscles of the larynx.

THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.

THE BRAIN AND SPINAL CORD, WITH THEIR MENINGES.

By D. J. CUNNINGHAM.

The nervous system connects the various parts of the body with each other and **co-ordinates them** into one harmonious whole. Its relatively great bulk and its **extreme complexity** constitute two of the most distinctive structural features **of man.** It consists of two parts, viz. the cerebrospinal nervous system and the **sympathetic** nervous system.

The sympathetic nervous system is composed of a chain of serially disposed **ganglia, bound** to each other by intervening nervous cords, and placed one on either **side of the vertebral** column. In addition to these gangliated cords, the sympathetic **system includes** certain dense plexuses of nerves and numerous scattered ganglia. **The whole is most** intimately connected with the cerebrospinal nervous system, and **both have** apparently a common developmental origin. The separation of the **nervous system** into the two leading subdivisions of sympathetic and cerebro-**spinal is therefore** of a somewhat arbitrary kind.

The **cerebrospinal nervous system** consists of the brain, which very nearly completely fills the cranial cavity, and the spinal cord or spinal marrow, which only partially fills the vertebral canal. These are continuous with each other, and together constitute the cerebrospinal axis. Attached to the brain and spinal cord are the numerous nerves which bring the various parts of the body into connexion with the central nervous axis. There are thirty-one pairs of symmetrically disposed **spinal nerves** attached to the sides of the spinal cord. Each of these nerves is connected to the side of the cord by a **ventral** or **anterior** and a **dorsal** or **posterior root**, and the dorsal root is distinguished by presenting a distinct oval swelling, termed a **spinal ganglion**, on that part of its course immediately internal to the place where the two roots unite to form the **spinal nerve-trunk** (Fig. 365, p. 453).

The **cranial nerves** are twelve in number on each side, but one only (viz. the fifth or trigeminal) presents a double-rooted attachment similar to a spinal nerve Several, however, possess ganglia in every respect comparable with the ganglia on the dorsal roots of the spinal nerves. These are the fifth or trigeminal, the seventh or facial, the eighth or auditory, the ninth or glosso-pharyngeal, and the tenth or vagus cranial nerves.

CEREBROSPINAL NERVOUS SYSTEM.

The brain and spinal cord are composed of two substances which present a different appearance to the eye, and which are distinguished by the terms **white matter** and **gray matter**. The difference in colour between these two substances depends not only upon the different elements which enter into their formation, but also upon the fact that the gray matter is the more vascular of the two. The white matter is chiefly composed of nerve-fibres, whilst the essential constituents of the gray matter are nerve-cells which give origin to nerve-fibres. An all pervading matrix termed the neuroglia forms the bed in which the nerve-fibres and

nerve-cells lie, and is present both in the gray and the white matter. The elements therefore, which constitute nervous tissue are nerve-cells, nerve-fibres, and neuroglia.

Nerve-fibres.—Nerve-fibres arranged in bundles of greater or less bulk form the nerves which pervade every part of the body. They also constitute the greater part of the brain and spinal cord. Nerve-fibres are the conducting elements of the nervous system; they serve to bring the nerve-cells into relation both with each other and with the various tissues of the body.

There are different varieties of nerve-fibres, but in all the leading and essential constituent is a delicate thread-like band, termed the **axis-cylinder.** The difference between individual fibres depends upon the fact that in some cases the axis-cylinder becomes invested by one or two coats, whilst in other cases it remains naked. When the axis-cylinder is coated on the outside by a more or less thick sheath of a fatty substance termed **myelin,** it is said to be a myelinated or medullated fibre. When the coating of myelin is absent, the fibre is termed a non-myelinated or a non-medullated fibre. A second sheath—thin, delicate, and membranous, and placed externally—may also be present in both cases. It is termed the **primitive sheath** or the **neurolemma.** From a structural point of view, therefore, four different forms of nerve-fibre may be recognised:—

FIG. 353. NERVE-FIBRE FROM A FROG (after v. Kölliker).

Non-medullated	1. Naked axis-cylinders.
	2. Axis-cylinders with primitive sheaths.
Medullated	3. Primitive sheath absent.
	4. Primitive sheath present.

Every nerve-fibre near its origin and as it approaches its termination is unprovided with sheaths of any kind, and is simply represented by a non-medullated naked axis-cylinder. The fibres of the olfactory nerves afford us an example of non-medullated fibres furnished with a primitive sheath.

Medullated fibres are present in greater quantity in the cerebro-spinal system than non-medullated fibres. Thus all the nerves attached to the brain and cord, with the exception of the olfactory and optic, are formed of medullated fibres provided with a primitive sheath; whilst the entire mass of the white substance of the brain and cord, and also the optic nerves, are formed of medullated fibres devoid of a primitive sheath.

It is important to note that the distinction between the medullated and non-medullated fibres is not one which exists throughout all stages of development. As will be presently pointed out, every fibre is a direct outgrowth from a cell, and in the first instance it is not provided with a medullary sheath. Indeed, it is not until about the fifth month of fœtal life that those fibres which are to form the white substance of the cerebrospinal axis begin to acquire their coating of myelin. Further, this coating appears in the fibres of different strands or tracts at different periods, and a knowledge of this fact has enabled the anatomist to follow out the connexions of the tracts of fibres which compose the white matter of the brain and cord.

But it may be asked: How does a nerve-fibre arise and how does it end? Every fibre is directly continuous by one extremity with a nerve-cell, whilst its opposite extremity breaks up into a number of ramifications, all of which end freely in relation to another nerve-cell, or in relation to certain tissues of the body, as, for example, to muscle-fibres or to the epithelial cells of the epidermis. The length of nerve-fibres, therefore, varies very greatly. Some fibres are short and merely bring two neighbouring nerve-cells into relation with each other: others travel long distances. Thus a fibre arising from one of the motor cells of the lower end of the spinal cord may, after leaving the cord, extend to the most outlying muscle in the sole of the foot before it reaches its destination. But even when a fibre does not leave the central axis a great length may be attained, and cells

uated in the motor area of the cortex of the cerebrum give origin to fibres which s down to the lower end of the cord.

Physiologists classify the fibres which form the nerves into two sets, afferent l efferent. **Afferent nerve-fibres** conduct the impulse of impressions from the ipheral organs into the central nervous system; and as a change of consciousness, in other words, a sensation is a frequent result, these fibres are often called sory. **Efferent nerve-fibres** carry impulses out from the brain and cord to peri- ral organs. The majority of these fibres go to muscles and are termed *motor*; ers, however, go to glands and are called *secretory*; whilst some are *inhibitory* d serve to carry impulses which restrain or check movement or secretion. As viously stated, spinal nerves are ch attached to the rd by a ventral or terior root, and a sal or posterior ot; the fibres com- sing the former e efferent; whilst ie fibres of the sterior root are most entirely ferent.

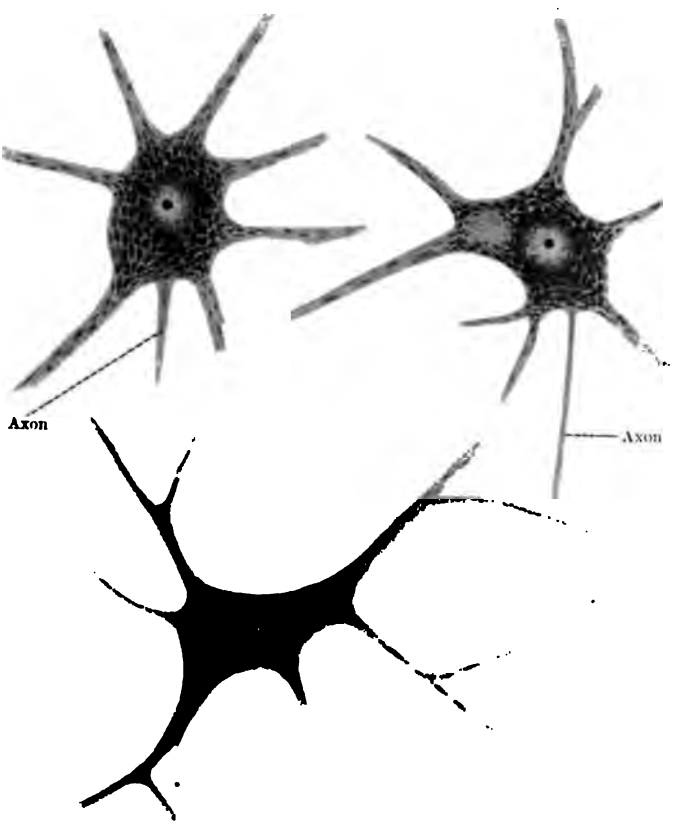


Fig. 354.—Three Nerve-Cells from the Anterior Horn of Gray Matter of the Human Spinal Cord.

Nerve-cells.—he nerve-cells con- itute the active nd all-essential lements of nerve- issue. At the very art it is necessary o draw a broad listinction between he ganglionic cells, hich are found in he spinal ganglia, nd the cells which re so plentifully attered through he gray matter of he brain and cord. They differ not only n their mode of rigin and in their ubsequent develop- ent, but also in the connexions of the nerve-fibres to which they give origin.

Nerve-cells of the Brain and Cord.—The cells in the gray matter of the erebrospinal axis are variable both in size and form. Some are relatively large, s, for example, certain of the pyramidal cells of the cerebral cortex and the motor ells in the gray matter of the cord, which almost come within the range of unaided ision; others are exceedingly minute, and require a high power of the microscope o bring them into view. The cell consists of a protoplasmic nucleated body, from hich certain processes proceed. One process is termed the **axis-cylinder process** or **xon**: and as a rule it is easily distinguished from the others, which are collectively alled the **protoplasmic processes of Deiters**, or the **dendrites**.

The **axon** presents a uniform diameter and a smooth and even outline. It gives ff in its course fine collateral branches, but does not suffer thereby any marked liminution in its girth. The most important point to note in connexion with the xon, however, is the fact that it becomes continuous with the axis-cylinder of a erve-fibre. The significance of this is obvious, and will become more striking

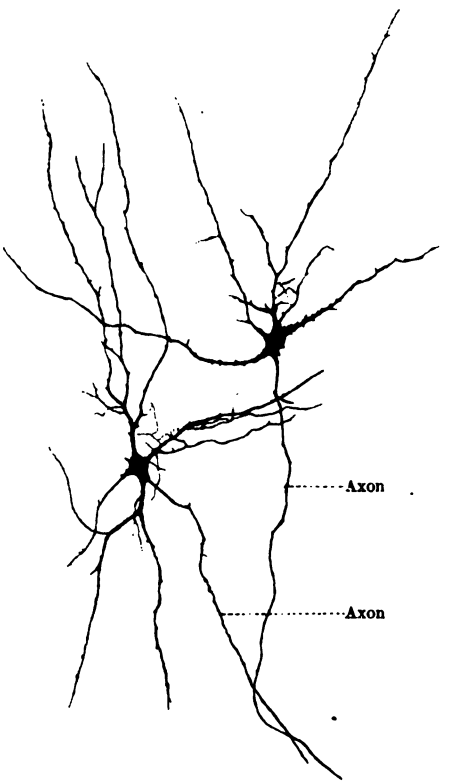


FIG. 355.—TWO MULTIPOLAR NERVE-CELLS, from a specimen prepared by the Golgi method.

basket-work. In cases where the axon emerges from the cerebrospinal axis its terminal arborisation ends in relation to a muscle-fibre or some other tissue in the manner already referred to. In all cases, however, it would appear that the terminal branches of the axon, no matter how complicated the connexion may seem, are free, and that the connexion is simply one of contact or contiguity, and not one of continuity.

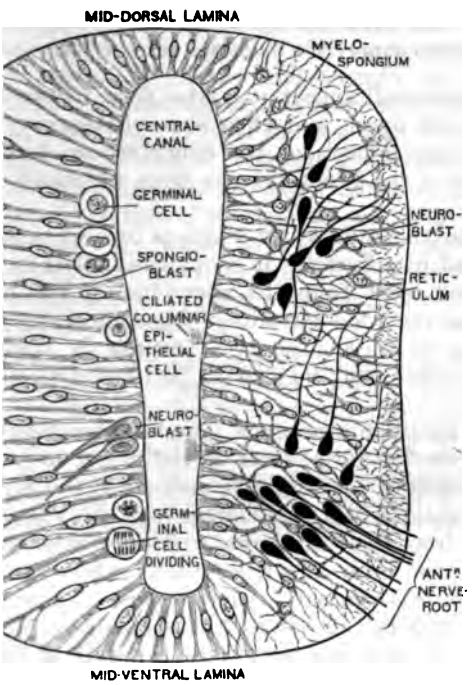
Held maintains that, although at first the terminal arborisations of an axon are quite free, in the process of growth and development they exhibit a tendency to become fused with the dendrites and even the bodies of other nerve-cells.

when the development of the ne is studied. The axon then is s nerve-fibre, and in certain circumst assumes, as already stated, one investing sheaths. The axon may entire course within the substance brain or cord either for a short or distance, or it may emerge from th or cord in one of the cranial or nerves as the essential part of an nerve-fibre, and run a variable before it finally reaches the pe structure in relation to which it end axon and the collaterals which spri it terminate either in small butt swellings or knobs, or more freque terminal arborisations, the extrem which are free and are furnished w ceedingly small terminal varicositi those cases where the axon or its col end within the brain or cord, some terminal arborisations interlace w dendrites of nerve-cells, whilst oth twined around the bodies of oth In the latter case the interlaceme be so close and complete that it presents the appearance of an e

FIG. 356. — NERVE-CELL FROM CEREBELLUM (CELL OF P SHOWING THE BRANCHING OF THE DENDRITIC PROCES a lantern slide by Professor Symington).

dendrites, or protoplasmic processes of the nerve-cell, are thicker than the d present a rough-edged irregular contour. They divide into numerous , and these gradually, as they pass from the cell-body, become more and enuated until they finally end in free extremities. The branching of the processes sometimes attains a marvellous degree of complexity (Fig. 356), ept in exceptional circumstances, there is no *anastomosis* between the s of neighbouring cells, or between the dendrites of the same cell. It ppear, therefore, that nothing in the shape of a network is formed by these s.

he chapter upon Embryology it has been shown that in the early condition erebrospinal axis the brain and cord consist simply of a tube (p. 21). The this tube is formed of a single layer of tall columnar neuro-epithelial cells,



-TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE EARLY NEURAL
liagrammatically represented (Alfred H. Young).
ft side of the section exhibits an earlier stage of development than the right side.

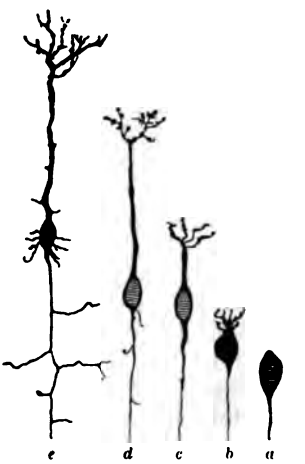


FIG. 358. — THE DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES EXHIBITED BY A PYRAMIDAL CELL OF THE BRAIN (after Ramón y Cajal).

a, Neuroblast with rudimentary axon, but no dendrites; *b* and *c*, The dendrites beginning to sprout out; *d* and *e*, Further development of the dendrites and appearance of collateral branches on the axon.

its deepest or most internal part large round cells make their appearance ntervals between the epithelial columns. These new cells are termed the . **cells**, and from them the nerve-cells are derived. They are present in able numbers, and towards the fourth week of embryonic life they form an continuous layer. Although these cells ultimately become nerve-cells they lutely without processes in their early state, and therefore at this period, there is a nervous system, there are, as His remarks, no nerves. In of time, and as the wall of the neural tube thickens, the germinal cells migrate in an outward direction. They leave the deep part of the wall neural tube and proceed to take up the positions they occupy in the gray of the cord and brain of the adult. These migrating cells assume a pyriform nd are termed **neuroblasts**. The drawn-out portion or stalk of the pear- neuroblast represents the early axon, and this continues to grow and increase gh until it ultimately attains the terminal relations characteristic of the The study of embryology presents few more remarkable phenomena than the in which this axon grows out, and, in the efferent nerve-fibres, emerges

from the central axis, and yet pursues its allotted path with the most u exactitude and precision until it ultimately reaches the nerve-cell or the per tissue element with which it becomes associated. The growing point of t and its collaterals is slightly bulbous, and it is out of this that the te arborisation is formed.

This conception in regard to the outgrowth of the axon in the case of the pe nerve-fibres has not been allowed to pass unchallenged, and it must be admitt certain facts recently observed militate against it.

Whatever opinion may be held in regard to the developmental origin of t cylinder and medullary sheath of a peripheral nerve-fibre, there is every reason belief that the neurolemma is mesodermic in its origin, and is therefore formed fr outside the ectodermic neural tube. There are some who think that the axis-cyl secreted *in situ* by a chain of these cells, whilst others consider that the mesoblas of a nerve-fibre merely constitute a cellular tube through which the growing axo its way to its destination, and perhaps also supply the pabulum necessary for its g

The dendritic processes of the nerve-cell appear at a later period than th The surface of the neuroblast becomes rough and then somewhat spiny. growth and subdivision of these spiny projections the dendrites are forme His remarks, the nerve-cell is therefore the genetic centre from which all th of a nervous element proceed.

It must now be clear that each nerve-cell is a unit which is separate and from the nerve-cells which lie around it. Further, it is obvious that it is w consider the nerve-cell as something apart from the nerve-fibre. The ne with its dendrites and axon, however wide-spreading these processes n constitutes an independent system to which the term **neuron** is applie the only relation which it has with other neurons or with peripheral tissue of contact.

Ganglionic Nerve-Cells.—The ganglionic neurons found in the gangli cranial nerves and in the ganglia on the dorsal roots of the spinal nerves different origin, and present many points of contrast with neurons in the gray of the brain and cord. As already indicated in the chapter on Embryology the ganglia in question are derived from the neural crest. The cells formin ganglionic masses are somewhat oval in form, and from either extremity o process grows out, and the neurons in this manner become bipolar. These p are distinguished as central and peripheral, according to the direction whi take. The central processes grow inwards, and penetrate the wall of the tube. In the region of the spinal cord they form almost the whole of th which enter into the composition of the dorsal roots of the spinal nerves. substance of the cerebrospinal axis they give off numerous collaterals, and course of varying extent they end, after the manner of an axon, in t arborisations, which enter into relationships of contact with certain nerve- the cerebrospinal axis. The peripheral processes grow outwards along the the particular nerve with which they are associated, and they finally e peripheral contact relations. Thus, to take one example: the majority of th which go to the skin break up into fine terminal filaments, which end between the epithelial cells of the epidermis. The two processes of a gangli therefore, form the afferent fibres of the cerebrospinal nerves, and constit path along which the influence of peripheral impressions is conducted towa brain and cord. The body of the cell is as it were interposed in the path impulses.

But the original bipolar character of these cells, with very few exc (ganglia in connexion with the auditory nerve and the bipolar nerve-cells olfactory mucous membrane), gradually undergoes a change which ultimate to their transformation into unipolar cells. This is brought about by the te which the cell-body has to grow to one side, viz. the side towards the surfac ganglion (v. Lenhossek). This unilateral growth leads to a gradual app tion of the attached ends of the processes, and finally to a condition in whi appear to arise from the extremity of a short common stalk in a T-shaped

. 360). It is interesting to note that in certain fish the original bipolar lition of these cells is retained throughout without change.

Both the central and peripheral processes these ganglionic cells become the axis- nders of nerve-fibres, which, acquiring a lullary sheath, belong therefore to the lullated variety. From this it might very urally be thought that the ganglionic ron, with its two axons and no typical drites, is a nervous unit very different n a neuron in the gray matter of the ebrospinal axis. It is believed by some, vever (van Gehuchten and Cajal), that the ipheral process, in spite of its enclosure hin a medullary sheath, and though pre- ting all the characters of a true axon, is in lity a dendrite. If this be the case, the rphological difference between a dendrite l an axon disappears, and van Gehuchten's ctional distinction alone remains character- c, viz. that the axon is *cellulifugal* and ducts impulses away from the cell, whilst dendrites are *cellulipetal* and conduct im- ses towards the cell.

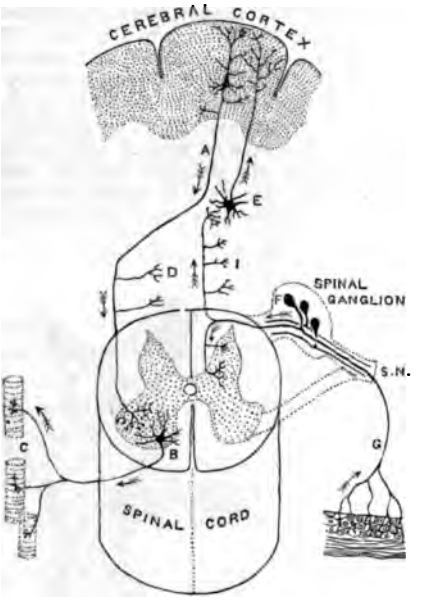
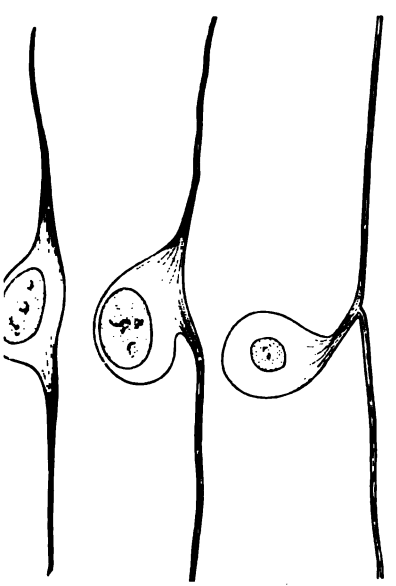


FIG. 359.—DIAGRAM OF THE CONNEXION ESTABLISHED BY A GANGLIONIC AND A MOTOR NEURON (Ramón y Cajal).

A. Fibre coming down from a pyramidal cell in the motor area of the cerebral cortex.
B. Motor cell in gray matter of spinal cord.
C. Muscle-fibres.
D. Collateral branch from the pyramidal fibre.
E. Cell in the medulla oblongata sending its axon upwards to the cerebral cortex.
F. Cells in the spinal ganglion.
G. Peripheral process of ganglionic cell ending in skin.
I. Collateral branches of central process of ganglionic cell.
S.N. Spinal nerve.

[n the foregoing brief account of the elements which d up the nervous system, the neuron doctrine, as it been enunciated by Waldeyer, has been followed. observations of Ramón y Cajal and His form foundation upon which this doctrine mainly rests, ough it should not be forgotten that many other tomists, amongst whom may be mentioned v. liker, van Gehuchten, and v. Lenhossek, have by ir investigations greatly strengthened the concep- . Two primary considerations may be considered to constitute its leading support: (1) the absolute independence of the early nerve-cell or neuroblast and its processes, as was first clearly shown by His; (2) the fact that when nerve tissue is treated by the Golgi method or by the vital methylene blue method no continuity of any kind can be observed between neighbouring cells, although the processes of the cells can apparently be traced to their ultimate divisions. Further, it should be noted that the neuron doctrine receives strong support from pathological observations, and that before it assumed concrete form ideas of a somewhat similar kind were present in the minds of pathologists.



. 360.—THREE STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CELL FROM A SPINAL GANGLION.

Still the neuron theory is not accepted by several leading Histologists. Apáthy, Nissl, and Bethe at the present moment form a powerful combination against it. It is therefore necessary to indicate the views entertained by these observers.

More than thirty years ago Max Schultze called attention to the fact that the axis-cylinder of a nerve-fibre is composed of exceedingly fine fibrils[1] which, when traced to the cell from which the fibre takes origin, are there seen to enter the cell-body and spread out within it. By more delicate methods of research, Apáthy and Bethe have been able to place this early observation of Schultze beyond the realm of doubt. Apáthy, who worked chiefly at the invertebrate nervous system, not only traced the neuro-fibrillæ through the cell-body but

[1] It may be mentioned that Remak, the discoverer of the axis-cylinder in 1838, stated that it was finely iated in the longitudinal direction.

into all its processes, and he believes that he has been able to follow them beyond these into a delicate fibrillar interlacement which constitutes a bond of union between all the nerve-cells of the nervous system. Bethe's observations have been carried out in vertebrates. Two illustrations from his book are reproduced in Fig. 361. The cell represented in A is from the gray matter of the anterior horn of the human spinal cord, and the relation presented by the neuro-fibrils within the cell and to its various processes are very clearly depicted. The axon appears to receive a contribution of neuro-fibrillæ from all the dendritic processes; this, according to Bethe, is characteristic of the great majority of nerve-cells. In the cells indicated by the letter B, which are from the cerebral cortex of man, it will be noticed that the axons as they leave the cell become exceedingly fine and delicate, and the neuro-fibrillæ which compose them are so closely packed together that all trace of their individual existence disappears. When the medullary sheath is assumed by the fibre the neuro-fibrillæ of the axis-cylinder again become apparent.

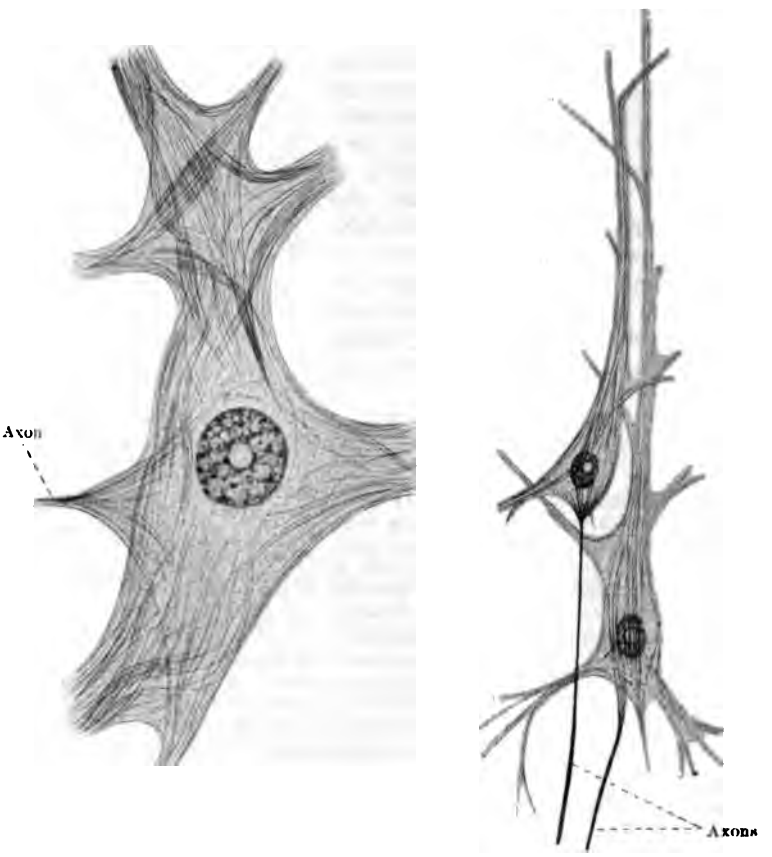


FIG. 361.—NERVE CELLS AS DEPICTED BY BETHE.

A, A cell from the anterior horn of gray matter of the spinal cord of man.
B, Two cells from the human cerebral cortex.

In vertebrates Bethe has not been able to trace the neuro-fibrils into an all-pervading fibrillar network such as Apáthy has described as binding the various nerve elements together in the invertebrates, but he has followed them into the finest of the dendritic branchings, and he assumes that the connecting network exists in the higher as well as in the lower members of the animal kingdom.

This conception of the structure of the axon renders the giving off by the nerve-fibre of collateral branches and also its terminal splitting or arborisation, matters which can be the more easily understood.

On the strength of the observations detailed above, Apáthy, Bethe, and Nissl, all of whom are authorities who deserve the highest degree of attention, have assailed the neuron theory. Apáthy has advanced the hypothesis that the all-pervading fibrillar interlacement, which streams continuously throughout the whole nervous system and is found not only in the cell and its processes but also in the form of a connecting network outside the cells, is the essential part of the nervous system and not the so-called independent neurons of the neuron theory. It is also contended that axons or axis-cylinders may arise in two ways: (1) directly from the nerve-cells; (2) indirectly from the neuro-fibrillar network between the nerve-cells.

In a striking address recently delivered by Professor Waldeyer to the Royal Society of Edin-

gh the essential points of the neuron doctrine were vigorously maintained and several new parations by Ramón y Cajal and Beilschowsky were demonstrated. In the latter the neuro-illæ were seen to enter the cell-body, spread out and break up into a plexus within it, but e could be detected pursuing an uninterrupted course right through the cell and then passing from it.

As Edinger remarks, investigation in the immediate future will be largely concerned in the empt to further elucidate the following questions: (1) Are the connexions between neurons rely those of contact? (2) Do the fibres which proceed from one cell fuse with the constituent ts of another neuron? (3) Do the neuro-fibrillæ form an inter-connecting network between nerve-cells, and do axons or axis-cylinders arise from such a network? It is questionable n if the last two of these queries are answered more or less in the affirmative whether it will necessary to abandon the essential points in the neuron theory.

Since the foregoing has been printed an instructive monograph on the subject has been blished by Professor Gustaf Retzius ("Punktsubstanz 'Nervöses Grau' und Neuronenlehre," *logische Untersuchungen*, Neue Folge, xii.).

Neuroglia.—The neuroglia is the supporting tissue of the cerebrospinal axis. may be considered to include two different forms of tissue, viz. the lining endymal cells and the neuroglia proper. We place these under the one heading, ing that in all probability they both have a common developmental origin.

The **ependymal cells** are the columnar epithelial cells which line the central nal of the spinal cord and the ventricles of the brain. In the embryonic condi-n a process from the deep extremity of each cell traverses the entire thickness the neural wall and reaches the surface. It is not known whether this process ists in the adult.

The **neuroglia proper** is present in both the white and the gray matter of the ebrospinal axis. It constitutes an all-rvading basis substance, in which the rious nerve elements are embedded in ch a way that they are all bound together to a consistent mass and are yet all sever-ly isolated from each other. Neuroglia nsists of cells and fine filaments. The rils are present in enormous numbers, id by their interlacements they constitute hat appears to be a fine feltwork. At the ints where the fibrils intercross may be en the flattened glial cells. Whilst the euroglia is for the most part intimately ntermixed with the nerve elements, there e in both brain and cord certain localities here it is spread out in more or less pure yers. Thus upon the surface of the brain id of the spinal cord there is such a layer; ewise beneath the epithelial lining of the ntral canal and of the cavities of the brain ere is a thin stratum of neuroglia.

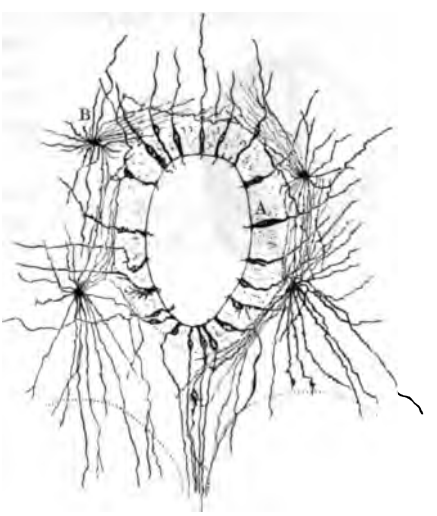


FIG. 362. — SECTION THROUGH THE CENTRAL CANAL OF THE SPINAL CORD OF A HUMAN EMBRYO, SHOWING EPENDYMAL AND NEUROGLIAL CELLS (after v. Lenhossek).
A, Ependymal cell. B, Neuroglial cell.

The ependymal cells are derived from e original neuro-epithelial cells of the rly neural tube, and in all probability e neuroglia proper has a similar origin. They both, therefore, are products of the toderm.

Summary.—1. The cerebrospinal nervous system is composed of two parts, viz.) a **medullary part**, consisting of the brain and spinal cord, with the efferent nerve-res which pass out from them; (*b*) the **ganglionic part**, with the afferent nerve-fibres.

2. Each of these parts has a different origin and is composed of neurons which ssess characteristic features.

3. The ganglionic neurons are derived from the primitive cells of the neural est, and have each one process which divides into two. Of these the central vision enters the cerebrospinal axis and probably represents the axon, whilst the ripheral division, which becomes connected with a peripheral part, may pro-sionally be regarded as a dendrite. The central fibres from the ganglionic cells

in the region of the cord form the dorsal or posterior roots of the spinal nerv These roots have thus an origin outside the cord, and grow into its substance the process of development in the same manner that the roots of a plant str into the soil.

4. The cerebrospinal neurons are derived from the germinal cells in the w of the early neural tube. Certain of these furnish efferent nerve-fibres, wh issue from the cord in separate bundles termed the anterior or ventral roots of t spinal nerves. In the case of the cranial nerves, however, with the exception the trigeminal and facial nerves, the efferent fibres are not thus separated from t afferent fibres at their attachment to the brain.

5. The brain and cord when studied by the naked eye are seen to be compos of white matter and gray matter. The white matter forms very nearly two-thir of the entire cerebrospinal axis. It is composed of medullated nerve-fibr embedded in neuroglial tissue. The gray matter is composed of nerve-cells wi their dendrites and axons. Some of the axons are in the form of naked ax cylinders, whilst others have a coating of medulla. Intimately intermixed wi these parts is the neuroglia, which isolates them more or less completely fro each other.

SPINAL CORD.

The **spinal cord** is that part of the cerebrospinal axis which occupies the upp two-thirds of the spinal canal of the vertebral column. It is an elongated cylin drical structure, slightly flattened in front and behind, which extends from th margin of the foramen magnum to the level of the lower border of the body of th first lumbar vertebra or to the upper border o the body of the second lumbar vertebra. It average length in the male is 45 cm. and in the female 43 cm.

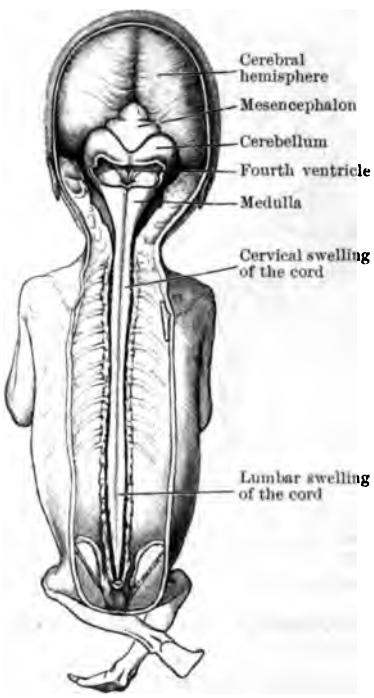


FIG. 363.—HUMAN FŒTUS IN THE THIRD MONTH OF DEVELOPMENT, WITH THE BRAIN AND SPINAL CORD EXPOSED FROM BEHIND.

A considerable amount of variation within certain limits (viz. the mid-point of the body of the last dorsal vertebra and the upper border of the body of the third lumbar vertebra) is observed in different individuals as to the precise level at which the spinal cord ends inferiorly, and in the female there would appear to be a tendency for the cord to reach a slightly lower point in the canal than in the male. Further, the relation presented by the spinal cord to the vertebral column differs in a marked degree in the fœtus and infant at different periods of development. Up to the third month of intrauterine life the cord occupies the entire length of the spinal canal; it extends downwards to the lowest limit of the canal. But from this time on, as growth proceeds, the vertebral column lengthens at a more rapid rate than the cord. The spinal cord, therefore, has the appearance of shrinking in an upward direction within its canal, and at birth its lower end is usually found to be opposite the body of the third lumbar vertebra.

The attitude assumed by the individual affects to a small degree the position of the lower end of the cord. Thus, when the trunk is bent well forwards, it is noticed that the terminal part of the cord rises slightly within its bony canal.

At the margin of the foramen magnum the spinal cord becomes continuous with the medulla oblongata of the brain, whilst below, it tapers rapidly to a point and forms a conical extremity termed the **conus medullaris**. From the end of the conus medullaris a slender glistening thread is prolonged downwards within the spinal canal, and finally anchors the spinal cord to the back of the coccyx. This prolongation receives the name of the **filum**

le. The diameter of the cord is very much shorter than that of the spinal within which it lies. A wide interval between its surface and the walls of al, and this excess of space is clearly a on for allowing free movement of the al column without producing any jar- ntact between the delicate spinal cord e surrounding bones.

ee protective membranes are wrapped the cord. From within outwards these med (1) the pia mater, (2) the arachnoid and (3) the dura mater. The **pia mater** brous membrane which forms the im- e investment. It is closely applied to d, and from its deep surface numerous pta penetrate into the substance of the The **arachnoid mater** is an exceedingly e transparent membrane which is loosely d around the cord so as to leave a rable interval, termed the subarachnoid between itself and the pia mater, in which s always a varying amount of cerebro- fluid. Outside the arachnoid mater, the **ater** forms a wide, dense, fibrous, tubular which extends downwards within the canal for a considerable distance beyond nical extremity of the cord. The spinal suspended within its sheath or *theca* of ater by two lateral wing-like ligaments, the **ligamenta denticulata.** These extend ds from the sides of the cord and are ed by a series of pointed or tooth-like processes to the inner surface of the theca of dura mater. Between the wall of the spinal canal and the dura mater there is a narrow interval, which is filled up by soft areolo-fatty tissue and numerous thin-walled veins arranged in a plexiform manner.

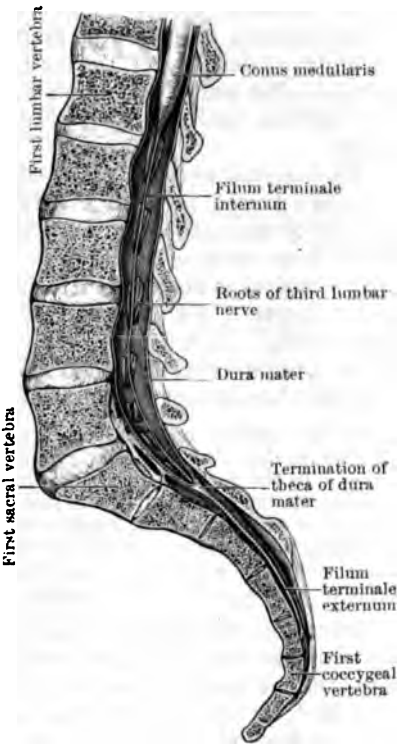
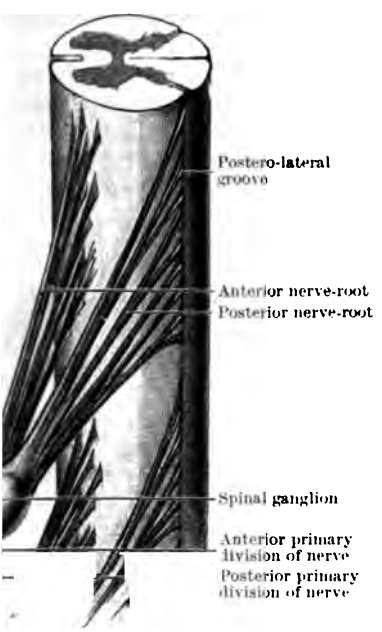


FIG. 364.—THE CONUS MEDULLARIS AND THE FILUM TERMINALE EXPOSED WITHIN THE SPINAL CANAL.

Thirty-one pairs of spinal nerves arise



5.—THE ROOTS OF ORIGIN OF THE ENTH DORSAL NERVE (semi-diagram- ic).

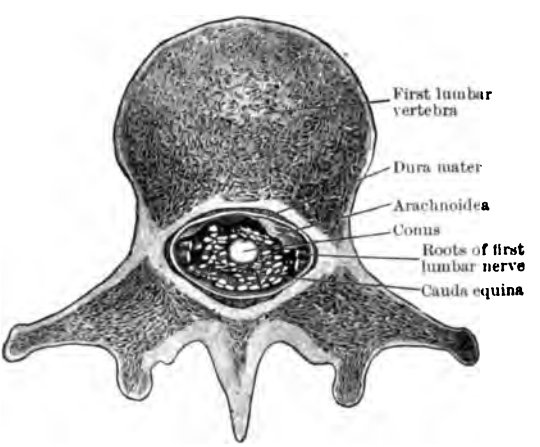


FIG. 366.—SECTION THROUGH THE CONUS MEDULLARIS AND THE CAUDA EQUINA AS THEY LIE IN THE SPINAL CANAL.

he sides of the spinal cord. These are classified into eight cervical, twelve

dorsal, five lumbar, five sacral, and one coccygeal; and according to the attachments of these groups of nerves the spinal cord is arbitrarily subdivided into cervical, dorsal, lumbar, and sacral regions. In employing these terms, therefore, for different districts of the cord, it must be understood that the regions are determined by the nerve attachments, and not by any direct relationship between the parts of the cord and the sections of the vertebral column which bear the same names.

Each spinal nerve is attached to the cord by a ventral and a dorsal root, and if these are traced to their central attachments they are seen to break up into a number of separate nerve fascicles or bundles, which spread out, in some cases very widely from each other, as they approach the side of the cord (Fig. 365). Each pair of nerves is therefore attached to a portion of spinal cord of some length, and such a portion, with its pair of nerves, receives the name of a "segment of the spinal cord." It must be clearly understood, however, that, in so far as the surface of the cord is concerned, there is absolutely no means of marking off one segment from another, except by the nerve attachments.

In the cervical and lumbar regions of the cord the nerve-roots are somewhat crowded together, so that little or no interval is left between the adjoining root fascicles of neighbouring nerves. In the dorsal region, however, distinct intervals may be observed, and the root fascicles are more loosely arranged. From this, it will be evident that the cord segments in different parts of the cord are not of equal length. In the cervical region the segments measure about 12 mm. in length, in the dorsal region from 20 to 24 mm., and in the lumbar region about 10 mm. The number of fascicles which attach the different nerve-roots to the cord is very different in different nerves, and is not necessarily the same in the same nerve-root in different individuals.

Owing to the great difference which exists between the length of the spinal cord and the length of the vertebral column, the farther we pass down the greater the distance becomes between the attachment of the various nerve-roots to the cord and the invertebral foramina through which the corresponding nerves leave the spinal canal. The lower nerve-roots, therefore, have to traverse the spinal canal for a considerable distance before they reach their apertures of emergence. It thus happens that the nerve-roots which spring from the lumbar and sacral regions of the cord attain a very great length and descend vertically in the lower part of the spinal canal in a bunch or leash, in the midst of which lie the conus medullaris and the filum terminale. This great bundle of nerve-roots receives the appropriate name of the **cauda equina**.

Enlargements of the Cord.—Throughout the greater part of the dorsal region, the spinal cord presents a uniform girth and a very nearly circular outline when seen in transverse section. In the cervical and lumbar regions, however, it shows marked swellings. The **cervical enlargement** (intumescentia cervicalis) is the more evident of the two. It begins very gradually at the upper end of the cord, attains its greatest breadth (12 to 14 mm.) opposite the fifth or sixth cervical vertebra, and finally subsides opposite the second dorsal vertebra. To this portion of the cord are attached the great nerves which supply the upper limbs. The **lumbar enlargement** (intumescentia lumbalis) begins at the level of the tenth dorsal vertebra, and acquires its maximum transverse diameter (11 to 13 mm.) opposite the last dorsal vertebra. Below, it rapidly tapers away into the conus medullaris. To the lumbar enlargement are attached the great nerves of the lower limbs.

These enlargements of the cord are associated with the outgrowth of the limbs. In the earlier developmental stages of the spinal cord they are not present, and they only take form as the limbs become developed. In the lower mammalia their size corresponds with the degree of development of the limbs. Thus, in the long-armed orang and gibbon, the cervical swelling stands out with a remarkable degree of prominence. It is, however, interesting to note that although in the cetacea there are no visible hind-limbs, there is nevertheless a well-marked lumbar enlargement of the cord.

Fissures and Furrows of the Cord.—When cross-sections of the spinal cord are made, it is seen to be a bilateral structure which is partially subdivided into a right and left half by two median clefts—one upon the anterior and the other upon the posterior aspect. These clefts are termed the antero-median and the postero-median fissures, and they extend along the entire length of the cord. At the same

nust be noted that these two median clefts present many points of differ-
'he **antero-median fissure** (fissura mediana anterior) is for the greater part of
:h much shallower than the postero-median fissure.
:ervical and dorsal regions it only penetrates for a
corresponding to somewhat less than a third of the
osterior diameter of the cord. Further, the antero-
cleft is much the wider and more apparent of the
the pia mater dips down into it and forms a fold
plication within it. The **postero-median fissure**
mediana posterior) in the cervical and dorsal regions
es into the cord until it reaches a point somewhat
its centre. It is extremely narrow, and contains
septum which is derived from ependymal and
al elements, and is intimately connected with the
sides of the two halves of the cord, between which
:enes. The pia mater, which invests the surface of
, passes continuously over the postero-median fissure
ls no prolongation of any kind into it. In the
:egion of the cord the postero-median fissure becomes
r, whilst the antero-median fissure deepens, and
ly in the lower part of the cord the two fissures
a very nearly equal depth.

two halves of the cord, which are marked off from
er by the median fissures, may show trifling differ-
the arrangement of the parts which compose them;
ll intents and purposes they are symmetrical. They
:d together by a more or less broad band or com-
which intervenes between the two median fissures.

nspection of the surface of each lateral half of the
ngs into view a longitudinal groove or furrow, at
tle distance from the postero-median cleft, which
along the whole length of the cord. Along the
)f this groove the fascicles of the posterior nerve-
ter the cord in accurate linear order. It is called
ero-lateral sulcus (sulcus lateralis posterior). There
)rresponding furrow on the forepart of each lateral
the cord in connexion with the emergence of the
of the anterior nerve-roots. These fascicles emerge
'ly over a broad strip of the surface of the cord,
orresponds in its width to the thickness of the
t extremity of the anterior horn of gray matter.

postero-lateral groove subdivides each lateral half of
into a small **posterior column** (funiculus posterior)
uch larger **antero-lateral column**, and it is customary
rarily map off the latter into a **lateral column**
us lateralis) and an **anterior column** (funiculus
) by a line corresponding to the emergence of the
st fascicles of the anterior nerve-roots.

he cervical region a distinct longitudinal groove
observed on the surface of the posterior column. It
rather nearer to the postero-median than to the
ateral furrow, and as it is traced down into the
egion it gradually becomes indistinct and finally
rs. This is called the **posterior paramedian groove**,
narks on the surface the position of a septum of
:r which dips into the cord and subdivides the
column into an outer part, termed the **funiculus**
or the **column of Burdach**, and an inner portion, which receives the name
niculus gracilis or the **column of Goll**.

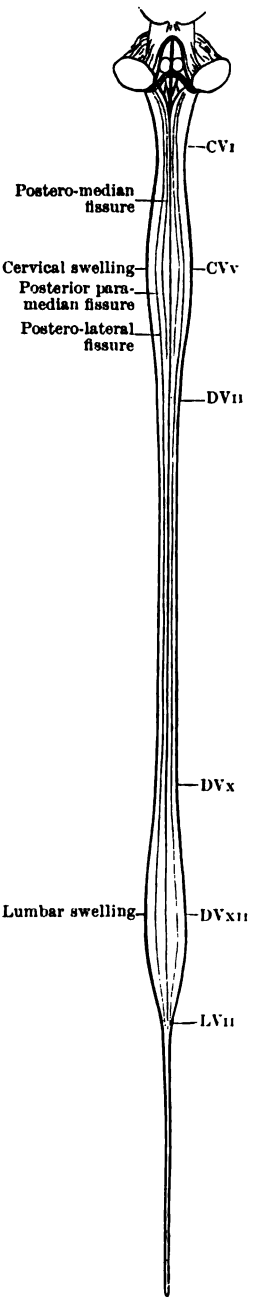


FIG. 367.—DIAGRAM OF THE SPINAL CORD AS SEEN FROM BEHIND.

CVI shows the level of the 1st cervical vertebra; CVv of the 5th cervical vertebra; DVII of the 2nd dorsal vertebra; DVx of the 10th dorsal vertebra; DVXII of the 12th dorsal vertebra; LVII of the 2nd lumbar vertebra.

Internal Structure of the Spinal Cord.

The spinal cord is composed of a central core of gray matter thickly coated on the outside by white matter. At only one spot does the gray matter come close to the surface, viz. at the bottom of the postero-lateral groove.

Gray Matter of the Cord.—The gray matter in the interior of the cord has the form of a fluted column, but it is customary to describe it as it appears in transverse sections through the cord. It then presents the appearance of the capital letter H. In each lateral half of the cord there is a semilunar or crescentic mass, shaped somewhat like a comma, the concavity of which is directed outwards and the convexity inwards. The two crescents of opposite sides are connected across the middle line by a transverse band, which receives the name of the **gray commissure** (commissura grisea). The postero-median fissure cuts through the cord until it reaches the gray commissure. The bottom of the antero-median fissure, however, is separated from it by an intervening strip of white matter, which is termed the **anterior white commissure** (commissura alba anterior alba). In the gray commissure may be seen the **central canal** of the cord (canalis centralis), which tunnels the entire length of the cord and is just visible to the naked eye as a minute speck. The portion of the gray commissure which lies behind the central canal is called the *posterior gray commissure* (commissura grisea posterior); whilst the portion in front receives the name of the *anterior gray commissure* (commissura grisea anterior).

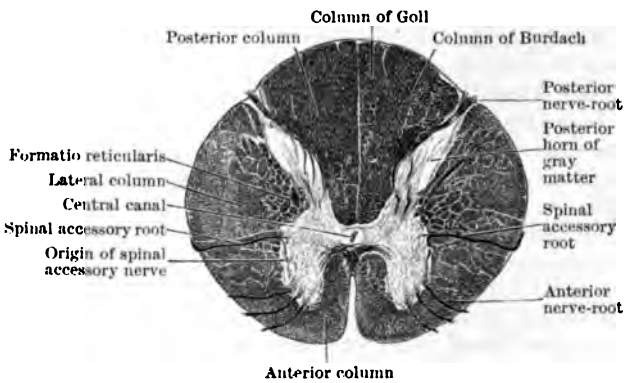


Fig. 368.—Transverse Section through the Upper Part of the Cervical Region of the Cord of an Orang. (From a specimen prepared by the Weigert-Pal method, by which the white matter is rendered dark whilst the gray matter is bleached.)

Each crescentic mass of gray matter presents certain well-defined parts. The projecting portions which extend behind and in front of the connecting transverse gray commissure are termed respectively the posterior and the anterior cornua of gray matter (columnæ griseæ). These stand out in marked contrast to each other. The **anterior cornu** (columna grisea anterior) is short, thick, and very blunt at its extremity. Further, its extremity falls considerably short of the surface of the cord and is separated from it by a tolerably thick coating of white matter. Through this the fascicles of the anterior nerve-roots, as they emerge from the gray matter of the anterior horn, pass on their way to the surface. The thickened end of the anterior cornu is called the **caput cornu**, whilst the part close to the gray commissure is termed the **cervix** or **basis cornu**. Throughout the greater part of the cord the **posterior cornu** (columna grisea posterior) is elongated and narrow, and is drawn out to a fine point, which almost reaches the bottom of the postero-lateral sulcus. This pointed extremity receives the name of the **apex cornu**; the slightly swollen part which succeeds it is the **caput cornu**; whilst the slightly constricted part adjoining the gray commissure goes under the name of the **cervix** or **basis cornu**.

The apex or tip of the posterior cornu differs considerably in appearance from the general mass of the gray matter. It is composed of a material which presents a lighter hue and has a somewhat translucent look. It is called the **substantia gelatinosa Rolandi**, and, when seen in transverse section, it exhibits a V-shaped outline and fits on the caput cornu like a cap.

A pointed and prominent triangular projection juts out from the external aspect of gray matter nearly opposite the gray commissure. This is the **lateral horn** (columna grisea lateralis), and it is best marked in the upper dorsal region (Fig.

raced upwards it becomes absorbed in the greatly expanded anterior horn ical swelling, but it reappears again in the upper part of the cord and rly noticeable in the second and third cervical segments; followed in a direction it blends with the anterior horn in the lumbar swelling and to the thickening of that cornu.

y matter is for the most part mapped off from the surrounding white matter siderable degree of sharpness; but in the cervical region, on the outer he crescentic mass and in the angle between the anterior and posterior bands of gray matter penetrate the white matter, and, joining with each a network the meshes of which enclose small islands of white matter. titutes what is called the **formatio or processus reticularis.** Although ed in the cervical region, traces of the same reticular formation may be n lower segments of the cord.

cters presented by the Gray Matter in Different Regions of the Cord.

y matter is not present in equal quantity nor does it exhibit the same ll regions of the cord. Indeed, each cord segment presents its own aracters in both of these respects. It is not necessary, however, in the stance to enter into this matter with any degree of minute detail. It fficient if we point out the broad distinctions which are evident in the egions.

y be regarded as a general law that, wherever there is an increase in the ie nerves attached to a particular part of the cord, a corresponding n the amount of gray matter will be observed. It follows from this regions where the gray matter bulks most largely are the lumbar and al swellings. The great nerve-roots which go to form the nerves of the -plexuses enter and pass out from those portions of the cord. In the ion there is a reduction in the quantity of gray matter in correspondence smaller size of the dorsal nerves.

dorsal region (Fig. 369, B) both horns of gray matter are narrow, although ction between the anterior horn and the still more attenuated posterior afficiently manifest. In this region the lateral horn of gray matter is haracteristic, and the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi in transverse section and spear-shaped.

upper three segments of the *cervical region* the anterior horns of gray rge and resemble the corresponding horns in the dorsal region. A lateral so present. But in these segments (and more especially in the first and ere is a marked attenuation of the neck of the posterior horn, and the gray commissure is very broad.

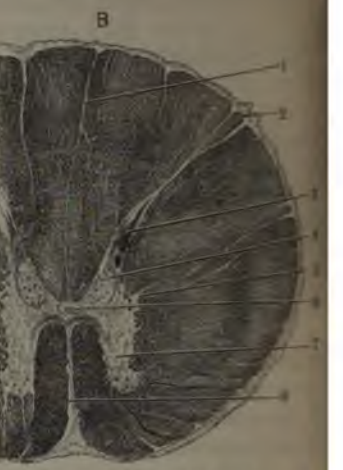
cervical swelling of the cord the contrast between the two cornua is ing; the anterior horn is of great size and presents a very broad surface he anterior aspect of the cord, whilst the posterior horn remains narrow. t increase in the bulk of the anterior horn is due to a marked addition atter on the outer side of the horn, and seeing that this additional matter d by a greater number of fibres, it stands out, in well-prepared specimens, ss distinctly from the part of the horn which lies to the inner side, and y be considered to represent the entire anterior horn in the dorsal and vical segments. Within this lateral addition to the anterior horn are se collections of cells which constitute the nuclei of origin of the motor the muscles of the upper limb. The characteristic thickening of the orn of gray matter is evident, therefore, in those segments of the cord the nerves which enter the brachial plexus are attached, viz. the lower al segments and the first dorsal segment.

lumbar swelling the anterior horns again broaden out, and for the same

consequently no difficulty in distinguishing from an inspection of the gray matter alone between transverse sections of the cord taken from the cervical and lumbar swellings of the cord.

A.—Cervical region—at the level of the fifth cervical nerve. (From a specimen prepared by Dr. A. Bruce.)

1. Postero-median fissure.
2. Paramedian septum.
3. Postero-lateral groove.
4. Posterior nerve-root.
5. Substantia gelatinosa Rolandi.
6. Root-fibres entering gray matter.
7. Formatio reticularis.
8. Central canal.
9. Nuclei from which motor-fibres for muscles of upper limb arise.
10. Anterior commissure.
11. Anterior nerve-root.
12. Antero-median fissure.

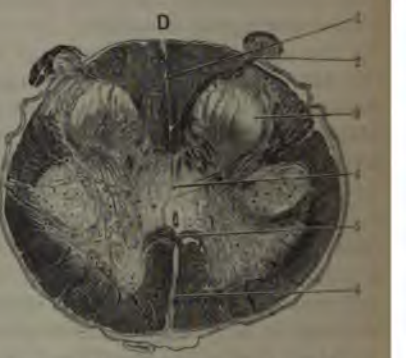


B.—Through the mid-dorsal region.

1. Postero-median fissure.
2. Postero-lateral groove.
3. Posterior cornu.
4. Posterior vesicular column of cells.
5. Lateral cornu.
6. Central canal.
7. Anterior cornu.
8. Antero-median fissure.

C.—Through the lumbar region at the level of the fourth lumbar nerve.

1. Posterior nerve-root.
2. Postero-median fissure.
3. Substantia gelatinosa Rolandi.
4. Root-fibres entering gray matter.
5. Central canal.
6. Anterior commissure.
7. Nuclei of origin from which the motor-fibres for muscles of the lower limb arise.
8. Anterior nerve-root.
9. Antero-median fissure.



D.—Through the sacral region at the level of the third sacral nerve. (From a specimen prepared by Dr. A. Bruce.)

1. Postero-median fissure.
2. Posterior nerve-root.
3. Substantia gelatinosa Rolandi.
4. Posterior gray commissure.
5. Anterior commissure.
6. Antero-median fissure.

FIG. 369.—SECTION THROUGH EACH OF THE FOUR REGIONS OF THE CORD. (From specimens prepared by the Weigert-Pal method, therefore the white matter is rendered dark in colour whilst the gray matter is bleached.)

In the lower part of the *conus medullaris* the gray matter in each lateral half of the cord assumes the form of an oval mass joined to its fellow of the opposite side by a thick gray commissure. Here almost the entire bulk of the cord consists

ray matter, seeing that the white matter is reduced to such an extent that it ns only a thin coating on the outside.

White Matter of the Spinal Cord.—In transverse sections of the cord the ee columns into which the white matter is subdivided become very apparent. e **posterior column** is wedge-shaped, and lies between the postero-median fissure l the posterior horn of gray matter. The **lateral column** occupies the concavity the gray crescent. Behind, it is bounded by the posterior horn of gray matter d the **postero-lateral sulcus**, whilst in front it extends as far as the outermost sciculi of the anterior nerve-roots as they pass out from the anterior gray horn. e **anterior column** includes the white matter between the antero-median fissure d the anterior horn of gray matter, and also the white matter which separates the ad extremity of the anterior gray cornu from the surface of the cord. This ter portion of the anterior column is traversed by the emerging fascicles of the terior nerve-roots.

In cross-sections of the cord the partition of pia mater, which dips in at the sterior paramedian groove and divides the posterior column into the column of ll and the column of Burdach, is very strongly marked in the cervical regions, t as it is traced downwards into the dorsal region it becomes shorter and fainter, d finally disappears altogether at the level of the eighth dorsal nerve. Below is point there is no visible demarcation of the posterior column into two parts.

The white matter is not present in equal quantity throughout the entire length the cord. It increases steadily from below upwards, and this increase is most ticeable in the lateral and posterior columns. In the lower part of the conus edullaris the amount of gray matter is actually greater than that of the white atter: but very soon this state of affairs is changed, and in the lumbar region the oportion of gray to white matter is approximately as 1 : 2·1; in the dorsal region 1 : 5; and in the cervical region as 1 : 5·1. When it is remembered how the gray atter expands in the lumbar and cervical regions, and how greatly it becomes reduced the dorsal region, the significance of these figures will become more apparent.

Central Canal (canalis centralis).—As previously stated, the central canal is nd in the gray commissure. It is a very minute tunnel, barely visible to the ked eye when seen in transverse section, and it traverses the entire length of the d. Above, it passes into the medulla oblongata, and finally opens into the fourth ntricle of the brain; below, it is continued for a variable distance into the filum rminale, and in this it ends blindly. Only in the lumbar region does the central nal occupy the centre of the cord. Above this level, in the dorsal and cervical gions, it lies very much nearer the anterior than the posterior aspect of the cord; hilst below the lumbar region, as it is traced down into the conus medullaris, it clines backwards and approaches the posterior aspect of the cord. The calibre of e canal likewise varies somewhat in different parts of the cord. It is narrowest the dorsal region; and in the lower part of the conus medullaris it expands into distinct fusiform dilatation (very nearly 1 mm. in transverse diameter), which is rmed the **ventriculus terminalis** (Krause).

The central canal is lined by a layer of ciliated columnar cells, the deep taper- g ends of which are prolonged into slender processes, which penetrate into the bstance of the cord. These cells constitute the lining ependymal cells of the nal. The cilia of the epithelial cells are very early lost, and it is not uncommon find the canal blocked up by epithelial debris.

The central canal is of interest because it represents in the adult the relatively ide lumen of the early ectodermal neural tube from which the spinal cord is veloped.

Filum Terminale.—The delicate thread to which this name is applied is con- nuous with the lower tapered end of the conus medullaris. It is easily distin- uished by its silvery and glistening appearance from the numerous long nerve-roots auda equina) amidst which it lies. It is about six inches long, and down to the vel of the second sacral vertebra it is inclosed with the surrounding nerve-roots ithin the theca of dura mater. Piercing the tapered and closed end of the theca this point, and receiving an investment from it, the filum terminale proceeds ownwards in the sacral canal, and finally receives attachment to the periosteum on

the dorsal aspect of the coccyx (Fig. 364, p. 453). It is customary to speak of the filum as consisting of two parts, viz. the filum terminale internum and the filum terminale externum, or the part inside and the part outside the theca of dura mater.

The **filum terminale externum** is simply a fibrous thread, strengthened by the prolongation it receives as it pierces the dura mater. The **filum terminale internum** is largely composed of pia mater; but in its upper half it incloses the terminal part of the central canal, and around this a variable amount of the gray substance of the cord is prolonged downwards into the filum. When transverse sections are made through the upper part of the filum terminale internum some bundles of medullated nerve-fibres are observed clinging to its sides, and with these are associated some nerve-cells identical with those in the spinal ganglia. These represent rudimentary or aborted caudal nerves (Rauber).

Summary of the Chief Characters presented by the Cord in its Different Regions.

Cervical Region.	Dorsal Region.	Lumbar Region.	Sacral Region.
In transverse section, **outline of cord** transversely oval; in the middle of the cervical swelling the transverse diameter being nearly one-third longer than the antero-posterior diameter.	In transverse section, **outline of cord** more nearly circular; but still the transverse diameter is greater than the antero-posterior diameter.	In transverse section, **outline of cord** more nearly circular than in dorsal region.	In transverse section, **outline of cord**, nearly circular, but still somewhat compressed from before backwards.
Postero-median cleft very deep, extending beyond the centre of cord; **antero-median cleft** shallow.	**Postero-median cleft** very deep, extending beyond centre of cord: **antero-median cleft** shallow.	**Postero-median cleft** not nearly so deep as in regions above: **antero-median cleft**, on the other hand, much deeper.	**Postero-median** and **antero-median clefts** of equal depth.
Gray matter greatly increased in quantity in the cervical swelling: anterior horn thick and massive; posterior horn slender in comparison. Lateral horn only evident above the level of the fourth cervical nerve. Formatio reticularis strongly marked.	**Gray matter** greatly reduced in quantity. Both horns slender. Lateral horn well marked. Formatio reticularis scarcely apparent.	**Gray matter** greatly increased in the lumbar swelling. Both horns very thick and massive. Lateral horn absorbed in anterior horn. Formatio reticularis absent.	Both horns of **gray matter** very thick and massive. Lateral horn apparent. No formatio reticularis.
White matter in great quantity, and especially massed in the lateral and posterior columns.	**White matter** less in quantity than in cervical region, but bulking largely in comparison with the quantity of gray matter.	**White matter** small in quantity in relation to higher regions, and very small in amount in relation to increased quantity of gray matter.	**White matter** very small in quantity in comparison with the gray matter.
Posterior paramedian groove and septum well marked.	**Posterior paramedian groove** absent; but the corresponding septum can be traced as low down as the eighth dorsal nerve.	No **posterior paramedian groove** or septum.	No **posterior paramedian groove** and no corresponding septum.
Central canal considerably nearer the anterior surface than the posterior surface of the cord.	**Central canal** considerably nearer the anterior surface than the posterior surface of the cord.	**Central canal** in the centre of the cord.	**Central canal** in the centre of the cord.

OMPONENT PARTS OF THE GRAY MATTER OF THE SPINAL CORD.

glia enters largely into the constitution of the gray matter of the cord. a bed within which the nervous elements are distributed. These nervous consist of (1) nerve-cells and (2) nerve-fibres—both medullated and non-ed. The nerve-cells lie in small spaces within the neuroglia, whilst the res traverse fine passages the walls of which are formed of the same sub- The neuroglia is thus an all-pervading basis substance, which isolates more ompletely the nervous elements from each other, and at the same time em together into a consistent solid mass. In two situations the gray presents special characteristics which have earned for it the name of **a gelatinosa**, viz. the gray matter which constitutes the immediate sur- of the central canal, and which is called the **substantia gelatinosa** ; and that which forms the apical part of the posterior horn of gray nd which receives the name of **substantia gelatinosa Rolandi.** In both s the substantia gelatinosa stains more deeply with carmine and presents ranslucent appearance; in other respects the substantia centralis and the ia Rolandi are very different.

ubstantia gelatinosa centralis forms a thick ring around the central canal, traversed by the fine processes which proceed from the deep ends of the al cells which line the canal. It is almost entirely composed of neuroglia. ansverse sections of the cord the *substantia Rolandi*, in the cervical and gions, presents the appearance of a V-shaped mass, embracing the extremity put of the posterior horn of gray matter; in the lumbar region this cap a semilunar outline.

ie substantia gelatinosa Rolandi the neuroglia is present in small quantity, ll nerve-cells are developed within it in considerable numbers.

e-Cells.—The nerve-cells are scattered plentifully throughout the gray ut perhaps not in such great numbers as might be expected when we note mous number of nerve-fibres with which they stand in relation. They are ut exception, multipolar, and send off from their various aspects several g protoplasmic processes or dendrites, and one axon, which becomes the nder of a nerve-fibre. In size they vary considerably, and it is generally l that the bulk of a nerve-cell has a more or less definite relation to the f the axis-cylinder which proceeds from it.

n the nerve-cells are studied in a series of transverse sections of the cord, e noticed that a large proportion of them are grouped in clusters in certain of the gray matter; and as these groups are seen in very much the same in successive sections, it is clear that these cells are arranged in longitudinal of greater or less length. Thus we recognise (1) a ventral group or column in the anterior horn of gray matter; (2) an intermedio-lateral group or in the lateral horn of gray matter, where this exists; and (3) a posterior column of cells (Clarke's column), forming a most conspicuous group in al part of the cervix of the posterior horn in the dorsal region of the

r cells besides those forming these columns are scattered somewhat irregu- oughout the gray matter of the posterior horn and the part of the gray which lies between the two horns; and although these also in some measure classified into groups, the arrangement thus effected is not of so definite a r as to justify us in dwelling upon it in the present instance.

ral Cell-Column and the Origin of the Fibres of the Anterior Nerve- -The ventral cell-group occupies the anterior horn of gray matter, and in nd the largest and most conspicuous cells in the spinal cord. It extends end of the cord to the other. These ventral nerve-cells have numerous ading dendritic processes, and it is to be noticed that certain of these s do not confine their ramifications to the gray matter. Thus, some of the ng the mesial border of the anterior horn of gray matter send dendrites ie mesial plane in the anterior commissure to end in the anterior gray the opposite side; whilst others, lying along the lateral or outer margin of

the anterior horn of gray matter, send dendrites in amongst the nerve-fibres of adjoining white matter.

The axons or axis-cylinder processes of a large proportion of the ventral converge together; and, becoming medullated, form bundles which pass out the gray matter, and through the white matter which separates the thick the anterior horn from the surface of the cord, to finally emerge as the fascic the anterior nerve-roots. These cells, then, are the sources from which the

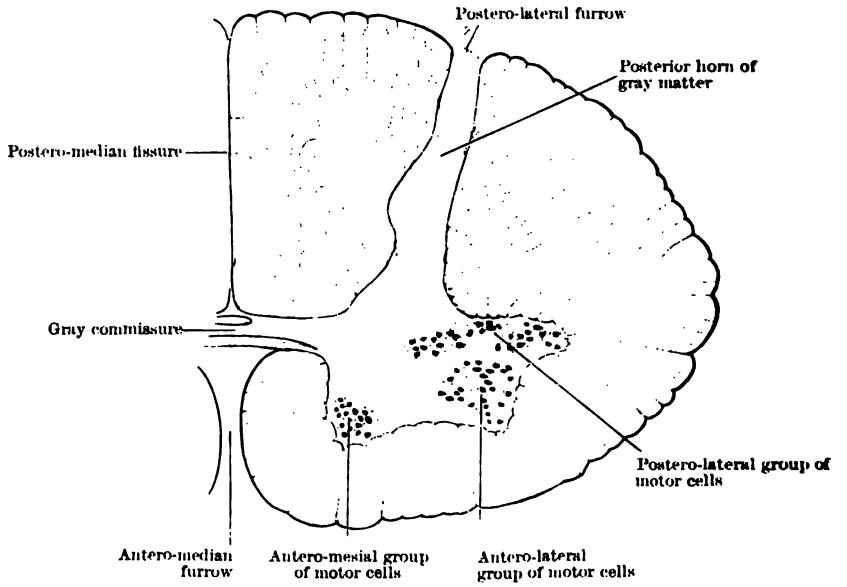


FIG. 370.—SECTION THROUGH THE FIFTH CERVICAL SEGMENT OF THE CORD. (To a large extent found on Plates in Dr. Bruce's *Atlas*.)

fibres of the anterior nerve-roots proceed, and in consequence they are frequently spoken of as the "motor cells" of the cord. Whilst this is the arrangement of the axons of the great majority of the motor cells, it should be noted that a few cross the mesial plane in the anterior white commissure and emerge in the fascicles of origin of the opposite anterior nerve-root.

The ventral cells are not scattered uniformly throughout the anterior horn of gray matter. They are aggregated more closely together in certain parts of the anterior horn, and thus form sub-groups or columns more or less perfectly marked off from each other.

Thus one sub-group or column of ventral cells occupies the inner or mesial part of the anterior horn of gray matter throughout almost its whole length. In only two segments of the cord is it absent, viz. the fifth lumbar and the first sacral; at this level in the cord alone is its continuity broken (Bruce). It is termed the *ventro-mesial column* or *group* of ventral cells. Behind this cell-column there is another which is classed with it to which the name of *dorso-mesial column* or *group* is given, but this column of cells is not continuous throughout the entire length of the cord. It is present in the dorsal region of the cord where the motor nuclei for the muscles of the limbs are absent, and it is also seen in two or three of the segments of the cervical region and in the first lumbar segment (Bruce); elsewhere it is not represented.

In the cervical and lumbar swellings of the cord, where the marked lateral outgrowth is added to the outer side of the anterior horn of gray matter, certain groups of large multipolar cells are visible. These are the nuclei of origin of the motor-fibres which supply the muscles of the limbs, and consequently they are not represented in the upper three cervical segments of the cord; nor in any of the dorsal segments, with the exception of the first dorsal segment; nor in the two lowest sacral segments.

These *lateral cells* are arranged in several columns, which extend for varying distances in the superadded lateral parts of the anterior horn of gray matter. The two main columns are a *ventro-lateral* and a *dorso-lateral column*; in certain segments there is likewise a *post-dorso-lateral column*, and in a number of segments in the lumbar and sacral regions a *central column* of cells (Bruce).

e cannot be a doubt that the grouping of the motor cells in the anterior horn of ter of the cord stands in relation to the muscle groups to which their axis-cylinder are distributed; but at has been said it will ent that sharply defined ers associated with par- muscles do not exist. ich can be learned re- the localisation of the uclei in the anterior gray matter of the cord study of the changes cur in the cell-columns phies of isolated muscles s of muscles, and after or partial amputations It has been pointed the long muscles of k (as, for example, the parts of the erector nuscle) receive nerve- rom all the segments cord. Now, we have hat there is only one mn, the ventro-mesial which pursues an almost upted course throughout the entire length of the cord. It may be assumed, , that the nerve-fibres which go to these long trunk-muscles take origin in these lls.

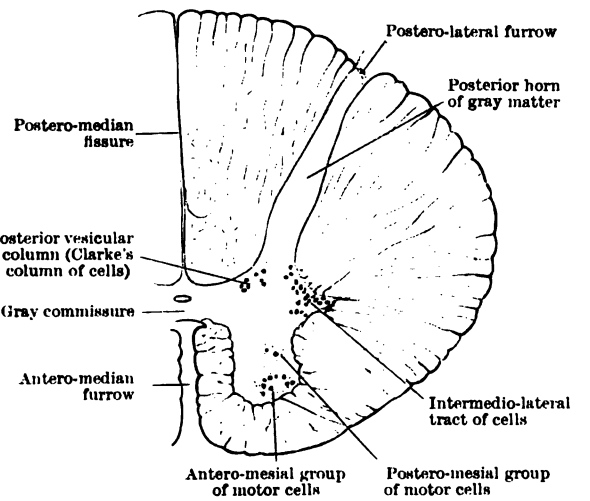
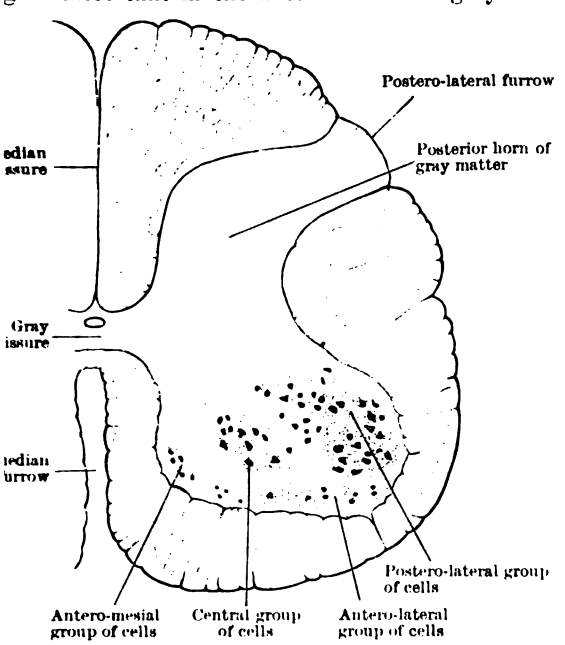


FIG. 371.—SECTION THROUGH THE EIGHTH DORSAL SEGMENT OF THE SPINAL CORD. (To a large extent founded on Plates in Dr. Bruce's *Atlas*.)

ger states that in the anterior horn of gray matter the nuclei of origin of the nerves which supply the proximal muscles are medially placed; that those for the distal muscles are in general situated laterally. If this be the case, the cells connected with the shoulder muscles would lie nearer the middle of the anterior horn of gray matter than those which are connected with the hand-muscles. In cases where the forearm and hand, or the leg and the foot, are amputated, it would appear that it is the postero-lateral column of cells that shows changes in consequence of its separation from the muscles to which its fibres are distributed.[1]



—SECTION THROUGH THE THIRD LUMBAR SEGMENT OF THE AL CORD TO SHOW THE GROUPING OF THE MOTOR CELLS. (To ge extent founded on Plates in Dr. Bruce's *Atlas*.)

Intermedio-lateral Cell-column.—The intermedio-lateral cells form a long slender column which extends throughout the entire region of the cord in the lateral horn of gray matter. It is also prolonged ards into the first and second lumbar segments, where it disappears. In

[1] se who seek further information regarding the grouping of the ventral cells of the cord, may with study Dr. Alexander Bruce's *Atlas of the Spinal Cord*.

transverse sections through the cord this cell-group presents a very characteristic appearance, because the cells which compose it are small and are closely packed together. Although the cells, as a continuous column, are restricted to the region indicated, it should be noted that the same group of cells appears above in certain of the cervical segments and also in the third and fourth sacral segments. The function and connexions of these cells are unknown. It has been suggested that they give origin to vaso-motor, pilo-motor, and sweat-gland nerves, and have a very close connexion with the sympathetic nervous system.

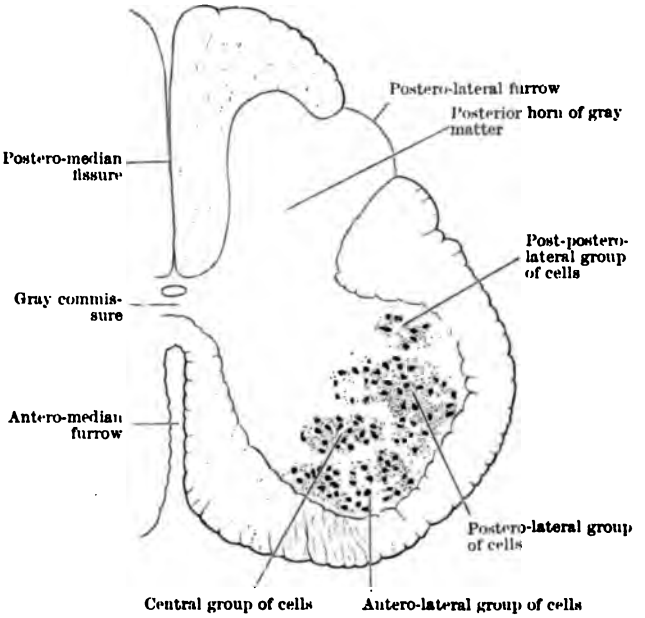


FIG. 373.—SECTION THROUGH THE FIRST SACRAL SEGMENT OF THE SPINAL CORD TO SHOW THE GROUPING OF THE MOTOR NERVE-CELLS. (To a large extent founded on Plates in Dr. Bruce's *Atlas*.)

In a recent research by Bruce the following important points in regard to the intermedio-lateral cell-column have been determined.

It is not quite continuous. In the eighth cervical, first dorsal, and also in a part of the second dorsal segment, as well as in the first and second lumbar segments, the cells are in separate clusters. Throughout the rest of the dorsal region it forms a moniliform chain of cells, situated partly in the lateral horn and partly in the gray matter behind it. Some outlying cells are situated in the white matter in the neighbourhood of the lateral horn.

The limits of the tract are from lower two-thirds of eighth cervical to the lower end of the second lumbar or perhaps the upper end of the third lumbar segment. It is found also in the first, second, and third cervical, and in the third and fourth sacral segments. It reaches its maximum size in the third and fourth dorsal segments.

Posterior Vesicular Column—Clarke's Column.—This occupies the posterior horn of gray matter and is the most conspicuous of all the cell-groups in the cord. It does not, however, extend along the whole length of the cord; indeed it is almost entirely confined to the dorsal region, and in consequence it is sometimes referred to as the "dorsal nucleus." Above, it begins opposite the seventh or eighth cervical nerve, whilst below, it may be traced to the level of the second lumbar nerve, where it disappears. In transverse section of the cord it presents an oval outline, and is seen in the inner part of the cervix of the posterior horn of gray matter immediately behind the gray commissure (Fig. 369 B, p. 458). On the outer side it is circumscribed by numerous curved fibres from the entering posterior nerve-root, and in the lower dorsal region of the cord (opposite the eleventh and twelfth dorsal nerves) it becomes so marked that it forms a bulging on the inner aspect of the posterior gray horn.

The cells of Clarke's column are large, and possess several dendritic processes. The axons enter the lateral column of white matter and there form a strand of fibres, which will later on be described under the name of the **direct cerebellar tract**.

In addition to the topographical subdivision of the nerve-cells of the cord indicated above, it is now usual to classify them according to the nature of the axons which proceed from them. Thus we have (1) the cells of Golgi or cells with short axons, and (2) cells with long axons.

The **cells of Golgi** possess axons which do not emerge from the gray matter, but bring neighbouring cells into touch with each other. The **cells with long axons** are of two kinds, viz. radicular cells and strand-cells.

The **radicular cells** are those from which the axon emerges from the cord in the shape of an efferent nerve-fibre. Thus the "motor cells" which supply the axis-cylinder processes of the

re-roots belong to this class. The **strand-cells** are those which contribute their axons ation of those fibres which form certain of the strands or tracts which are found in atter of the cord.

fibres in the Gray Matter of the Cord.—Nerve-fibres both of the l and non-medullated variety pervade every part of the gray matter. of three kinds, viz. (1) collaterals, (2) terminations of nerve-fibres, (3) n off by the cells. Many of the nerve-fibres which compose the columns natter of the cord give off numerous fine collateral branches, which pass gray matter from all sides and finally end in relation with the nerve- e majority of the nerve-fibres themselves, which thus give off collaterals, er the gray matter, and end similarly. As already noted, the axons of of Golgi remain within the gray matter, but the others emerge either for se of entering a peripheral nerve or for the purpose of entering a strand n the white matter of the cord.

erve-fibres thus derived are interwoven together in the gray matter of the dense inextricable interlacement.

Component Parts of the White Matter of the Cord.

hite matter of the cord is composed of medullated nerve-fibres embedded glia. The fibres, for the most part, pursue a longitudinal course; and deep surface of the pia mater which the cord fibrous septa or partitions are along vertical planes between the fibres, so m an irregular and very imperfect fibrous k of support. The neuroglia is disposed in f varying thickness around the cord, sub- the pia mater, and is carried into the cord ive a coating to both sides of the various pial The neuroglia also is disposed around the erve-fibres, so that each of these may be said a canal or tunnel of this substance. The es are all medullated, but they are not with primitive sheaths. It is the medullary of the nerve-fibres which gives to the tter its opaque, milky-white appearance. hin transverse section of the cord is stained e and examined under the microscope the tter presents the appearance of a series of plied circles, each with a dot in the centre. s the transversely divided axis-cylinder of bre, and the dark ring which forms the nce of the circle represents the wall of the canal which is occupied by the fibre. llary substance is very faintly seen. It a filmy or cloudy appearance between the ler and the neuroglial ring.

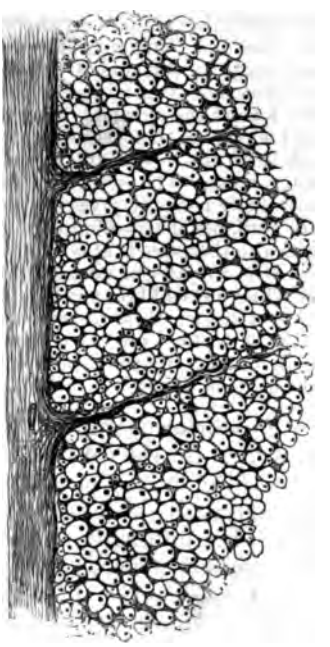


Fig. 374.—Transverse Section through the White Matter of the Cord, as seen through the microscope.

gement of the Nerve-fibres of the White n Strands or Tracts.—When the white a healthy adult cord is examined the fibres which compose it are ary considerably in point of size; and although there are special places ge fibres—or it may be small fibres—are present in greater numbers where, yet as a rule both great and small fibres are mixed up Absolutely no evidence can be obtained in such a cord, by any means sposal, of the fact that the longitudinally arranged fibres are grouped n more or less definite tracts or strands, the fibres of which run a definite l present definite connexions. Yet we know this to be the case, and the of these separate tracts has been proved both by physiological and by ical investigation.

The **physiological evidence** depends on the fact that when a nerve-fibre is severed the p which is detached from the nerve-cell from which it is an offshoot degenerates, whilst the p which remains connected with the nerve-cell undergoes little or no change. This is called t law of "Wallerian" degeneration. Thus, if in a living animal one-half of the cord be cut acr and after a few weeks the animal be killed and the cord examined, it will be seen that th are degenerated tracts of fibres in the white matter, both above and below the plane of divisi but, still further, it will also be manifest that the tracts which are degenerated above the pl of division are not the same as those which are degenerated in the part of the cord which l below this level. The interpretation of this is obvious. The nerve-tracts which have degenera above the plane of section are the offshoots of nerve-cells which lie in lower segments of the co or in spinal ganglia below the plane of section. Severed from these nerve-cells, they unde what is called ascending degeneration. The nerve-tracts, on the other hand, which ha degenerated in the portion of the cord below the plane of division are the axons of cells whi lie at a higher level than the plane of section, either in higher segments of the cord or in th brain itself. Cut off from the nerve-cells from which they proceed, they present an example descending degeneration.

The **embryological evidence** we owe to Flechsig, and it is no less satisfactory. It depe upon the fact that nerve-fibres in the earliest stages of their development consist of naked axi cylinders, and are not provided with medullary sheaths. Further, the nerve-fibres of differe strands assume the medullary sheaths at different periods. By examining the fœtal cord different stages of its development, it is a comparatively easy matter to locate the different tract of fibres by evidence of this kind. Speaking broadly, the tracts which myelinate first are thos which bring the cord into relation with the peripheral parts (skin, muscles, etc.); then thos fibres which bind the various segments of the cord together; next, those which connect the cord with the cerebellum; and, lastly, the tracts which connect the cord with the cerebrum. Th nervous apparatus for the performance of automatic movements is fully provided, therefore, befor this is put under the control and direction of the higher centres. It by no means follows that in all the higher animals corresponding strands myelinate at relatively corresponding periods. Take the case of a young animal which from the time of its birth is able to move about and perform voluntary movements of various kinds in a more or less perfect manner, and compare it with the helpless new-born human infant which is only capable of exhibiting automatic movements. In the former the pyramidal tracts, or motor tracts, which descend from the cerebrum into the cord, and which are the paths along which the mandates of the will travel, myelinate at an early period; whilst in the human infant the corresponding fibres do not obtain their medullary sheaths until after birth. The study of the dates, therefore, at which the various strands of nerve-fibres myelinate not only gives the anatomist a means of locating their position in the white matter of the cord, but it also affords the physiologist most important information regarding their functions, and also the periods at which these functions are called into play.

It is a matter of interest to note that influences which either accelerate or retard the periods at which nerve fibres are brought into functional activity have also an effect in determining the dates at which these fibres assume their sheaths of myelin. Thus, when a child is prematurely born the whole process of myelinisation is, as it were, hurried up; and further, when in new born animals light is freely admitted to one eye whilst it is carefully excluded from the other, the fibres of the optic nerve of the former myelinate more rapidly than those of the opposite nerve.

Posterior Column of the Cord and the Posterior Roots of the Spinal Nerves.—In the cervical and upper dorsal regions of the cord the posterior column is divided by the posterior paramedian septum into the **tract of Burdach**, which lies externally and next the posterior horn of gray matter, and the **tract of Goll**, which lies internally and next the postero-median septum. The tract of Burdach is composed of nerve-fibres, which are for the most part larger than those entering into the formation of Goll's tract, and both tracts have a most intimate relation to the posterior nerve-roots; indeed, they are both almost entirely composed of fibres which enter the cord by these roots and then pursue a longitudinal course.

The nerve-fibres which form the posterior nerve-roots, on entering the cord along the postero-lateral groove, divide within the tract of Burdach into ascending and descending branches. These branches diverge abruptly from each other; and the former take an upward course, whilst the latter proceed downwards. The **descending fibres** are as a rule short, and soon end in the gray matter of the cord. These descending fibres occupy an area in the posterior column near to the place of entrance of the nerve-root. This area, when the spinal cord is divided, undergoes descending degeneration and then presents a comma-shaped outline. The fibres in question are included under the name of the **comma tract of Schultze**.

The **ascending fibres** vary greatly in length, and at varying distances from the point where the parent fibres enter the cord they end in the gray matter. A small contribution of ascending fibres, however, from each posterior nerve-root, extends upwards to the upper end of the cord, to end in the medulla oblongata.

As each posterior nerve-root enters, its fibres range themselves in the outer part of

of Burdach close up against the posterior horn of gray matter. The nerve-

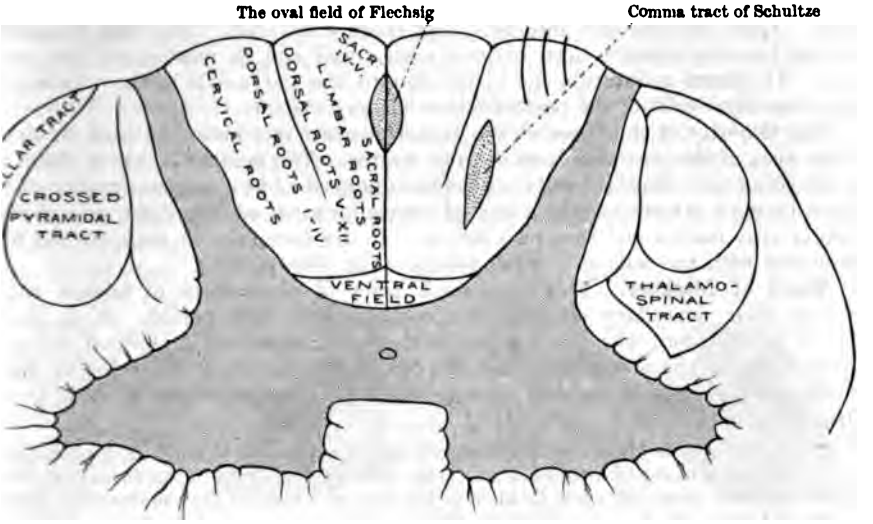


DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE FIBRES OF THE POSTERIOR NERVE-ROOTS IN POSTERIOR COLUMNS OF THE CORD. The oval field of Flechsig is present in the lumbar region is composed of fibres which degenerate in a downward direction, and which are not derived from posterior nerve-roots. In all probability they are commissural fibres (from Edinger, modified).

he nerve-root next above take the same position, and consequently those which om the nerve immediately below are displaced nd come to lie in the tract of Burdach nearer esial plane. This process goes on as each enters, and the result is that the fibres of nerves are gradually pushed nearer and nearer stero-median septum in a successive series of tracts. Of course the greater proportion of s, which are thus carried upwards from the nerve-roots, sooner or later leave the posterior id enter the gray matter, to end there in relation f its cells; but, as we have said, every posterior sends a few fibres up the whole length of that the cord which lies above, and thus the posterior adually increases in bulk as it is traced upwards, he upper reaches of the cord a tract of Goll vident. This tract of Goll is composed of the nding fibres of the posterior nerve-roots, which ered the lower segments of the cord. To put er differently, the fibres of the sacral roots aced inwards by the entering lumbar fibres, fibres of the lumbar roots are in their turn wards by the entering dorsal fibres, and, lastly, of the cervical roots displace the dorsal fibres. ence between the tract of Goll and the tract of simply consists in this, that the former is com- the fibres of posterior nerve-roots which have he cord at a lower level than those which enter formation of the column of Burdach. The Goll's tract, taking them as a whole, must there- ssarily run a very much longer course.

nowledge of the constitution of the posterior of the cord is largely derived from studying e of degeneration in monkeys, in which the cord cut across—either partially or completely. It pear, from the examination of the human cord been injured or compressed, that the lamination es entering from the series of posterior nerve-roots *rly so complete as in the case of the monkey.*

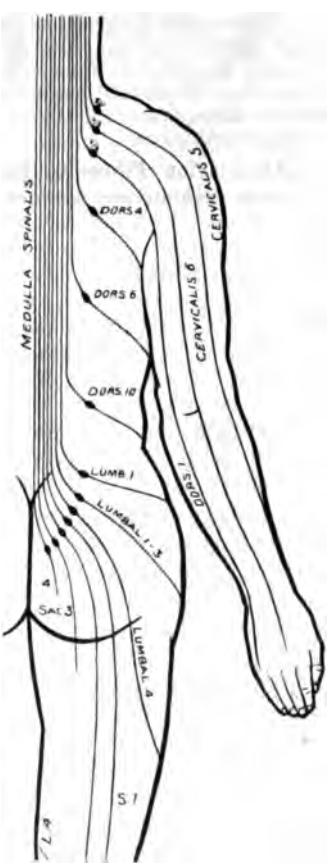


FIG. 376.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE MANNER IN WHICH THE FIBRES OF THE POSTERIOR NERVE-ROOTS ENTER AND ASCEND IN THE POSTERIOR COLUMN OF THE CORD (from Edinger).

Numerous collateral fibrils stream into the gray matter of the **posterior horn** from the ascending and descending branches of the entering fibres of the **posterior** roots. These are classified into long and short collaterals. The **long collaterals** end forward into the anterior horn of gray matter and end in relation to the **ventral** cells. The **short collaterals** end in relation to the nerve-cells in the **substantia Ro** and other nerve-cells of the posterior horn of gray matter.

The majority of the fibres of the posterior nerve-root enter the cord on the inner of the apex of the posterior horn of gray matter. The manner in which these are re to the columns of Burdach and Goll has been noticed; but a certain number of those fi which lie most externally take a curved course forwards on the inner side of the post horn of gray matter and then pass into it. In the dorsal region these curved fibres en connexion with the cells of Clarke's column (Fig. 369, p. 458).

Tract of Lissauer.—This is a small tract of nerve-fibres of minute calibre w assume their medullary sheaths at a comparatively late period. It is placed at surface of the cord close to the postero-lateral furrow. It is formed by some of outer fibres of the posterior nerve-roots, which do not enter the tract of Burdach, which pass upwards in the cord close to the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi, in which ultimately end.

It must now be evident that the fibres which enter the cord through each posterior nerve have three main modes of distribution: (1) the majority take part in the formation of the col of Burdach and Goll; (2) a few lie close to the posterior horn of gray matter and describe a s of graceful curves as they pass forwards prior to turning outwards into the gray matter, to en the dorsal region, in Clarke's vesicular column; (3) a third series form Lissauer's tract and en connexion with the cells of the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi and other cells in the posterior anterior horns of gray matter.

The fibres derived from the posterior nerve-roots which ascend in the posterior columns of cord to the medulla oblongata of the brain constitute a direct sensory tract; other fibres described which give rise to a crossed sensory tract termed the **spino-thalamic tract.** T latter fibres arise as the axons of certain of the cells in the posterior horn in connexion w which fibres from the posterior nerve-roots have ended, and crossing to the opposite sid the cord through the anterior commissure they ascend in the anterolateral column to the b where they ultimately reach the optic thalamus. As the spino-thalamic tract ascends in cord its fibres are not gathered into a compact strand, but are more or less loosely scatt in the lateral column.

Association Fibres in the Posterior Column.—But the whole of the fibres of posterior column are not derived from the posterior nerve-roots. A few fibres exis this column which have a different origin. They are derived from certain of the cell the gray matter of the cord, and entering the posterior column divide into ascending descending branches which pass upwards and downwards in the column for a var distance before they finally turn in to end in the gray matter at a higher and a lower l These fibres, therefore, constitute links of connexion between different cord segments, thus they are termed **association** or **longitudinal commissural fibres.** Our informa regarding these fibres at present is somewhat defective; but it is believed that the de part of the column, *i.e.* the part next the posterior gray commissure and termed **ventral field,** and also the **descending septo-marginal tract** of Bruce, placed in appos with the postero-median septum and in the adjoining part of the surface, belong mainl this category.

Lateral Column of the Cord.—In the lateral column of the cord the v established tracts are:—

1. The direct cerebellar tract.
2. The tract of Gowers.
3. The crossed pyramidal tract.

The remainder of the column goes under the name of the **lateral basis-bundl**

The **direct cerebellar tract** (fasciculus cerebello-spinalis) is a band-like st which lies in relation to the surface of the cord immediately in front of the post lateral groove. It is an ascending tract, and is composed for the most pa coarse, large nerve-fibres, which are derived from the nerve-cells of the post vesicular column (Clarke's column) in the posterior horn of gray matter. I therefore, not found throughout the whole length of the cord. It first appea the lower part of the dorsal region; and as it ascends it gradually increases in as it is joined by the axons of the cells of Clarke's column, which lie at hi levels. It finally enters the medulla oblongata, and through this proceeds to cerebellum, in which it ends.

It must not be forgotten that each posterior nerve-root in the dorsal region of the cord gives ntribution of fibres to the posterior vesicular column of cells from which the fibres of the direct ebellar tract arise (see p. 468). In this way a connexion is established between the posterior ts of the dorsal nerves and the cortex of the cerebellum. It is believed that the direct cerebellar t is an important factor in bringing about a proper co-ordination of muscular movements.

Gowers's tract (fasciculus antero-lateralis superficialis) lies in front of the direct rebellar tract, and, like it, next the surface of the lateral column. It is also an ending tract, and it likewise (in part at least) ultimately reaches the cerebellum, though after leaving the cord it takes a different route to gain its destination. transverse sections of the cord it presents a comma-shaped appearance, the ick part abutting inst the direct cere-llar tract, and the rrower portion taper-g forwards into the ion of the emerging terior nerve-roots. e tract of Gowers ins at a lower level the cord than the ect cerebellar tract d it increases in vol-e as it is traced up-rds. The fibres of s tract have probably ir origin in the cells the posterior horn of y matter, but on this nt there is at present precise information.

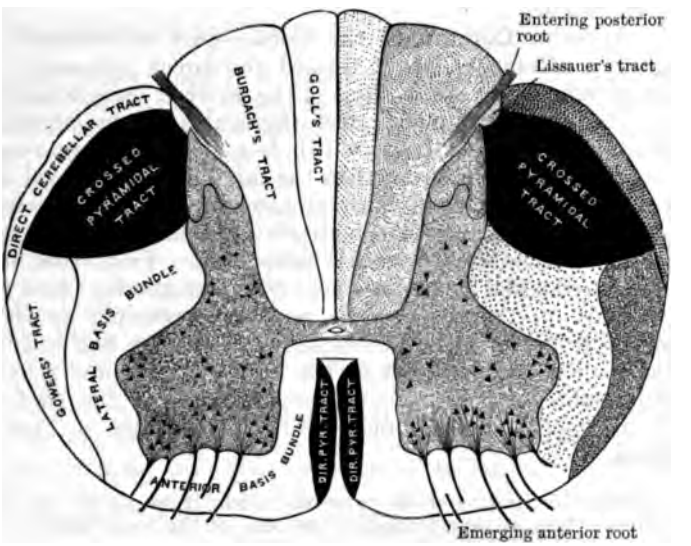


FIG. 377.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF A TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE SPINAL CORD.

The nerve tracts in the white matter and the clusters of nerve-cells in the gray matter are shown.

The **crossed pyramidal** ct (fasciculus cerebro-nalis lateralis) is a ge well-defined de-ending tract, which lies immediately in front of the posterior horn of gray atter and subjacent to the direct cerebellar tract, which shuts it out from e surface of the cord. Below the point where the direct cerebellar tract begins e crossed pyramidal tract becomes superficial, and in this position it can be aced as low as the fourth sacral nerve, at which level it ceases to exist as a stinct strand. The crossed pyramidal tract is composed of an admixture of both rge and small fibres. These arise in the brain from the large pyramidal cells the motor or Rolandic area of the cerebral cortex, and pass downwards through rious subdivisions of the brain to gain the spinal cord. As they enter the cord ey cross the mesial plane from one side to the other, and it thus happens that e crossed pyramidal tract in the right lateral column of the cord has its origin the cortex of the left cerebral hemisphere, and *vice versa*. As the tract descends the cord it gradually diminishes in size; and this is due to the fact that, as it averses each spinal segment, numerous fibres leave it to enter the anterior horn gray matter, and end in connexion with the ventral motor cells from which the bres of the anterior nerve-roots arise. The entire strand is ultimately exhausted this way. Numerous collateral fibrils spring from the pyramidal fibres, and, ntering the gray matter, end in a similar manner, and in this way a single pyra-idal fibre may be connected with several spinal segments before it finally ends. he crossed pyramidal tract must be regarded as a great motor strand which rings the spinal motor apparatus under the control of the will.

Schäfer believes that many of the pyramidal fibres end in connexion with the cells Clarke's column.

In the rat, mouse, guinea-pig, squirrel, sheep, kangaroo, etc., the pyramidal tract lies the posterior column of the cord.

The **lateral basis-bundle** (fasciculus lateralis proprius) represents the remain of the lateral column. Our information regarding it is still imperfect; but would appear that its fibres are largely derived from the cells situated in all p of the gray matter, and also from the nerve-cells of the opposite side of the c After a course of very varying length in the basis-bundle, these fibres turn inw and re-enter the gray matter. Such fibres may thus be regarded as **inter-segm association fibres** binding two or more segments of the cord together. It may mentioned that the association fibres which link together segments of the c which are near to each other lie close to the gray matter, whilst those wh connect the more distant segments are situated further out in the late basis-bundle.

Anterior Column of the Cord.—One well-defined tract is situated in t anterior column. This is termed the direct pyramidal tract. The remainder the column receives the name of the anterior basis-bundle.

The **direct pyramidal tract** (fasciculus cerebro-spinalis anterior) is usually nerve-strand of small size which lies next the antero-median fissure. As a ru it cannot be traced lower than the middle of the dorsal region of the cord. It a descending tract and must be associated with the crossed pyramidal tract of t opposite side, seeing that both of these strands arise from the motor area of t cortex of the same cerebral hemisphere. From this, it must be clear that t direct pyramidal tract does not cross the mesial plane as it enters the cord, b descends on the side of the cord corresponding to the cerebral hemisphere which it arises. All the same its fibres do not end in the same side of t cord, but at every step along the path of the strand they make use of the anter commissure and cross to the opposite side of the cord, to terminate in relati to the opposite ventral motor cells in the same manner as the crossed pyramid fibres.

From this crossing of the pyramidal tracts, it results that the destruction of the fibres wh compose them as they descend in one side of the brain must result in paralysis of the mus supplied by the efferent nerves of the opposite side of the cord.

In cases of old brain lesion it is sometimes possible to detect some degenerated fibres in t crossed pyramidal tract of the sound side of the spinal cord, and from this it is supposed that th tract contains a few uncrossed fibres. If this be the case, each side of the cord stands connexion with the motor area of both cerebral hemispheres.

It is well to note that the fibres of both pyramidal tracts are not medullated until the time birth. They are the latest of all the cord-tracts to myelinate.

The **anterior basis-bundle** (fasciculus anterior proprius), like the lateral basis bundle, is composed largely of fibres which arise from the cells of the gray matte of the cord, and act the part of **intersegmental association fibres.**

Summary of the Constitution of the White Matter of the Cord.—Th white columns of the cord are formed of two kinds of nerve-fibres :—

1. Those which enter the cord from without.
2. Those which take their origin from the cells within the gray matter of the cord itself.

Under the first category we include (*a*) the greater part of the fibres of the posterior column (columns of Burdach and Goll), which arise from the cells of the spinal ganglia, and which enter the cord as the posterior nerve-roots; and (*b*) the crossed and direct pyramidal tracts which come from the motor cells of the cerebral cortex.

The fibres which arise within the gray matter of the cord may be classified thus: (*a*) Fibres which pass out from the cord as efferent nerves (anterior nerve-roots); (*b*) fibres which form long tracts and pass up the cord to enter the brain (direct cerebellar tract and the tract of Gowers); (*c*) fibres which form short tracts, linking together different segments of the cord (intersegmental association fibres in each of the three columns of the cord).

Anterior White Commissure.—The anterior commissure is composed of medullated nerve-fibres passing from one side of the cord to the other and entering the anterior horn of gray matter, and also the anterior column of white matter. It is to be regarded more as a decussation than as a commissure, and its width, which

es somewhat in different regions, fluctuates in correspondence with the diameter he cord.

Amongst the fibres which cross in the anterior commissure may be mentioned: (1) The fibres he direct pyramidal tract; (2) collaterals from both the ventral and lateral columns; (3) axons any of the cells of the gray matter; (4) the dendritic processes of some of the mesial ventral a.

Posterior Gray Commissure.—Although this is composed of gray matter with arge admixture of neuroglia, numerous transverse nerve-fibres pass through it, so to bind the cells of one side of the cord to those of the other.

Development of the Spinal Cord.

In the chapter upon General Embryology it has been pointed out (p. 21) that the in and cord first take shape in the form of a tube of ectoderm, which receives the name he **neural tube**. Three expansions, placed one behind the other at the cephalic end of tube, represent the early brain; whilst behind these primitive cerebral vesicles comes elongated narrower part of the tube, which at this stage represents the spinal cord. developmental process, which we now have to study, the walls of this portion of the al canal give rise to the various elements which build up the substance of the cord, st a portion, if not the whole, of the primitive cavity is preserved as the central canal he cord. The account which is here given of the development of the cord is taken st entirely from the writings of Professor His.

When first formed, the neural tube is compressed from side to side and presents an oval ine in transverse section (Fig. 16, p. 21). The two lateral walls are very thick, whilst narrow dorsal and ventral portions of the wall are thin, and are termed the **mid-dorsal** **mid-ventral laminæ** (Fig. 378). The cavity of the tube in transverse section appears as rrow slit. At this stage the wall of the neural tube is formed of a series of elongated ro-epithelial columnar cells, closely applied to each other and extending throughout the le thickness of the wall. The r ends of these long columnar s unite to form a delicate mem- ne termed the **internal limiting nbrane**, which lines the lumen of tube, whilst their outer ends sent a similar relation to an **ex- nal limiting membrane**, which sts the outer surface of the tube. e name of **spongioblasts** is given hese cells, and they soon develop such a manner as to form the tentacular framework of the wing cord. Between their inner ts, immediately subjacent to the ernal limiting membrane, a series clefts or open spaces are formed, which appear large numbers of nd cells called **germinal cells.** e precise origin of these germinal ls is not at present satisfactorily ablished; but they rapidly in- ase in number, and in the human bryo of four weeks they are seen form an almost continuous layer neath the internal limiting mem- ane. It is well to note, however, at in the thin mid-dorsal and mid- ntral laminæ no germinal cells are rmed. Here the wall remains rely spongioblastic. The peri- eral portions of the spongioblasts likewise undergo a marked transformation. They ve off branches or processes, and by the interlacement of these a sponge-like network ith irregular meshes is formed in the outer portion of the wall of the neural tube. The

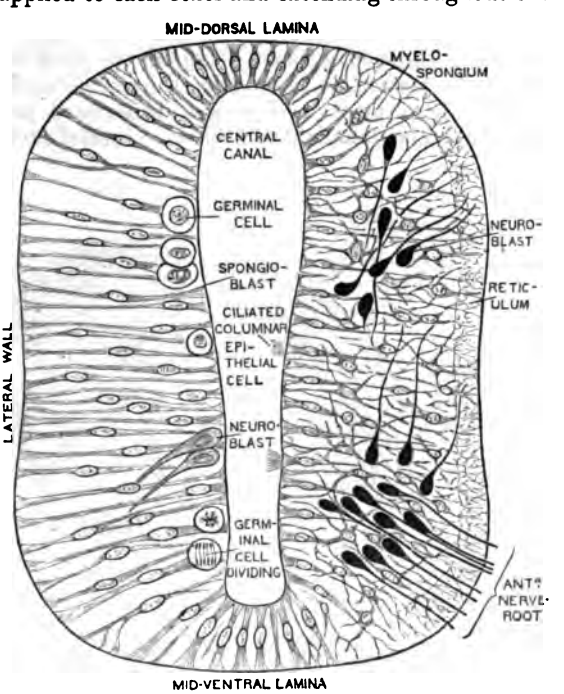


Fig. 378.—Schema of a Transverse Section through the Early Neural Tube (Young).

The left side of the section shows an earlier stage than the right side.

entire sustentacular framework into which the spongioblasts are developed is term the **myelosponge.**

The numerous germinal cells which are placed in the clefts between the in columnar portion of the myelosponge are the progenitors of the nerve-cells. Many them show karyokinetic stages, and by their division they give rise to the **neuroblasts** young nerve-cells. A neuroblast presents a very characteristic pear-shaped appearan From the body of the cell a tapering process grows out, and this represents the early a cylinder process or axon of the cell. But the crowds of neuroblasts which are thus form do not remain in their early primitive position beneath the internal limiting membra They migrate outwards, and in the course of time they come to lie in the part of t myelosponge immediately adjoining the reticular meshwork, which is formed by the out parts of the spongioblasts. Here their further outward migration is arrested. Th reticular meshwork would almost appear to act as a sieve or a filter, which prevents the progress towards the periphery of the wall of the tube. It offers no impediment to th actively growing axons of the neuroblasts, however, which freely enter it and thread the way through it. At this stage the thick lateral wall of the neural tube presents thre layers, viz. :—

1. An inner layer, formed by the columnar part of the myelosponge forsaken by th neuroblasts. This is termed the **ependymal layer,** and it ultimately resolves itself in the layer of columnar ciliated epithelial cells which lines the central canal of the cord.

2. An intermediate layer, in which the neuroblasts are present, and which is afterwa converted into the gray matter of the cord. This is called the **mantle layer.**

3. An outer layer, formed of the sponge-like meshwork of the outer parts of t original spongioblasts. Into this the axons of many of the neuroblasts are seen threadi their way. This layer is ultimately transformed into the white matter of the cord, a at this stage it may be termed the **peripheral reticular layer.**

Alar and Basal Laminæ of the Lateral Wall of the Neural Tube.—Fr what has been said, it must be evident that the changes detailed above are confined the thick lateral walls of the neural tube. In these alone do neuroblastic cells ar whilst the thin mid-dorsal and mid-ventral laminæ remain spongioblastic throughc But whilst these changes are going on, the thick lateral wall begins to bulge outwards an angular fashion, so as to widen the central cavity of the tube and become itself, al the line where the cavity is widest, demarcated into two portions—a narrow dorsal st termed the **alar lamina,** and a broader ventral strip called the **basal lamina.** The cav

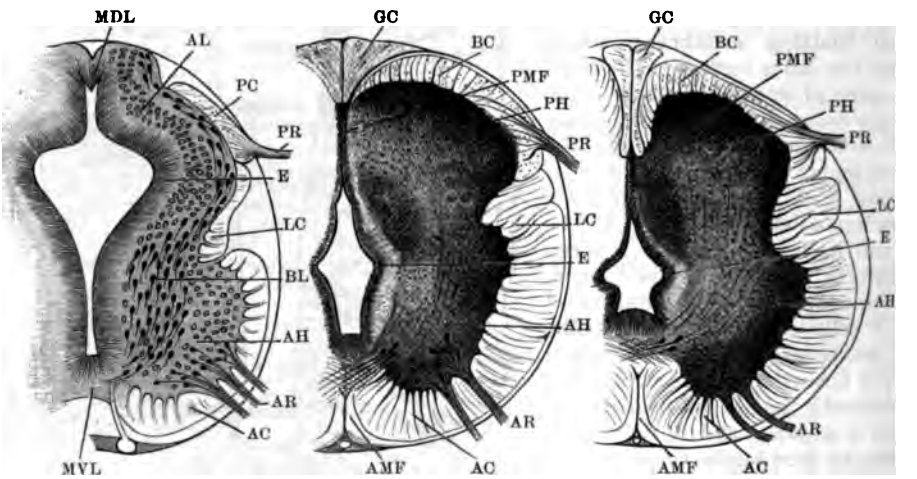


FIG. 379.—THREE STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPINAL CORD (His).

AC.	Anterior column.	BC.	Column of Burdach.	MVL.	Mid-ventral lamina.
AH.	Anterior horn of gray matter.	BL.	Basal lamina.	PC.	Early posterior column.
AL.	Alar lamina.	E.	Ependyma.	PH.	Posterior horn of gray matter.
AMF.	Antero-median fissure.	GC.	Column of Goll.	PMF.	Postero-median fissure.
AR.	Anterior nerve-root.	LC.	Lateral column.	PR.	Posterior nerve-root.
		MDL.	Mid-dorsal lamina.		

of the tube now appears on transverse section more or less lozenge-shaped, and it is at t lateral angles of the lozenge that this subdivision of the lateral wall becomes evident.

This subdivision is a fundamental one, being present in the brain-part as well as t

art of the neural tube. By it the thick lateral wall is resolved into two longitudinal (the alar and basal laminæ), which extend along the whole length of the tube, and present definite and precise relations with the entering and emerging roots of the ıs cranial and spinal nerves. Confining our attention to the spinal cord, the posterior ·root is seen to enter the alar lamina, whilst the anterior nerve-root takes origin ı and emerges from the basal lamina.

urther Development of the Gray and White Matter of the Cord.—In the ıl part of the basal lamina the mantle layer thickens into a mass, which is readily ıised as the rudiment of the anterior horn of gray matter, and in this neuroblastic ;ongregate in much larger numbers than elsewhere. Further, these neuroblastic ıegin to arrange themselves into groups, and the axis-cylinder processes of a large rtion of them converge and form bundles of fibres, which penetrate into the peri- l layer, and finally pierce the external limiting membrane, to emerge as the fascicles anterior nerve-roots. Behind the anterior horn the mantle layer still remains very ınd the neuroblasts are few in number. There is, therefore, at this stage no appear- ›f the posterior horn of gray matter. Many of the axons of the neuroblasts which y this region are seen curving forwards, and, after traversing the anterior horn, they heir way across the middle line in the mid-ventral lamina. In this manner is laid at a very early stage, the rudiment of the anterior white commissure of the cord.

ıe white matter of the anterior and lateral columns is gradually established by axons various neuroblasts in different parts of the mantle layer, entering the peripheral lar layer and taking a longitudinal course within it. The anterior horn is well l with white matter, however, before the lateral column takes definite shape.

ıe posterior columns of white matter are formed in a totally different manner, viz. ; introduction into the cord of nerve-fibres from without. The fibres of the posterior ·roots coming from the spinal ganglia strike the outer surface of the alar lamina of teral wall of the neural tube, and, piercing the external limiting membrane, take a udinal course in the peripheral reticular layer. On cross section these fibres first r as an oval bundle, which lies in the outer part of the alar lamina (Fig. 379 PC). ›undle is the rudiment of Burdach's column, and at first it has a somewhat loose xion with the cord; but as the posterior horn of gray matter gradually takes , the bundle in question increases in volume, and, changing its position, comes to lie e inner aspect of the posterior horn. The column of Goll gradually assumes form ;en the tract of Burdach and the postero-median septum. Later on the lateral and ior columns are increased in bulk by the descent into them of the pyramidal tracts the brain.

he gray matter, in the first instance, is chiefly massed in the basal lamina; but as osterior columns of white matter begin to take shape it extends backward, and in ›urse of time the posterior horns are developed.

he manner in which the dendritic processes of the neuroblasts are developed has sufficiently described (p. 447). The ensheathment, also, of the axons by medulla ;een referred to, and the fact that the different tracts of fibres receive their medullary hs at different periods mentioned. It is now only necessary to state that the order ;elinisation of the several tracts is as follows:—(1) Fibres of the anterior nerve-roots; ract of Burdach; (3) fibres in the basis-bundles; (4) tract of Goll; (5) direct cere- r tract; (6) tract of Gowers; (7) pyramidal tracts (Kahler).

)evelopment of the Median Fissures and of the Central Canal.—As the ior horns of gray matter covered by the anterior columns of white matter increase in the anterior surface of the cord on either side of the mesial plane bulges forwards, :he antero-median fissure is produced as the natural result.

'he manner in which the postero-median fissure comes into existence is not fully rstood, but the majority of embryologists believe that it is produced by the approxi- ›n and fusion of the walls of the posterior part of the primitive cavity of the neural

The postero-median septum would thus appear to be formed of spongioblastic tissue. f the above view of the formation of the postero-median fissure be correct, it must ident that the central canal of the cord does not represent the whole of the primitive y of the early neural tube, but only the anterior portion of it.

among those observers who do not hold that the central canal and posterior fissure have this : of origin the most prominent is Professor A. W. Robinson, of Birmingham; and he has ght forward evidence which seems to indicate that it is doubtful if the fusion of the walls e posterior part of the canal, referred to above, takes place. Certainly the arrangement of ependymal elements of the postero-median septum, as seen in the preparations of Cajal v. Lenhossek, are extremely difficult to understand on the fusion theory. They run in the

antero-posterior direction, whereas, if fusion has taken place, most of them would present a transverse arrangement, and thus lie at right angles to the postero-median septum.

THE BRAIN OR ENCEPHALON.

The **brain** is the enlarged and greatly modified upper part of the cerebrospinal nervous axis. It is surrounded by the same membranes that envelop the spinal cord (viz. the dura mater, the arachnoid mater, and the pia mater), and it almost completely fills up the cavity of the cranium. So closely, indeed, is the skull capsule moulded upon the brain that the impress of the latter is almost everywhere evident upon the deep surface of the cranial wall. The relations, therefore, of cranium to brain are totally different from those presented by the vertebral canal

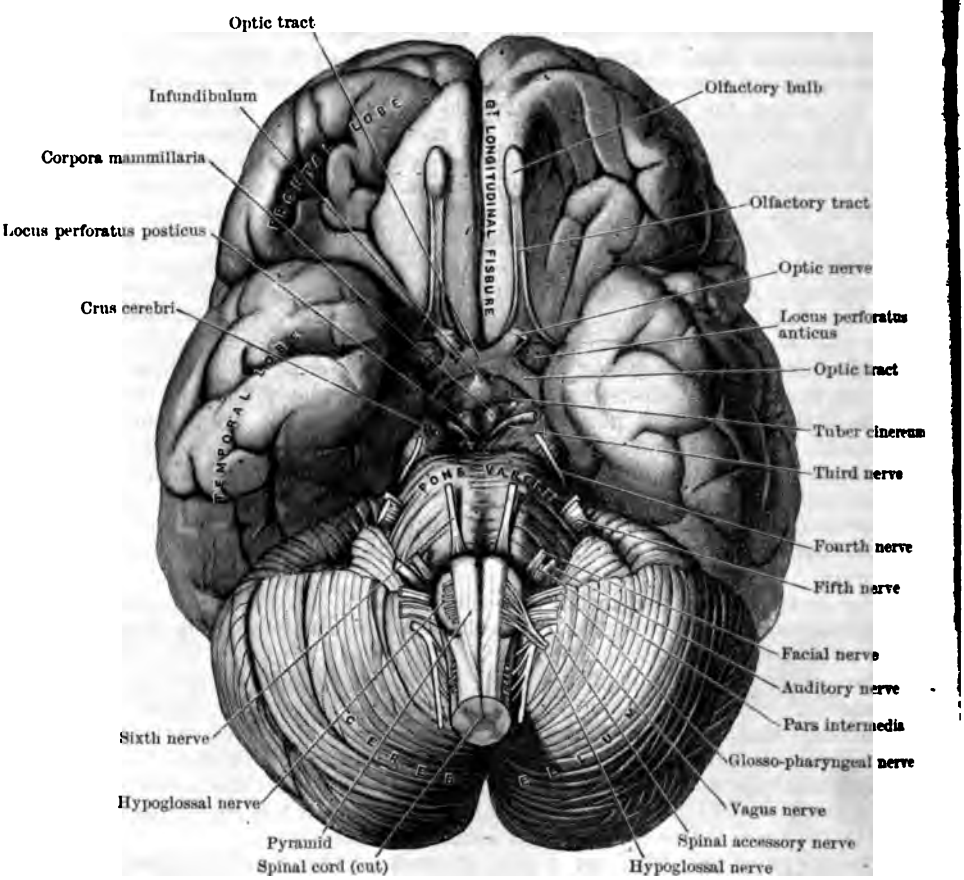


FIG. 380.—THE BASE OF THE BRAIN WITH THE CRANIAL NERVES ATTACHED.

to the spinal cord. As we have noted, the cord occupies only a part of its bony case; and there is not only a wide and roomy space between the arachnoid mater and pia mater, but also an interval of some width between the dura mater and the walls of the vertebral canal.

General Appearance of the Brain.—When viewed from above the brain presents an ovoid figure, the broad end of which is directed backwards. Its greatest transverse diameter is usually found in the neighbourhood of that part which lies between the two parietal eminences of the cranium. The only parts which are visible when the brain is inspected from this point of view are the two convoluted **cerebral hemispheres.** These present an extensive convex surface, which is closely applied to the deep aspect of the cranial vault, and are separated from each other by a deep median cleft, termed the **great longitudinal fissure,** which extends from the front to the back of the brain.

The inferior aspect of the brain is usually termed the "base." It presents an even and irregular surface, which is more or less accurately adapted to the qualities on the floor of the cranium. Upon this aspect of the brain some of main subdivisions may be recognised. Thus behind is seen the short cylindrical rtion, called the **bulb** or **medulla oblongata**, through which, at the foramen magnum, e brain becomes continuous with the spinal cord. The bulb lies on the ventral pect of the cerebellum, and occupies the vallecula or hollow which intervenes tween the two cerebellar hemispheres. The **cerebellum** is a mass of considerable e which is placed below the hinder portions of the two cerebral hemispheres. It easily recognised on account of the closely-set, curved, and parallel fissures which nverse its surface and give it a foliated appearance. Above the medulla, and in se connexion with it, is a prominent white elevation called the **pons Varolii**. Imediately in front of the pons there is a deep hollow or recess. This is bounded hind by the pons Varolii, on either side by the projecting temporal lobe of the ebral hemisphere, and in front by the orbital portions of the frontal lobes of the ebral hemispheres. Passing out from either side of the fore-part of this recess is deep Sylvian fissure which intervenes between the pointed and projecting remity of the temporal lobe and the frontal lobe of the cerebrum, whilst in the ddle line in front the great longitudinal fissure, which separates the frontal tions of the cerebral hemispheres, opens into it.

Within the limits of this deep hollow, in the base of the brain, two large rope- strands, the **crura cerebri**, may be seen issuing from the upper aspect of the is Varolii. Placed close together as they emerge from the pons, these crura erge as they proceed upwards and forwards, and finally each disappears by nging into the corresponding side of the cerebrum. Turning round the outer e of each crus, where it enters the cerebrum, a flattened band termed the **optic ct** may be observed. These bands converge in the fore-part of the hollow, and finally joined together by a short commissural portion, termed the **optic chiasma**. e **optic nerve** is continued forwards and outwards, on either side, from the chiasma d tract.

The crura cerebri, the optic tracts, and the optic chiasma enclose a deep omboidal or lozenge-shaped interval on the base of the brain, which is termed e **interpeduncular space**. Within the limits of this area the following parts may seen as we pass from behind forwards: (1) the locus perforatus posticus; (2) the rpora mammillaria: (3) the tuber cinereum and the stalk of the pituitary body.

At its posterior angle, immediately in front of the pons Varolii, the interduncular space is very deep and is floored by a layer of gray matter, which is erforated by numerous small apertures. This is the **locus perforatus posticus**. hrough the apertures which are dotted over its surface the small postero-mesial asal branches of the posterior cerebral artery enter the brain.

The **corpora mammillaria** are two small white pea-like eminences placed side by ide in front of the locus perforatus posticus.

The **tuber cinereum** is a slightly raised field of gray matter, which occupies the nterval between the anterior portions of the optic tracts in front of the corpora mammillaria. Springing from the fore-part of the tuber cinereum, immediately ehind the optic chiasma, is the **infundibulum**, or the stalk which connects the ituitary body with the base of the brain.

Outside the limits of the fore-part of the interpeduncular space there is on ither side a small depressed triangular field of gray matter, which leads outwards nto the Sylvian fissure. It is perforated by the antero-mesial and the anterolateral groups of basal arteries, and receives the name of the **locus perforatus nticus**.

General Connexions of the Several Parts of the Brain.—The medulla blongata, the pons Varolii, and the cerebellum occupy the posterior cranial fossa, nd they are separated from the cerebral hemispheres which lie above them by a artition of dura mater, termed the tentorium cerebelli. Further, they surround cavity, a portion of the primitive cavity of the early neural tube, which is termed he **fourth ventricle** of the brain, and they all stand in intimate connexion with ach other. The medulla is for the most part carried upwards into the pons

Varolii; but at the same time two large strands from its dorsal aspect, termed restiform bodies, are prolonged into the cerebellum, and constitute its in peduncles, or the chief bonds of u between the medulla and the bellum. The pons Varolii has numbers of transverse fibres e ing into its composition, and great majority of these are gath together on either side in the of a large rope-like strand. plunges into the corresponding h sphere of the cerebellum, and stitutes its middle peduncle.

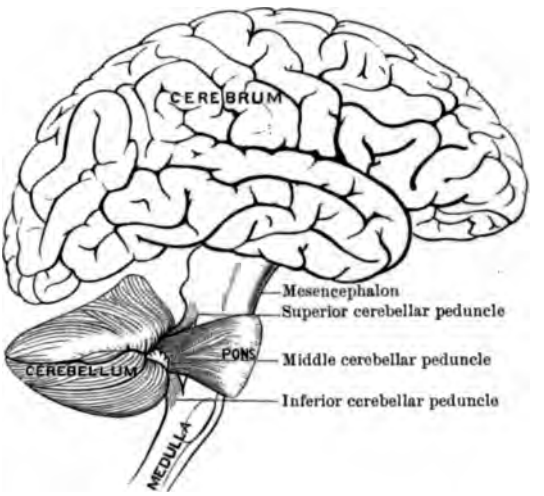


FIG. 381.—SCHEMA, showing the connexions of the several parts of the brain.

The cerebrum, which form great mass of the brain, occupie anterior and middle cranial f and extends backwards into th cipital region above the tento and the cerebellum. The greate of the cerebrum is formed b cerebral hemispheres, which separated from each other i mesial plane by the great l tudinal fissure. At the bottom of this fissure is the **corpus callosum**, a commissural band which connects the two hemispheres with each other. hemisphere is hollow, the cavity in its interior being termed the **lateral ven** of the brain. Between and below the cerebral hemispheres, and almost pletely concealed by them, is the **inter-brain** or **diencephalon**. The principal forming this portion of the brain are two large masses of gray matter, te the **optic thalami**. Between these is the **third ventricle** of the brain—a deep n cavity occupying the mesial plane. The third ventricle communicates wit lateral ventricles by two small apertures, called the **foramina of Monro**.

The cerebrum is connected with the parts in the posterior cranial fossa Varolii, cerebellum, and bulb) by a narrow stalk called the **mid-brai mesencephalon**. The mid-brain is built up of the **crura cerebri**, passing fro pons Varolii to the cerebrum; the **corpora quadrigemina**, forming its dorsal part the **superior cerebellar peduncles**, proceeding from the cerebellum to the cere It is tunnelled by a narrow passage, the **aqueduct of Sylvius**, which extends be the fourth and third ventricles.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE BRAIN.

The brain is developed from the expanded anterior portion of the prin neural tube. In the section dealing with the general principles of Embryol has been pointed out that this part of the neural tube is marked off by tw strictions into three primitive cerebral vesicles, which are termed respectivel hind-brain or rhombencephalon, the mid-brain or mesencephalon, and the brain or prosencephalon.

Hind-brain or Rhombencephalon.—The hind-brain is the largest of the primary expansions of the neural tube: indeed, it may be said that in the e stages of brain development it is larger than both of the other primary subdiv taken together. The portion immediately adjoining the mid-brain is consti and is termed the **isthmus rhombencephali**. This is a very small part, formin extreme upper end of the vesicle, and from its walls are developed the su cerebellar peduncles and a thin lamina, which is stretched across the middl between them, called the valve of Vieussens or the superior medullary v Immediately behind the isthmus the hind-brain expands suddenly, and then s and gradually tapers as it passes downwards towards the spinal cord part c neural tube. Its junction with the latter is very early indicated by a sharp

the tube, which is termed the **cervical flexure**. The large portion of hind-brain ich extends from the isthmus to the cervical flexure is usually considered as ng composed of two parts, viz. an upper portion, termed the metencephalon, and inferior portion, called the myelencephalon.

From the metencephalon are derived the cerebellum and pons Varolii. The ebellum arises by a thickening of the dorsal wall of this portion of the vesicle, ilst the pons is formed by a thickening of the lateral and ventral walls. The

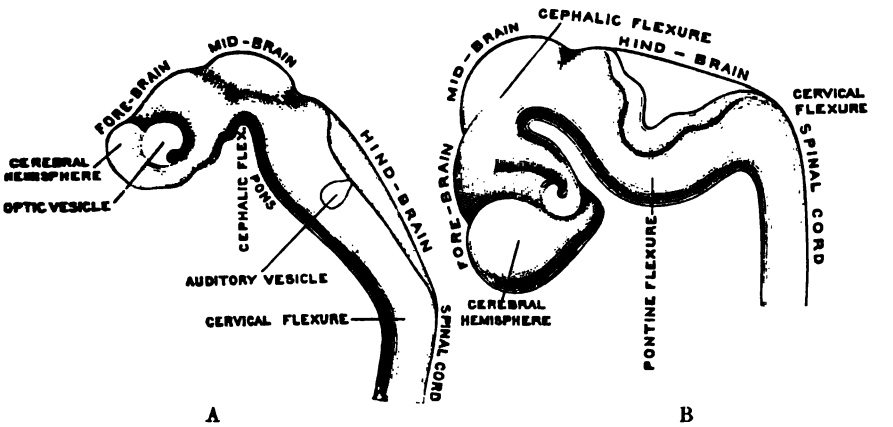


FIG. 382.—TWO STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE HUMAN BRAIN (after His).
A. Brain of an embryo of the third week. B. Brain of an embryo of five weeks.

elencephalon gives origin to the bulb or medulla oblongata. This is chiefly med by a thickening of the lateral walls of this part of the vesicle. These fall ay from each other in an outward direction, and thus the ventral angle between em becomes greatly opened up. The growth which leads to the formation of the lb appears, therefore, to take place chiefly on the ventral aspect of the vesicle. ie dorsal wall remains thin and epithelial, and undergoes little or no development to nervous elements.

The cavity of the original hind-brain is retained in the adult brain as the fourth ntricle; and from what has been said regarding the development of the different ortions of the wall of the rimitive hind-brain, it will e seen that in its lower or nedullary part its dorsal all or roof, to a large xtent, remains epithelial.

The parts of the adult rain which are derived rom the rhombencephalon r hind-brain are those hich lie below the ten- orium cerebelli in the osterior cranial fossa of he skull.

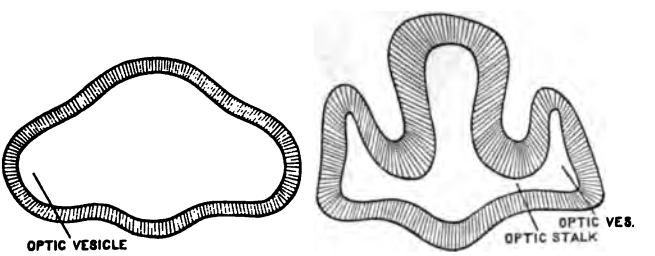


FIG. 383.—TWO CROSS SECTIONS THROUGH THE FORE-BRAIN.
A. Through the fore-brain of the early human embryo. B. Through the fore-brain and optic vesicles of a Lepidosteus embryo of eight days (after Balfour and Parker, modified).

Mesencephalon or id-brain.—The mid-brain takes a much more prominent part in the forma- ion of the early primitive brain than it does in the construction of the adult rain. It forms a very small part of the adult brain, and constitutes a stalk of onnexion between the parts which are developed from the walls of the rhomben- ephalon and those which are developed from the walls of the prosencephalon r fore-brain. The entire wall of the mid-brain is transformed into nervous tissue. Thus, by the special development of the dorsal section of the wall, the corpora quadrigemina are formed. The lateral and ventral sections of the wall undergo a still more marked degree of growth-thickening, and the result is the

formation of the two crura cerebri. The cavity of the mid-brain is retained narrow passage termed the aqueduct of Sylvius, which connects the third v of the brain with the fourth ventricle.

Prosencephalon or Fore-brain.—In its early condition one of the peculiarities of the fore-brain is its great width. It extends outwards on side for a considerable distance beyond the lateral walls of the mid-brain. lateral expansions of the fore-brain are the **optic vesicles**, and at this stage the no way constricted off from the central part of the cavity (Fig. 383). Soon, h the central portion of the fore-brain begins to expand upwards and forwards the terminal portions of the optic vesicles likewise undergo enlargement; a result is, that the originally single chamber shows subdivision into three viz. a central portion or fore-brain proper, and two expanded optic vesicles, are joined to the parts of the lateral of the fore-brain pr two short const tubular passages the **optic stalks**.

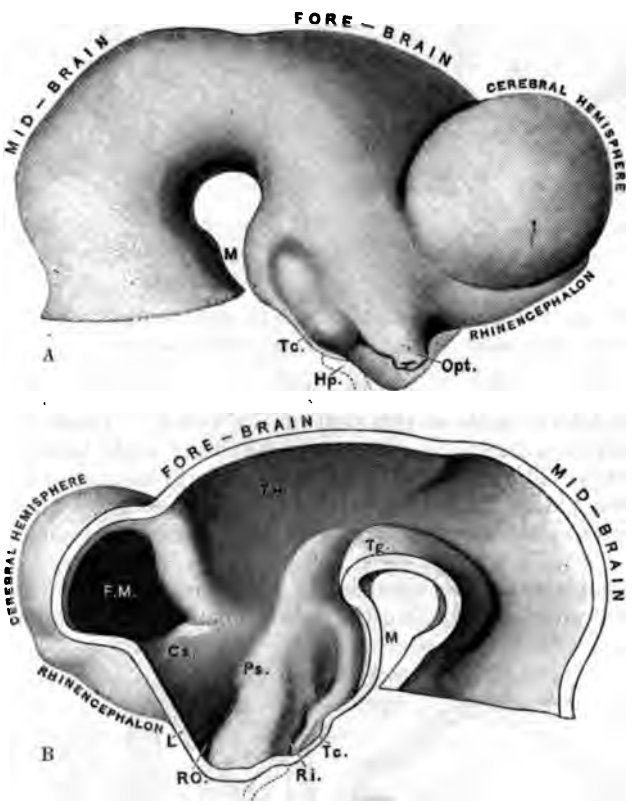


FIG. 384.—THE BRAIN OF A HUMAN EMBRYO IN THE FIFTH WEEK (from His).

A, Brain as seen in profile. B, Mesial section through the same brain. M, Mammillary eminence; Tc. Tuber cinereum; Hp, Hypophysis (pituitary diverticulum from buccal cavity); Opt, Optic stalk; TH, Optic thalamus; Tg, Tegmental part of mesencephalon; Ps, Pars subthalamica; Cs, Corpus striatum; FM, Foramen of Monro; L, Lamina terminalis; RO, Recessus opticus; Ri, Recessus infundibuli.

The optic vesicl the optic stalk becon mately transformed i retina of the eye-b the optic nerve. changes which lead result are detailed section dealing wi anatomy of the or vision.

The fore-brain goes a series of rem developmental chan most striking of w the formation of th bral hemispheres terminal or fore-por the fore-brain, in t instance, expands i ward and downwar tion, and from the and lateral aspects new portion of the thus formed the c hemispheres bulge ou in the form of two pouches. The original part of th brain is termed th **mamencephalon** or **cephalon**, whilst t terior part with the cerebral hemispheres, which protrude out from it, rece name of **telencephalon**.

The side walls of the diencephalon become thickened into the two large of gray matter termed the optic thalami; the floor or ventral wall develc those structures which occupy the interpeduncular space in the base of th (viz. the posterior perforated spot, the corpora mammillaria, and the tuber cine whilst the roof or dorsal wall remains thin and epithelial, and under nervous development.

The hollow cerebral hemispheres soon outstrip all the other parts of th in their development. They expand not only in an upward and forward di

ly in a backward direction; and by their excessive growth backwards dually come to overlie the diencephalon, the mesencephalon, and at parts derived from the rhombencephalon. It thus comes about that, adult brain is viewed from above nothing but the cerebral hemispheres e—all the other parts of the brain lie under cover of them.

rst the cavity of each cerebral hemisphere is connected with the cavity nt portion of the fore-brain by an exceedingly short but relatively wide This is the early condition of the **foramen of Monro**. The fore-part of rain is now seen to be bounded in front between the two hollow cerebral re-pouches by a narrow thin strip, which represents the extreme anterior ie neural tube, and consequently it receives the name of **lamina terminalis**. y of the fore-brain not only in its hinder diencephalic part, but also in or telencephalic part (*i.e.* the part from which the cerebral hemispheres , persists as the third ventricle of the brain, whilst the cavities of the cerebral hemispheres are ed in the adult by the ntricles of the brain. The of Monro, relatively much in size, are preserved as throats of communication the lateral ventricles and l ventricle. The olfactory e formed as hollow out- from the cerebral hemi-

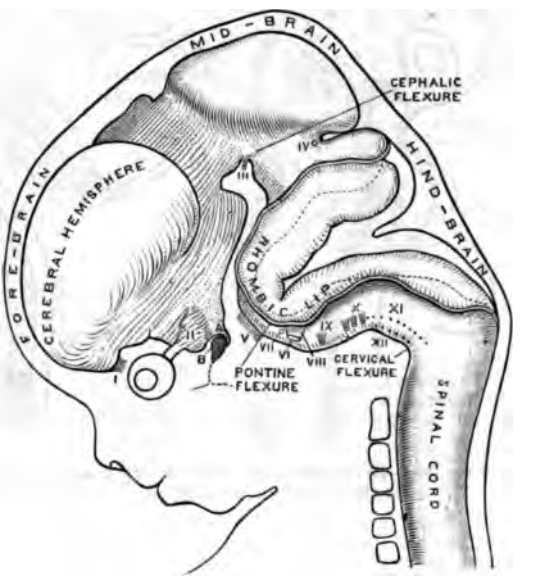


FIG. 385.—PROFILE VIEW OF THE BRAIN OF A HUMAN EMBRYO OF TEN WEEKS (His).

The various cranial nerves are indicated by numerals.

A, Cerebral diverticulum of pituitary body. B, Buccal diverticulum of pituitary body.

ures of the Brain-tube.— r early period, and while the detailed above are being n, the cerebral portion of the ube becomes sharply bent elf at certain points. The ture which occurs is the **cephalic flexure**. It occurs egion of the mesencephalon, olves the entire head. The n becomes bent in a ventral round the fore-end of the l and the fore-gut, until the s of the fore-brain forms an gle with the long axis of -brain and the ventral wall ne comes to lie nearly parallel with the corresponding wall of the other. this curvature the mid-brain is considerably modified in form, and for a mes to occupy the most prominent and foremost part of the embryonic head. primary cephalic flexure is soon followed by the **cervical flexure**. This the junction of the hind-brain with the spinal cord. Here the entire ent in a ventral direction, and at the end of the fifth week the flexure is nced that the cerebral and spinal cord portions of the neural tube meet er at a right angle (Fig. 385). In the later stages of development the lexure becomes obliterated by the elevation of the head and the straighten- e neck of the embryo.

third bend takes place in the region of the future pons Varolii (meten-), and is consequently termed the **pontine flexure**. It differs from the tures in being confined to the brain tube and in not in any way involving e head. Further, the bend is much more marked in the thick ventral n in the thin dorsal wall of the tube. The neural tube is doubled forwards and the pons Varolii becomes developed in connexion with the summit of ature. In the further growth of the brain the pontine flexure becomes mpletely obliterated.

By reason of these curvatures the early brain assumes a sinuous, zig S-shaped outline when viewed from the side, and the relationship of its parts becomes materially altered. The essential factor at work in the prod of the brain flexures is clearly the very unequal growth which takes pl different parts of the cerebral wall.

Basal and Alar Laminæ of His.—It has been pointed out that, i development of the spinal cord, each of the thick lateral walls of the neur is marked off into a dorsal or alar and a ventral or basal lamina. This subd is also noticeable in the cerebral part of the neural tube, and the furrow inner aspect of the lateral wall, which indicates this subdivision, can be even in the adult brain throughout a considerable part of its length.

In the spinal cord the motor cells are gathered in the basal lamina in m less conti columns. brain the sponding from whic efferent fil the cranial are given also placed the basal but they ranged diffe They are co together i connected termed the nuclei, an do not e higher up the mid- No motor occur in th brain. I the import the basal diminishes pass fro lower to the parts of the

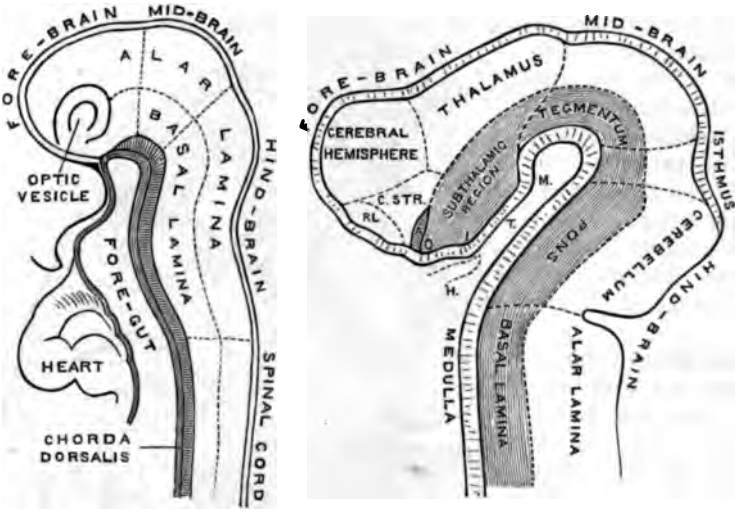


FIG. 386.—DIAGRAMS TO ILLUSTRATE THE ALAR AND BASAL LAMINÆ. In both cases the embryonic brain is represented in mesial section (His).

A. The different subdivisions of the brain are marked off from each other by dotted lines, and the dotted line running in the long axis of the neural tube indicates the separation of the alar from the basal lamima of the lateral wall.

B. Mesial section through the brain of a human embryo at the end of the first month. Dotted lines mark off the different regions and also the alar and basal laminæ from each other.

H, Buccal part of pituitary body; RL, Olfactory lobe; C.STR, Corpus striatum; A, Entrance to optic stalk; O, Optic recess; I, Infundibular recess; T, Tuber cinereum; M. Mammillary eminence.

In the rhombic or hind-brain the greater part of the medulla oblongata the pons Varolii is formed from the basal laminæ, whilst the cerebellum, w superior and inferior cerebellar peduncles, is derived from the alar lamin the mid-brain the crura cerebri are the derivatives of the basal laminæ, whi corpora quadrigemina are developed from the alar laminæ. In the fore-br subthalamic region and the optic vesicles are products of the growth of th laminæ, whilst the optic thalami and cerebral hemispheres spring from tl laminæ.

The fact that the cerebellum and the cerebral hemispheres owe their to the alar laminæ is sufficient to show the predominant part which these l play in brain development, and the higher we ascend in the animal scale th pronounced does this predominance become.

The following table gives a summary of the various developmental pr which have been described in the foregoing pages:—

Rhombencephalon or Hind-brain (posterior cerebral vesicle)	Myelencephalon	Bulb or medulla oblongata	
		Lower part of the fourth ventricle	
	Metencephalon	Cerebellum	
		Pons Varolii	
		Upper part of the fourth ventricle	
	Isthmus rhombencephali (narrow constricted part immediately adjoining the mesencephalon)	Superior cerebellar peduncles	
		Valve of Vieussens	
Mesencephalon or Mid-brain (middle cerebral vesicle)	Mesencephalon or Mid-brain	Corpora quadrigemina	
		Crura cerebri	
		Aqueduct of Sylvius	
Prosencephalon or Fore-brain (anterior cerebral vesicle)	Thalamencephalon or Diencephalon	Optic thalami	
		Subthalamic tegmental regions	
		Pituitary and pineal bodies	
		Structures in interpeduncular space	
		Optic nerve and retina	
		Hinder part of the third ventricle	
	Telencephalon	Cerebral hemispheres	
		Olfactory lobes	
		Lateral ventricles	
		Foramina of Monro	
		Anterior portion of the third ventricle	

THE PARTS OF THE ENCEPHALON DERIVED FROM THE HIND-BRAIN.

MEDULLA OBLONGATA OR BULB.

he medulla oblongata or **bulb** is the continuation upwards of the spinal cord. not more than one inch in length, and it may be regarded as beginning at the ssation of the midal tracts, h takes place t the level of oramen magnum. a this it proceeds ards in a very ly vertical direc- and ends at the r border of the Varolii. At first irth is similar to of the cord, but pidly expands as pproaches the s, and conse- ntly it presents a e or less conical . Its ventral ace lies behind grooved surface ne basilar portion he occipital bone, lst its dorsal sur-

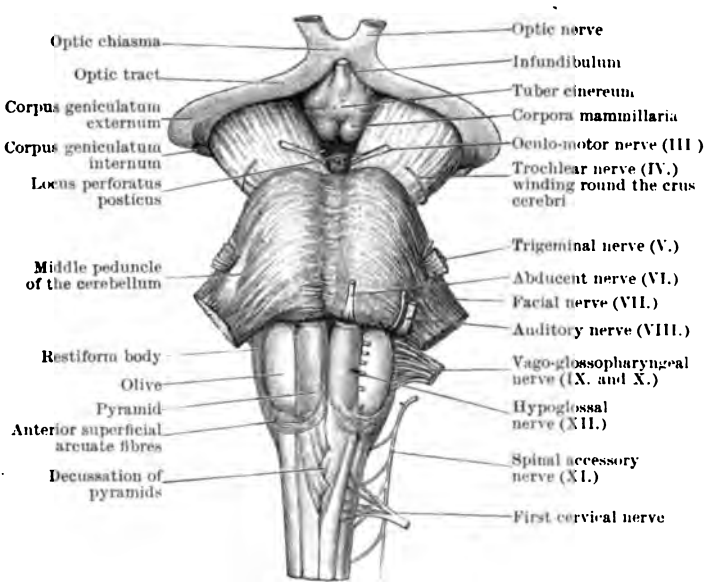


FIG. 387.—FRONT VIEW OF THE MEDULLA, PONS, AND MESENCEPHALON OF A FULL-TIME HUMAN FŒTUS.

is sunk into the vallecula of the cerebellum. The medulla oblongata is a teral structure, and this is indicated on the surface by a continuation upwards he **antero-median** and postero-median fissures of the cord on the ventral and **al aspects** of the medulla.

The **antero-median groove** (fissura mediana anterior), as it passes from the c on to the medulla, is interrupted at the level of the foramen magnum by seve strands of fibres, which cross the mesial plane from one side to the other. T intercrossing is termed the decussation of the pyramids. Above this level t furrow is carried upwards to the lower border of the pons, but is often rende very shallow by numerous superficial arcuate fibres which emerge upon the surf between its lips and then curve outwards to reach the hinder part of the medu At the lower margin of the pons Varolii it expands slightly and ends in a blind which receives the name of the **foramen cæcum** of Vicq d'Azyr. The **postero-me fissure** (fissura mediana posterior) is only carried up on the lower half of medulla. As it ascends it rapidly becomes shallower, and, halfway up, the cent canal of the cord opens on the dorsal surface of the medulla. At this point lips of the postero-median fissure are thrust apart from each other and constit the boundaries of a triangular field, which is thus opened up on the dorsal aspe of the medulla. This triangular field is the lower part of the **fossa rhomboidal** or the floor of the fourth ventricle of the brain. The lower half of the medul containing as it does the continuation of the central canal of the cord, is frequent termed the **closed part of the medulla**; the upper half, above the opening of t canal, which by its dorsal surface forms the lower part of the floor of the fou ventricle, is then called the **open part of the medulla.**

Deferring for the present the examination of the medullary part of the flo of the fourth ventricle, the appearance presented by the surface of each side the medulla, from the antero-median fissure in front to the postero-median fissu and the lateral limit of the floor of the fourth ventricle behind, may now engag our attention. In the spinal cord the corresponding surface area is divided int three districts or columns by the emerging motor roots and the entering sensor roots of the spinal nerves. Of these the latter enter along the bottom of t postero-lateral groove, whilst the motor fascicles are spread over a relatively bro surface area and hav no groove in connexio with their emergen from the cord. In th case of the medul corresponding rows o nerve-fascicles ente and emerge from th surface of each side. The efferent fascicles are the root-bundles of the hypoglossal nerve, and they carry up the line of the anterior nerve-roots of the cord. In one respect, however, they differ: they emerge in linear order and along the bottom of a distinct furrow, termed the **antero-lateral furrow**, which proceeds upwards on the surface of the medulla. The fascicles which carry up the line of the posterior nerve-roots on the surface of the medulla are the root-bundles of the spinal accessory, the vagus, and the glosso-pharyngeal nerves. These are attached along the bottom of a furrow which is the direct continuation upwards of the postero-lateral furrow of the cord, and therefore receives the name of the **postero-lateral furrow** of the medulla. The root-bundles

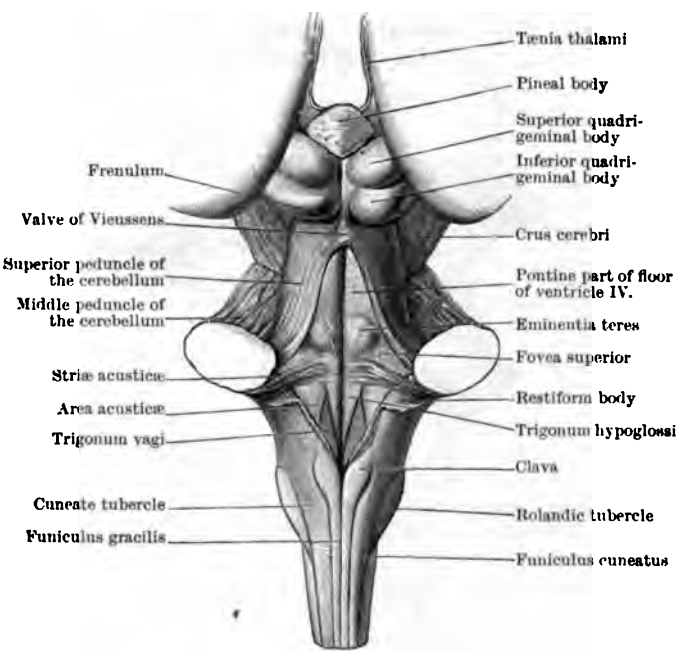


FIG. 388.—BACK VIEW OF THE MEDULLA, PONS, AND MESENCEPHALON OF A FULL-TIME HUMAN FŒTUS.

these nerves differ, however, in so far that they are not all composed of afferent res springing from ganglionic cells placed without and entering the medulla. rtain of them are purely efferent (spinal accessory roots), whilst others likewise ntain a considerable number of efferent fibres, and are therefore to be regarded mixed roots.

By the postero-lateral and the antero-lateral grooves, and also by the two rows nerve fascicles attached along the bottom of these furrows, the surface of the edulla on each side is divided into three districts, viz. an anterior, a lateral, and a sterior, similar to the surface areas of the three columns on the side of the cord. ndeed, at first sight, they appear to be a direct continuation upwards of these three rtions of the cord; this is not the case, however, because the fibres of the three lumns of the cord undergo a rearrangement as they proceed upwards into the edulla.

Anterior Area of the Medulla—Pyramid (pyramis).—The district between e antero-median fissure and the antero-lateral furrow, along the bottom of hich the root-fascicles of the hypoglossal nerve issue from the medulla, receives e name of the pyramid. An inspection of the surface is sufficient to show at the pyramid is composed of a compact strand of longitudinally directed rve-fibres. Tapering below, it expands and assumes a prominent appearance it is traced upwards, and, finally reaching the lower border of the pons Varolii, becomes slightly constricted and disappears from view by plunging into that rtion of the brain. The two pyramids, separated from each other by the antero-edian furrow, are the great motor strands of the medulla.

Although the pyramid at first sight appears to be continuous with the anterior lumn of the cord, only a very small pro-portion of the fibres contained in the latter re derived from the pyramid. This at once ecomes manifest when the lips of the ntero-median fissure are thrust apart at the lace of junction between the cord and the edulla. The pyramid is then seen to divide t this level into two parts, viz. a small ortion composed of a variable number of he outermost fibres of the pyramid, termed he **direct pyramidal tract**, and a much larger portion situated next the antero-median issure, called the **crossed pyramidal tract**. The direct pyramidal tract is continued down into the anterior column of the cord, and in this it takes up a mesial position next the antero-median fissure. The crossed pyramidal tract is broken up into three or more coarse bundles, which sink backwards and at the same time cross the mesial plane, to take up a position in the posterior part of the opposite lateral column of the cord. The term **decussation of the pyramids** (decussatio pyramidum) is applied to the intercrossing of the corresponding bundles of the crossed pyramidal tracts of opposite sides.

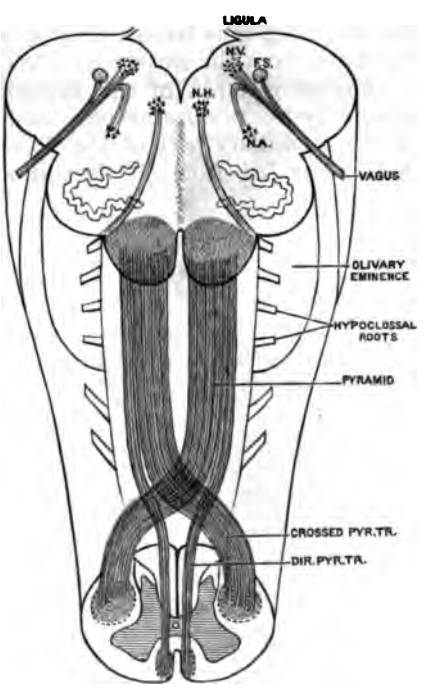


FIG. 389.—DIAGRAM OF THE DECUSSATION OF THE PYRAMIDS (modified from van Gehuchten).

NH, Nucleus hypoglossi; NV, Vago-glosso-pharyngeal nucleus; FS, Fasciculus solitarius; NA, Nucleus ambiguus.

The direct pyramidal tract is, therefore, the only part of the pyramid which has a place in the anterior column of the cord. The much larger part of this column, termed the anterior basis-bundle, as it is traced up into the medulla is seen to be thrust aside by the decussating bundles of the crossed pyramidal tract. It thus comes to occupy a deep position in the substance of the medulla behind and to the outer side of the pyramid.

Lateral Area of the Medulla.—This is the district on the surface of the medulla

which is included between the two rows of nerve-roots, viz. the **hypoglossal roots** front, and the root-bundles of the spinal accessory, the vagus, and the glo pharyngeal nerves behind. It presents a very different appearance in its upper lower parts. In its lower portion it simply appears to be a continuation upw of the lateral area of the cord; in its upper part a striking oval prominence bu out on the surface of the medulla, and receives the name of the **olivary eminence**

The lower part of this district, however, is very far from being an exact coun part of the lateral column of the cord. The large crossed pyramidal tract is longer present, seeing that it forms in the medulla the greater part of the pyr of the opposite side. Another strand of fibres, viz. the direct cerebellar tr prolonged upwards in the lateral column of the cord, gradually leaves t portion of the medulla. This tract lies on the surface, and is frequently visi to the naked eye as a white band, which inclines obliquely backwards in the posterior district of the medulla to join its upper part, or in other words t restiform body. The remainder of the fibres of the lateral column of the co comprising the lateral basis-bundle and the tract of Gowers, are continued upwa in the lateral area of the medulla, and at the lower border of the olive the majori of these fibres disappear from the surface by dipping into the substance of t medulla under cover of that projection. A small proportion of the fibres, ho ever, are retained on the surface and travel upwards towards the pons in the interv which exists between the hinder border of the olive and the roots of the vagus a glosso-pharyngeal nerves.

The **olivary eminence** (oliva) is a smooth oval projection which bulges out fro the upper part of the lateral area of the medulla. Its long axis is vertical and about half an inch long. It marks the position of the subjacent **inferior oliva nucleus**, a flexuous lamina of gray matter (nucleus olivaris inferior), which is co separated from the surface by a very thin layer of superficial white matter.

Posterior Area of the Medulla.—In its lower half, this district is bound behind by the postero-median fissure, and in its upper half by the lateral mar of the medullary part of the floor of the fourth ventricle of the brain. In fr it is separated from the lateral area by the row of root-fascicles belonging the spinal accessory, vagus, and glos pharyngeal nerves. As in the late area, we recognise a lower portion and upper portion, which appear continu but in reality are almost quite disti from each other.

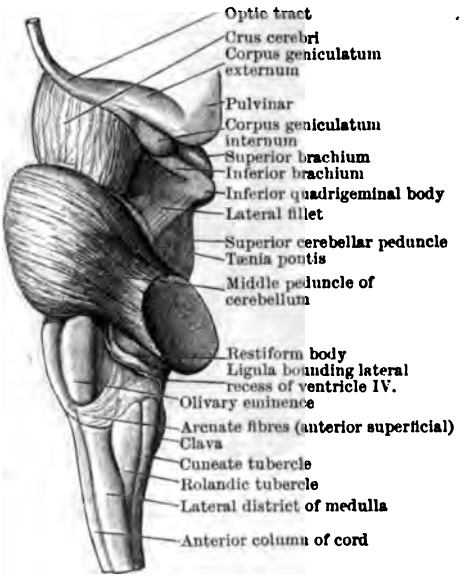


FIG. 390.—LATERAL VIEW OF THE MEDULLA, PONS, AND MESENCEPHALON OF A FULL-TIME HUMAN FŒTUS.

The lower part of the posterior a corresponds more or less closely with t posterior column of the cord. In t cervical part of the cord the poster column is divided by the paramedi septum of pia mater into an inner colu of Goll and an outer column of Burda These are prolonged upwards into t medulla, and in the lower part of t posterior area they stand out distinct and are separated from each other by continuation upwards from the cord of t paramedian groove. In the medulla t inner of these strands is called the **funicu gracilis**, whilst the outer one is designa the **funiculus cuneatus**. Each of th strands, when it reaches the level the lower part of the floor of the fou ventricle, ends in a slightly expan bulbous prominence. The swollen extremity of the funiculus gracilis is called **clava**. This is thrust aside from its neighbour of the opposite side by the open up of the medulla to form the floor of the fourth ventricle, and the central cana

opens on the surface in the angle between the two clavæ. The bulbous he fasciculus cuneatus receives the name of the **cuneate tubercle** (tuberculum m), but it is only in the fœtal or very young brain that it is well marked. e elongated prominences formed on the surface of the medulla by these two s and their enlarged extremities are, in a great measure, due to the presence elongated nuclei or collections of gray matter which make their appearance cent to the strands, and which gradually increase in bulk as they are traced rds. These are termed respectively the **gracile** (nucleus funiculi gracilis) and ate (nucleus funiculi cuneati) **nuclei**, and it can be easily shown that as the matter increases in quantity the fibres of the two corresponding strands inish in number by coming to an end in connexion with the cells of the jacent nuclei. Indeed, it is doubtful if any of the fibres of the gracile and eate strands extend upwards beyond these nuclei.

But a third longitudinal elevation is also apparent on the surface of the lower rt of the posterior area of the medulla. This is placed on the outer side of the niculus cuneatus—between it and the posterior row of nerve-roots—and it has counterpart in the posterior column of the cord. It is called the **funiculus of olando**, because it is produced by the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi, which caps the osterior horn, coming close to the surface and forming a bulging in this situation. he funiculus of Rolando is wedge-shaped in outline. Extremely narrow below, it idens as it is traced upwards, and finally ends in an expanded extremity called he **tubercle of Rolando** (tuberculum Rolandi). A thin layer of white matter, composed of longitudinally arranged fibres, is spread over this district, and separates the substantia Rolandi from the surface. These fibres constitute the spinal root of the fifth or trigeminal nerve, which here assumes a superficial position as it descends in the medulla.

The **restiform body** (corpus restiforme) forms the upper part of the posterior area of the medulla. It lies between the floor of the fourth ventricle and the roots of the vagus and glosso-pharyngeal nerves. It is a large and prominent rope-like strand, which inclines upwards and outwards, and then finally takes a turn backwards and enters the cerebellum. It forms the great link of connexion between the cerebellum on the one hand and the medulla and spinal cord on the other, and consequently it also receives the name of the **inferior cerebellar peduncle**. At the same time it must be understood that it is not formed by fibres which are prolonged into it from the funiculus cuneatus and funiculus gracilis of the medulla. It is true that a surface inspection of the medulla might very naturally lead the observer to this supposition, because there is no sharp line of demarcation marking it off from the tubercles of these strands. Such a conclusion, however, would be altogether erroneous, because it would appear that none of the fibres of the posterior columns of the cord are carried beyond the gracile and cuneate nuclei of the medulla. A study of the surface of the medulla yields some important information regarding the constitution of the restiform body. Thus the direct cerebellar tract from the lateral column of the cord can be traced into it, and large numbers of fibres which take a curved course on the surface of the medulla may likewise be followed into it. These are the superficial arcuate fibres. Numerous other fibres enter the restiform body on its deep aspect, but these will be studied at a later stage.

Superficial Arcuate Fibres (fibræ arcuatæ externæ).—These fibres enter into the constitution of the restiform body, and they may be regarded as consisting of two sets, viz. the anterior superficial arcuate fibres and the posterior superficial arcuate fibres, both of which present this feature in common that they run on the surface of the medulla.

The **anterior superficial arcuate fibres** are more particularly seen in the neighbourhood of the olivary eminence, round the lower border of which, and also over the surface of which, they may be observed coursing in the form of a number of coarse curved bundles. They vary greatly in number and in distinctness, and they are sometimes so numerous as to cover over almost entirely the eminence. An attentive examination will show that they come to the surface in the antero-median fissure between the pyramids, and also not unfrequently in the groove between

pyramid and olive, or through the substance of the pyramid itself. The an median fissure in its upper part is often almost completely blocked up by t emerging fibres. The anterior superficial arcuate fibres reaching the surface of medulla in this manner turn backwards, and the great majority enter the resti body and form a considerable part of its outer portion.

The **posterior superficial arcuate fibres** arise in the cuneate and gracile nuclei, enter the restiform body of the same side.

THE PONS VAROLII.

The **pons Varolii** is a marked white prominence on the basal aspect of the h which is interposed between the medulla and the crura cerebri, and which lie front of the cerebellum. It is convex from side to side, as well as from al downwards, and transverse streaks on its surface show that, superficially at leas is composed of bundles of nerve-fibres which course transversely over it. On ei side these transverse fibres are collected together in the form of a large com strand, which sinks in a backward and outward direction into the white matte the corresponding hemisphere of the cerebellum. This strand is termed the mi **peduncle of the cerebellum**, and the term "pons," applied to the entire struct expresses in an admirable way the arch-like manner in which this portion of brain bridges across between the two cerebellar hemispheres.

The *ventral surface* of the pons is in relation to the basilar process of occipital bone and the dorsum sellæ of the sphenoid bone. It presents a m groove (sulcus basilaris), which gradually widens as it is traced upwards, an which the basilar artery lies. This mesial depression is produced by the promin which is caused on either side by the passage of the pyramidal tract of fi downwards through the pons. The **trigeminal** or fifth cranial nerve, with its l entering sensory root and its small emerging motor root, is attached to the sid the ventral aspect of the pons, nearer its upper than its lower border. It is u to restrict the term "pons" to that portion of the structure which lies between two trigeminal nerves, and to apply the designation of middle cerebellar pedu to the part which extends beyond the nerve into the hemisphere of the cerebel The sixth or **abducent nerve**, the seventh or **facial nerve**, and the eighth or **audi nerve** are attached to the brain at the lower border of the pons. The sixth eme at the outer border of the pyramid, the seventh immediately in front of the r form body, whilst the auditory nerve reaches the brain close to the facial nerve the ventral aspect of the restiform body.

The whole of the medulla enters the *lower aspect* of the pons, and, with exception of the restiform bodies, its constituent parts are, to a large extent, car up within it. The crura cerebri emerge from its *upper aspect.*

The *dorsal surface* of the pons looks backwards towards the cerebellum, presents a triangular area covered with gray matter, which forms the upper pa the anterior wall or floor of the fourth ventricle. This area is directly contin below with the medullary part of the floor of the fourth ventricle, and is bou on either side by a band of white matter termed the **superior peduncle of cerebellum.**

Superior Cerebellar Peduncles (brachia conjunctiva).—These are hidden f view by the upper part of the cerebellum, under cover of which they lie. T emerge from the lateral hemispheres of the cerebellum, and, as they pro upwards on the dorsal aspect of the pons, they converge towards each other u at the level of the inferior corpora quadrigemina, the inner margins of the peduncles almost become contiguous (Fig. 388, p. 482). At first they form lateral boundaries of the upper part of the fourth ventricle; but, as they as and approach closer to each other, they gradually come to overhang that ca and thus enter into the formation of its roof. They disappear from the sur by dipping under cover of the quadrigeminal bodies and entering the substanc the mesencephalon.

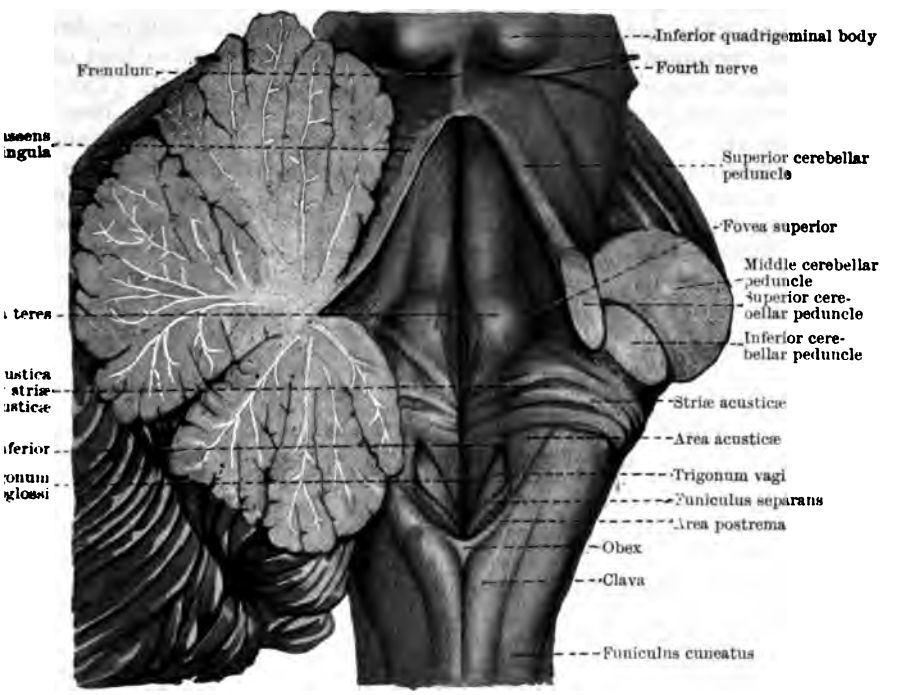
Valve of Vieussens or the Superior Medullary Velum (velum medu anterius).—Filling up the triangular interval between the two superior c

duncles, and stretching across from the inner and free margin of the one ›rresponding margin of the other, is a thin layer of white matter which **s the roof** or dorsal wall of the upper part of the fourth ventricle, and **the name** of the superior medullary velum. When traced downwards, it › **be carried** with the superior peduncles into the white matter of the cere-

Spread out on its dorsal surface is a small, thin, tongue-shaped prolongation **matter** from the cortex of the cerebellum, which is termed the **lingula**, **suing** from its substance close to the inferior quadrigeminal bodies are the **th or trochlear cranial nerves.**

·th Ventricle of the Brain (ventriculus quartus).—The fourth ventricle is **ıt** rhomboidal in form. Below, it tapers to a point and becomes continuous **ə central canal** of the cord; above, it narrows in a similar manner and is **›d into the aqueduct** of Sylvius, which tunnels the mesencephalon. The **· wall is termed the roof** and is concealed by the cerebellum. The anterior **called the floor** and is formed by the dorsal surfaces of the medulla and **)n** either side a long, curved and narrow prolongation of the ventricular **ı carried** outwards from its widest part and curves round the upper part **orresponding** restiform body. This is termed the **lateral recess.** The roof **:avity** is very thin and intimately connected with the cerebellum. It **·**, therefore, to defer its description until that part of the brain has been

r of the Fourth Ventricle (fossa rhomboidea).—In its lower part the **he** fourth ventricle is formed by the dorsal surface of the open part of the



-FLOOR OF THE FOURTH VENTRICLE. On the right side the right half of the cerebellum has been oved by cutting through its three peduncles and dividing it in the mesial plane. On the left side left half of the cerebellum is drawn over to the left so as to expose fully the floor of the ventricle.

, whilst in its upper part it is formed by the dorsal surface of the pons (Fig. 388, p. 482). The area thus constituted is lozenge-shaped, its widest ng opposite the upper ends of the restiform bodies or inferior peduncles :erebellum. A thick layer of gray matter, continuous with that which ls the central canal of the cord, is spread out like a carpet over the lar floor, and covering this is the usual ependymal layer, which lines all ricles of the brain. The area is circumscribed by definite lateral boundaries.

Thus, *below* it is bounded on either side by the clava, the **cuneate tubercle**, the restiform body; whilst *above* the lateral limits are formed by the superior cerebellar peduncles.

The floor of the fourth ventricle is divided into two lateral and symmetrical portions by a median groove. Its lower narrow pointed portion between the two clavæ receives the name of the **calamus scriptorius**, from its fancied resemblance to the point of a pen. Crossing each half of the floor, at its widest part, are seven or more or less conspicuous bundles of fibres termed the **striæ acusticæ**. They appear to emerge from the mesial groove and they are carried outwards over the floor of the ventricle in the region between its upper pontine and lower medullary portions. The striæ acusticæ exhibit a large amount of variation in different individuals both in their degree of prominence and also in the direction which they pursue. As a general rule they proceed towards the upper part of the restiform body, where they are connected with the cochlear nuclei. Except for this break on the surface, the medullary and pontine portions of the floor of the fourth ventricle are quite continuous with each other.

On the lower medullary district of the ventricular floor a small triangular depression, placed immediately below the striæ acusticæ, catches the eye. This is termed the **fovea inferior**. It is shaped somewhat like an arrow-head. The apex or point looks towards the striæ, whilst the lateral angles of the base are prolonged downwards in the form of diverging grooves (Fig. 391, p. 487). Of these, the inner groove runs towards the opening of the central canal at the calamus scriptorius, whilst the outer groove runs towards the lateral boundary of the floor. In this manner the portion of the floor which lies below the striæ acusticæ is mapped out into three triangular areas. The mesial subdivision is slightly elevated and is termed the **trigonum hypoglossi**, because subjacent to the inner part of this area is the nucleus of origin of the hypoglossal or twelfth cranial nerve. The intermediate area between the two diverging grooves which proceed from the base of the fovea inferior is the **trigonum vagi** (ala cinerea), so called because the nucleus of the vagus or tenth and the glosso-pharyngeal or ninth cranial nerves lies subjacent to it. The external area is the **trigonum acustici**. The base of this area is directed upwards and runs continuously into an eminence—the **acustic area** (area acustica)—over which the striæ acusticæ pass. Subjacent to this district of the floor of the ventricle lies the large terminal chief nucleus of the vestibular division of the auditory or eighth cranial nerve.

A close inspection of the medullary part of the floor of the fourth ventricle in the region of the calamus scriptorius will show that the base of the trigonum vagi is separated from the inner margin of the clava by a narrow lanceolate strip of the ventricular floor, to which Retzius has given the name of **area postrema**. Beneath this area is some vascular tissue (Streeter), and marking it off on its upper and inner aspect from the base of the trigonum vagi there is a translucent cord-like ridge called the **funiculus separans**.

When the floor of the ventricle is examined under water with a magnifying glass, the trigonum hypoglossi is seen to consist of a narrow inner strip which corresponds to the hypoglossal nucleus, and a wider lateral part which has been shown to be the surface representation of another nucleus termed the nucleus intercalatus (Streeter).

On the part of the floor of the ventricle which lies above the striæ acusticæ, and which corresponds to the dorsal surface of the pons, there is also a slight depression termed the **fovea superior**. Between it and the median groove is a marked prominence called the **eminentia teres**. Inferiorly this elevation passes downwards and becomes continuous with the trigonum hypoglossi, whilst above it is carried upwards towards the opening of the aqueduct of Sylvius. In both directions it becomes gradually less prominent, but still it forms a distinct elongated elevation, which stretches along the whole length of the median groove. As already stated, the **area acustica** extends upwards into the pontine part of the ventricular floor and forms an elevated region in the outermost part of its widest portion, below and to the outer side of the fovea superior. Proceeding upwards from the fovea superior to the opening of the Sylvian aqueduct there is a shallow depression termed the **locus cæruleus**, seeing that it usually presents a faint slate-gray colour. When the ependyma is scraped away from the surface of this part of the floor, the colour is seen to be due to the **substantia ferruginea**,—a name applied to a linear group of

ongly pigmented cells, which lies in the lateral part of the gray matter covering is portion of the ventricular floor. When transverse sections are made through e upper part of the pons, the substantia ferruginea appears on the cut surface a small black spot or dot.

INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE MEDULLA.

The internal structure of the medulla differs in a marked degree from that of e spinal cord; indeed, in its upper part it presents very little in common with the tter. The various strands of the cord either come to an end within the medulla undergo changes in their relative position, whilst the gray matter is much modi- d and new masses are added. Like the cord, however, the medulla consists of ro nearly symmetrical right and left halves. When transverse sections are made rough it at different levels each lateral half is seen to be partly marked off from e other in the lower closed part of the medulla by the anterior and posterior edian fissures, whilst in the upper open part of the medulla the subdivision is ndered evident in transverse sections by the presence of a distinct median

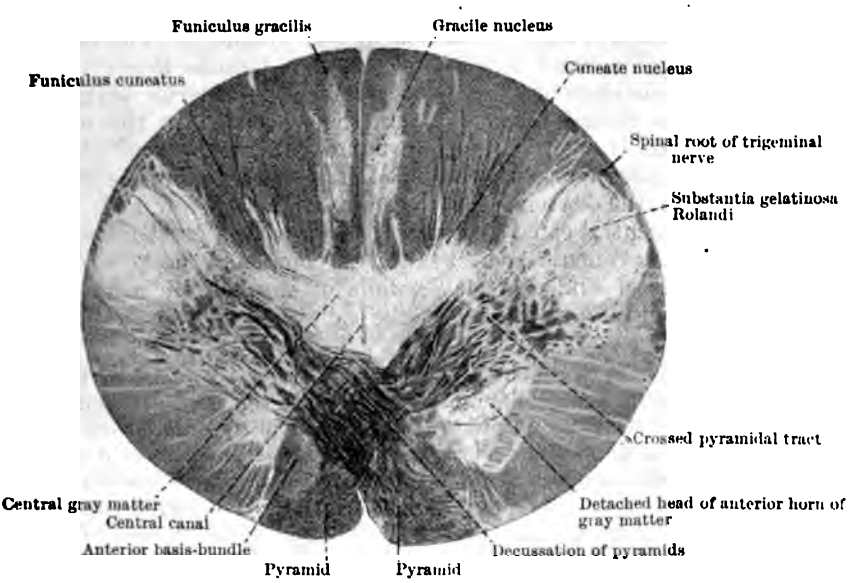


FIG. 392.—SECTION THROUGH THE LOWER END OF THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA OF A CHIMPANZEE TO SHOW THE DECUSSATION OF THE PYRAMIDS.

line, called the **raphe**, which occupies the mesial plane. The raphe is formed by the close intersection of fibres running in different directions and crossing from one side to the other.

Each half of the medulla is composed of: (*a*) strands of white matter; (*b*) gray matter; and (*c*) the formatio reticularis.

The **white matter**, as in the cord, is to a large extent disposed on the surface, and the gray matter in the interior; but in the upper open part of the medulla the gray matter comes to the surface on the dorsal aspect, and is spread out over that area which forms the medullary part of the floor of the fourth ventricle. In the cord the white matter, in the shape of massive longitudinal strands of fibres, forms a thick coating round the central gray matter. In the medulla the only massive longitudinal strands which are seen on the surface are the gracile and cuneate strands (until they become absorbed by the subjacent nuclei), the inferior cerebellar peduncles or restiform bodies and the pyramidal tracts. Elsewhere the coating of white matter is thin, and in certain places is composed chiefly of the superficial arcuate fibres. New longitudinal strands, however, take shape within the medulla, and two of the most important are placed on either side of the median raphe.

The **gray matter** of the cord, as it is continued upwards into the medulla,

becomes greatly modified. A considerable part of it is broken up in the form reticularis, whilst the only portions which remain as compact masses in di continuity with the gray matter of the cord are: (1) the thick layer wh surrounds the central canal, and which, in the open part of the medulla, becc spread out on the floor of the fourth ventricle; and (2) the substantia gelatin Rolandi. New masses of gray matter, which are not represented in the cord, a which in some cases appear in isolated clumps, are also added. The chief of th are the gracile and cuneate nuclei, the inferior olivary nuclei, and the arcuate pyramidal nuclei.

The **formatio reticularis** is only feebly represented in the cord, but in t medulla it forms a very considerable part of its bulk. It is composed of gr matter coarsely broken up by fibres, which traverse it in different directions.

In the following detailed account of the internal structure of the medulla must be understood that the appearances described are such as are seen wh successive transverse sections through the bulb are examined.

Decussation of the Pyramids and the Changes produced thereby.—As pass under the microscope a series of successive transverse sections through t upper end of the cord and the lower end of the medulla, the most striking cha which meets the eye is the decussation of the pyramids. The crossed pyrami tract in the lateral column of the cord is seen to become looser in its formati then coarse strands leave it, pass right through the anterior horn of gray mat and, crossing the mesial plane, take up their position in the other side of medulla, close to the antero-median fissure. Strands from the right cro pyramidal tract alternate with corresponding strands from the left side, and interval between the bottom of the antero-median furrow and the gray ma surrounding the central canal becomes filled up with a great mass of intercros bundles of fibres. When the decussation is completed the pyramid is seen t composed of a solid and compact bundle of fibres, well marked off from surrounding structures, which lies at the side of the antero-median fissure of medulla.

As a rule the inner three-fourths of the pyramid is composed of fibres which, l down in the opposite lateral column of the cord, form the crossed pyramidal tract, w the outer fourth of the pyramid proceeds downwards in the anterior column of the co the same side as the direct pyramidal tract. A considerable amount of variation, how occurs in the proportion of fibres which is allotted to the formation of these two trac the cord. Sometimes the crossed pyramidal tract is much larger than usual, and the direct pyramidal tract suffers a corresponding diminution in size. Cases indeed c in which the entire pyramid enters into the decussation, and in these there is no d pyramidal tract in the cord. Further, it is not uncommon to meet with variations c opposite kind which lead to an increase of the direct pyramidal tract at the expense o crossed tract. In the majority of cases the decussation appears to be symmetrical- division of the pyramid at the lower end of the medulla being into parts of correspor size on the two sides; in certain instances, however, the decussation is asymmetrical the corresponding pyramidal tracts on opposite sides of the cord are then unequal in Seeing that the direct pyramidal tracts undergo a gradual decussation in the ant commissure, as they descend in the cord, the final result is the same, no matter variations occur in the decussation at the lower part of the medulla.

The variations indicated above receive an additional interest when viewed in the of comparative anatomy. It would appear that only in man and the anthropoid ap the decussation of the pyramids in the lower part of the medulla incomplete. Acco to Sherrington, a direct pyramidal tract in the cord of the anthropoid apes stands in nexion with the arm-centre in the cerebral cortex. If this be the case in man it must wise have other connexions as well, seeing that it is carried down the cord for a conside distance beyond the level of the cord-segments which give motor fibres to the arm the lower apes a direct pyramidal tract does not seem to exist: the whole pyramid cr over to the opposite side of the cord in the shape of the crossed pyramidal tract.

As we have noted, the decussating pyramidal bundles pass through the ant horn of gray matter of the cord, and cut it into two portions (Figs. 392 and The basal part remains in position on the anterior and lateral aspect of the ce canal, and forms part of the thick layer of gray matter which surrounds it.

ched head of the anterior horn is set free; and from the large multipolar cells h lie in its midst some of the fibres of the anterior root of the first cervical e, and also some of the root fibres of the spinal accessory nerve, take origin.

On proceeding up into the medulla another effect of the decussation of the mids is seen in the submergence from the surface of the strand of fibres which, e anterior column of the cord, lies to the outer side of the direct pyramidal , and which receives the name of the anterior basis-bundle. While the decus- n is going on the anterior basis-bundle is thrust aside, and, sinking from the ce, it takes up its ion as a flattened -like strand on uter side of the ually increasing mid (Fig. 393). n the decussation ompleted, this d is seen to lie to the median e on the dorsal et of the pyramid, e it is separated its fellow of the site side by the an raphe alone 394). In the r part of the lla it approaches nearer to the

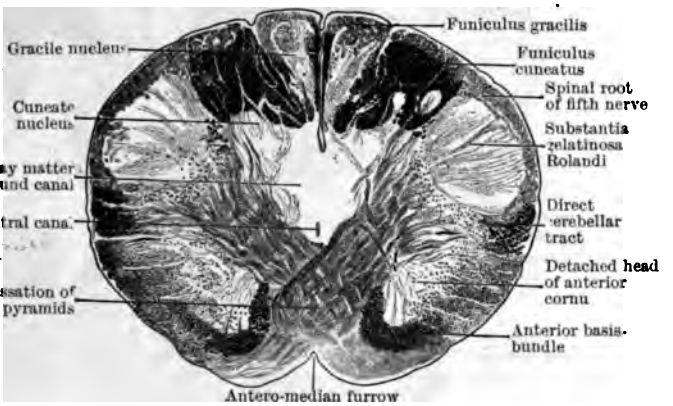


FIG. 393.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH LOWER END OF THE MEDULLA OF A FULL-TIME FŒTUS,

Treated by the Weigert-Pal method. The gray matter is bleached white, and the medullated tracts of fibres are black.

l surface and appears to form the greater part of a strand, which is ed the **posterior longitudinal bundle** (Figs. 397 and 398). The detached head e anterior horn of gray matter of the cord, as it is traced upwards, is observed ing closely to its original relationship with the anterior basis-bundle. It is ied to the outer side of this strand, and, gradually becoming smaller, finally ppears at the level of the lower part of the inferior olivary nucleus.

Cuneate and Gracile Strands, with their Nuclei.—As the funiculus gracilis the funiculus cuneatus of the posterior column of the cord are traced up the medulla they seem to increase in bulk, and in transverse sections they me the form of massive wedge-shaped strands, quite distinct from each other. n the decussation of the pyramids is fully established they change their shape. y increase in width and lose considerably in depth, and consequently the sverse diameter of the area which they occupy becomes greater. As a result his, and also owing to the removal of the crossed pyramidal tract from the al region of the cord immediately in front, the posterior horn of gray matter adually rotated forwards and comes to lie transversely and in the same straight with its fellow of the opposite side (Figs. 393 and 395). The substantia tinosa Rolandi, at the same time, becomes increased in quantity and presents rseshoe-shaped outline in transverse section. It clasps within its concavity the ewhat reduced head of the posterior horn, and forms with it a conspicuous ular mass of gray matter which lies close to the surface, and produces upon it bulging termed the funiculus and tubercle of Rolando. The basal portion of posterior horn of gray matter remains upon the dorsal and lateral aspect of the ral canal, and forms a portion of the central gray mass of the closed part of medulla; but very soon the neck of the horn, which at this level is greatly ced owing to the absence of entering posterior nerve-roots, is invaded by dles of fibres which traverse it in different directions and convert it into a natio reticularis. By this means the rounded head of the posterior horn becomes off from the central gray matter, and from this point upwards it remains as solated gray column intimately associated with the spinal root of the trigeminal re.

The **gracile** and **cuneate nuclei** take shape before the decussation of the pyram is fully completed (Fig. 395). The **gracile nucleus** appears in the form of a irregular mass of gray matter in the interior of the funiculus gracilis, wh

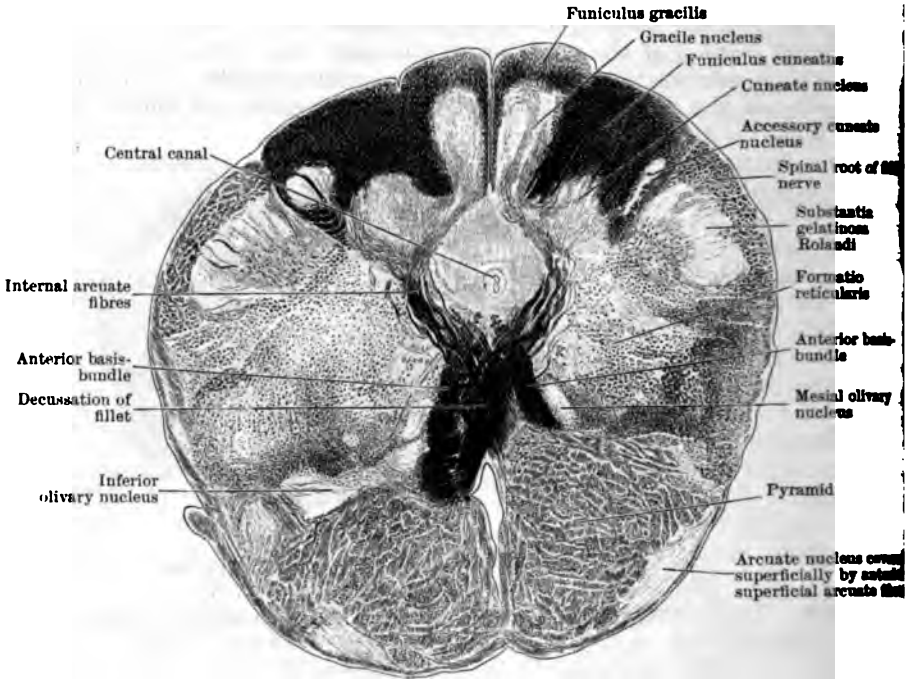


FIG. 394.—SECTION THROUGH THE CLOSED PART OF HUMAN MEDULLA IMMEDIATELY ABOVE THE DECUSSATION OF THE PYRAMIDS (Weigert-Pal Specimen).

gradually infiltrates the entire strand. At first it is not directly connected wi the gray matter which surrounds the central canal; but as it is traced upwar it increases in bulk, absorbs more of the strand in which it lies, and such a co nexion becomes established (Figs. 393 and 394).

The **cuneate nucleus**, from the first, is a direct offshoot from that part of the b of the posterior horn of gr matter which is preserved as portion of the central gray ma In transverse section it is seen invade the funiculus cuneat upon its deep aspect, and gradually grows backwards i its substance. It presents a v different appearance from t gracile nucleus, because throu out its whole length the gr nucleus and the fibres of t strand are separated from e other by a sharp line of demar tion. A second and much smal mass of gray matter appears the funiculus cuneatus, sup ficial to the main nucleus, soon after the region of the decussation of the pyram is left. This is termed the **accessory** or the **external cuneate nucleus** (Fig. 394).

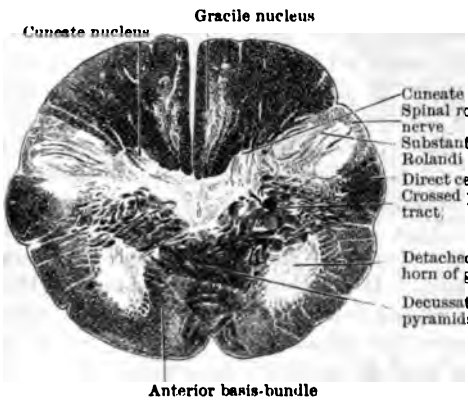


FIG. 395.—SECTION THROUGH THE LOWER PART OF THE MEDULLA OF THE ORANG.

Gradually the fibres of the gracile and cuneate strands become absorbed in th nuclei. As the gray masses gain in size a corresponding diminution in the num of fibres composing the corresponding tracts is observed, until, at the level of clava and cuneate tubercles, it is seen that these eminences are composed alm

of the gray nuclei, covered by a thin skin of the few remaining fibres of strands involved. It would appear that no fibres belonging to the funiculus and funiculus cuneatus get beyond these nuclei. They all end in fine l ramifications around the cells of the nuclei. In the case of the funiculus s the bundles es, as they om the sur- to the sub- gray nucleus, y distinctly transverse through the en the med- ongata opens the fourth e the gracile neate nuclei ied outwards expanding ular floor, and cile nucleus omes to an t the cuneate

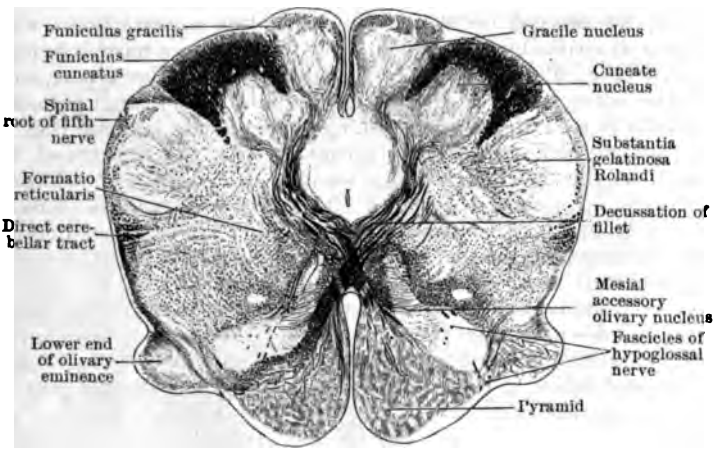
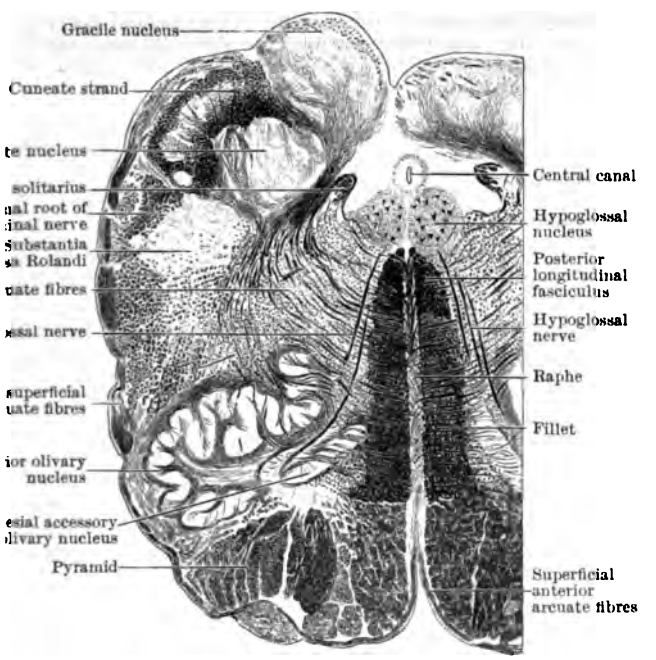


FIG. 396.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE CLOSED PART OF A FŒTAL MEDULLA, IMMEDIATELY ABOVE THE DECUSSATION OF THE PYRAMIDS.
Treated by Weigert-Pal method.

extends upwards for a short distance farther, and only terminates when iform body begins to take definite shape on its outer aspect.

ussation of the Fillet (decussatio lemniscorum).—Immediately above the the decussation of the pyramids another decussation of fibres in the median nd upon the dorsal aspect of the pyramids, takes place in the substance of the medulla. This is termed the **decussation of the fillet**, or the **sensory decussation**, in contradistinction to the term "motor decussation," which is sometimes applied to the decussation of the pyramids. The fibres which take part in this decussation are called **deep arcuate fibres** (fibræ arcuatæ internæ), and they are derived from the cells of the gracile and cuneate nuclei. From the deep aspects of these nuclei these fibres stream forwards and inwards towards the median raphe, forming a series of con-



97.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE HUMAN MEDULLA IN THE LOWER OLIVARY REGION.

curves in the substance of the medulla. They cross the mesial plane cussate with the corresponding fibres of the opposite side, upon the dorsal of the pyramids. Having thus gained the opposite side of the medulla they

immediately turn upwards and form a conspicuous strand of longitudina which ascends close to the mesial plane and is separated from its fellow opposite side by the median raphe alone. This strand is termed the **lemniscus.**

As we proceed up the medulla the deep arcuate fibres which first come in appear as coarse bundles which curve forwards in a narrow group around the cent matter (Figs. 394 and 396). Soon other finer bundles appear, which describe wide on the outer side of the coarser group until a very large part of each lateral hal medulla is seen to be traversed by these arcuate fasciculi (Fig. 397). As they a the mesial plane they come in contact with the remains of the anterior basis which at this level, as already mentioned, lies upon the dorsal aspect of the p flattened up against the raphe. The deep arcuate fibres pierce the anterior basis obliquely, and in the interval between it and the corresponding strand of the oppo they decussate in the middle line with the deep arcuate fibres of the opposite side. then change their direction and turn upwards, and the fillet, as already state form and gradually increases in volume as it ascends. This great and important thus laid down between the pyramid and the anterior basis-bundle; and the cons of this is that the latter tract is pushed still farther backwards, and, when the fully established, it comes to lie immediately beneath the gray matter of the floo fourth ventricle (Fig. 398).

It is important that we should realise at this stage the full significance of the de of the fillet and have a clear conception of the connexions of the fibres which take pa The columns of Burdach and Goll, which end in the cuneate and gracile nuclei, are deri the posterior roots of the spinal nerves. The fillet fibres therefore carry on the continui posterior columns of the cord, the gracile and cuneate nuclei, which are thrown across th in the lower part of the medulla, merely constituting an internodal interruption. At tl the fillet strand is transferred to the opposite side of the medulla. But it will be rem that a large proportion of the fibres of the entering posterior nerve-roots of the spinal ne in connexion with the cells of the posterior horn of gray matter of the cord. It mu supposed that the path represented by these latter fibres comes to a termination theret these posterior horn cells other fibres arise which cross to the opposite side of the cor anterior white commissure and proceed up the cord to the lateral part of the medulla fibres constitute the **spino-thalamic tract** already referred to. The practical bearing c that owing to the crossing of the fillet and lower down of the spino-thalamic tract u lesions of the medulla are apt to produce complete hemi-anæsthesia; whilst unilateral l the cord produce only partial hemi-anæsthesia.

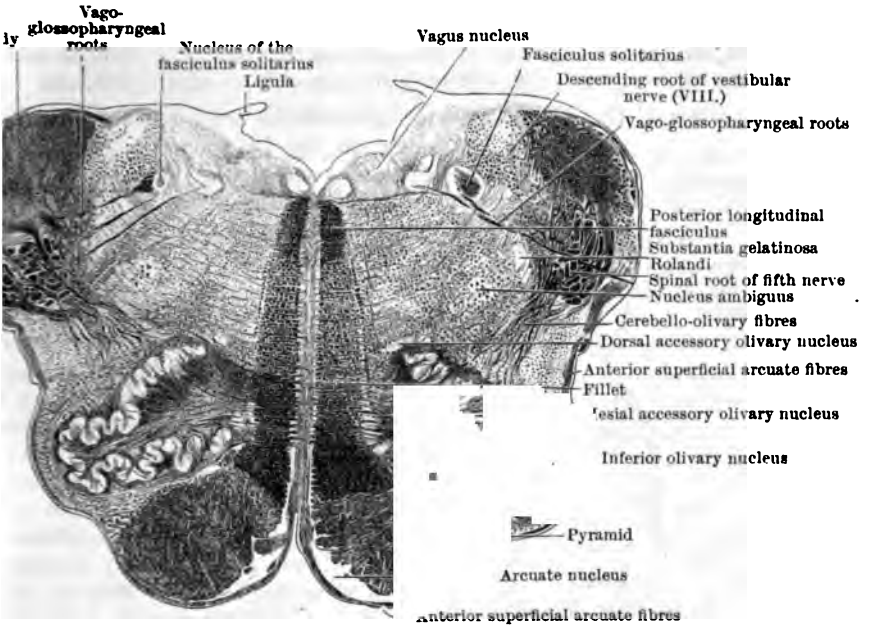
When the fillet is fully formed three longitudinal strands are observed ing the medulla, close to the mesial plane. From before backwards these a the pyramid, (2) the fillet, and (3) the posterior longitudinal bundle.

The pyramid forms a massive tract in front of and quite distinct fr fillet. The fillet and the posterior longitudinal bundle are, in the first in not marked off from each other. They appear as a broad flattened band to the raphe. One edge of this band is directed backwards and reaches tl matter on the floor of the fourth ventricle, while the other edge looks fc and is in contact with the pyramid. In the upper part of the medulla tl and the posterior longitudinal fasciculus begin to draw asunder from eacl The intermediate longitudinal fibres become reduced in number and t strands grow denser—the one on the dorsal aspect of pyramid, and th immediately beneath the gray matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle (Fi

The **posterior longitudinal bundle** (fasciculus longitudinalis medialis) largely formed out of fibres, which in the cord constitute the anterior basis- These fibres are thrust back by the two decussations: the first decussation them behind the pyramids, and the second decussation displacing them still backwards to a position behind the fillet.

Olivary Nuclei.—The most conspicuous of the isolated clumps of gray in the medulla are the inferior olivary nucleus and the two accessory nuclei. The **inferior olivary nucleus** (nucleus olivaris inferior) lies subjacent olivary eminence, and constitutes a very striking object in transverse s through this region. It presents the appearance of a thick wavy or undulati of gray matter, folded on itself, so as to enclose a space filled with white It is in reality a crumpled lamina arranged in a purse-like manner, with a

slit, which is called the **hilum** (hilum nuclei olivaris), directed towards the ane. The hilum does not reach either extremity, so that in transverse



TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE MIDDLE OF THE OLIVARY REGION OF THE HUMAN MEDULLA OR BULB.

r of the fourth ventricle is seen, and it will be noticed that the restiform body on each side has now taken definite shape.

through each end of the nucleus the gray lamina is seen in the form of a ly closed capsule. Into and out of the open mouth of the olivary capsule a dense crowd of fibres. These constitute what is called the **olivary peduncle.**

-THE INFERIOR OLIVARY NUCLEUS, as reconstructed and figured by Miss Florence R. Sabin.

View of the dorso-lateral and lateral surfaces.

The **accessory olivary nuclei** are two band-like laminæ of gray matter, which are respectively placed on the dorsal and mesial aspects of the main nucleus. In transverse section each of these nuclei presents a rod-like appearance (Fig. 398).

The **mesial accessory olivary nucleus** (nucleus olivaris accessorius mesialis) extends lower down in the medulla than the main nucleus, and it is much larger in its lower than its upper part. It begins immediately above the decussation of the pyramids, where it is seen lying ıter side of the pyramidal tract and the anterior basis-bundle (Figs. 394 and 396). ıp it lies across the mouth of the main nucleus and on the outer side of the fillet **ıal accessory olivary nucleus** (nucleus olivaris accessorius dorsalis) is placed the dorsal aspect of the main nucleus. The two accessory nuclei fuse together ıey finally disappear.

gray matter forming the three inferior olivary nuclei consists of a close feltwork ıglia in which are interspersed numerous small round cells, each of which is with one axon and numerous dendrites. It is traversed by fibres, some of which

pass straight through the gray lamina, whilst others end in connexion with the c
is only in man and the higher apes that the inferior olivary nuclei are found
developed. In other mammals they are much smaller. The size of the olive ap
be correlated with that of the lateral hemisphere of the cerebellum and not in an
be dependent on the development of the cerebral hemisphere. Thus in cetace
very extensive cerebral cortex the inferior olivary nuclei are small (Edinger).

As the fibres of the fillet decussate and assume a longitudinal directi
come to lie between the olivary nu
opposite sides, and hence the tern
olivary stratum (stratum interolivar
nisci) is frequently applied to them.

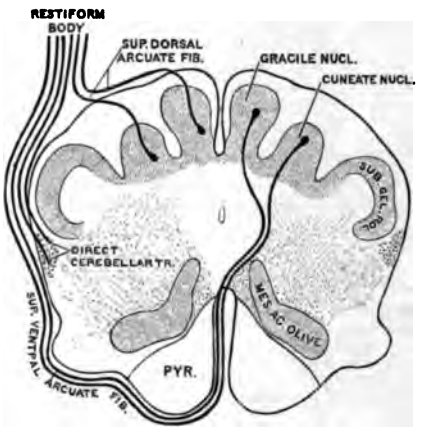


FIG. 400.—DIAGRAM,
Which shows in part the fibres which enter into the constitution of the restiform body.

Restiform Body (corpus restifo
The gracile and cuneate nuclei gradua
place to the restiform body in the upp
of the posterior district of the medulla.
from various quarters converge to fo
great strand. It first takes shape as
superficial layer of longitudinal fibres
are gathered together on the outside
cuneate nucleus; but after that nucl
come to an end, and as the upper part
medulla is reached, the restiform
seen to have grown into a massive
which presents a kidney-shaped or o
line on transverse section (Fig. 39
which ultimately enters the white
core of the cerebellum as its inferior peduncle. The fibres which build
restiform body are the following: (1) the direct cerebellar tract; (2) the p
superficial arcuate fibres; (3) the anterior superficial arcuate fibres;
cerebello-olivary fibres.

The **direct cerebellar tract** extends upwards from the lateral column of t
In the lateral district of the medulla it occupies a similar position; but before the olivary eminence is reached it inclines backwards, crosses the postero-lateral furrow and passes obliquely upwards into the restiform body. As its fibres diverge, backwards they pass over the tubercule of Rolando and cover up the spinal root of the trigeminal nerve and the substantia Rolandi, thus shutting them out from the surface. The fibres of the direct cerebellar tract in the first instance enter into the outer or superficial part of the restiform body.

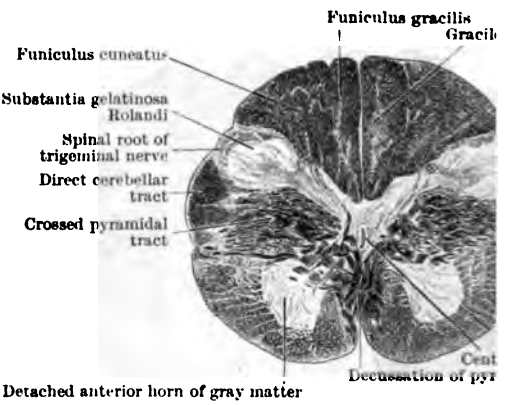


FIG. 401.—SECTION THROUGH THE JUNCTION BE
THE CORD AND MEDULLA OF THE ORANG.
The direct cerebellar tract is well seen, especially on the

Bruce has shown that the fibres of the direct cerebellar tract ultimately lie in the cent
restiform body, forming as it were its central core, and that in the cerebellum they can
to the superior vermis.

The **posterior superficial arcuate fibres** take origin from the gracile and
nuclei, and enter the superficial part of the restiform body of the same side.

The **anterior superficial arcuate fibres** proceed from the lower portions
gracile and cuneate nuclei of the opposite side. After decussating in the
line, it can easily be determined that all the deep arcuate fibres which ari
these nuclei do not enter the fillet. A large proportion of them gain the sur
sweeping round the inner aspect of the pyramid in the antero-mesial fissure.

ı likewise gain the surface by piercing the pyramid or by passing out ı it and the olive. These fibres constitute the anterior superficial arcuate and on the surface of the medulla they sweep backwards around it, forming layer over the olivary eminence and ultimately reaching the restiform body. terior superficial arcuate fibres, as well as the direct cerebellar tract-fibres, ver the trigeminal spinal root, which thus comes to take up a deeper posi- the substance of the medulla (Figs. 397 and 398).

ngst the fibres which reach the surface of the medulla in this way Kölliker includes om the striæ acusticæ. If this be the case, these fibres connect the cochlear nucleus e cerebellum, the path being striæ acusticæ, superficial arcuate fibres, and restiform *de* p. 522).

fibres of the direct cerebellar tract, which come from the cells of the posterior vesicular of the cord, and the superficial posterior arcuate fibres, which are derived from the cells gracile and cuneate nuclei, do not cross the mesial plane, but enter the restiform body of e side. The anterior superficial arcuate fibres arise from the cells of the cuneate and nuclei, and cross the mesial plane so as to gain the restiform body of the opposite side.

e cerebello-olivary fibres are only seen in the upper part of the medulla. They he deep part of the restiform body and constitute its chief bulk. Streaming

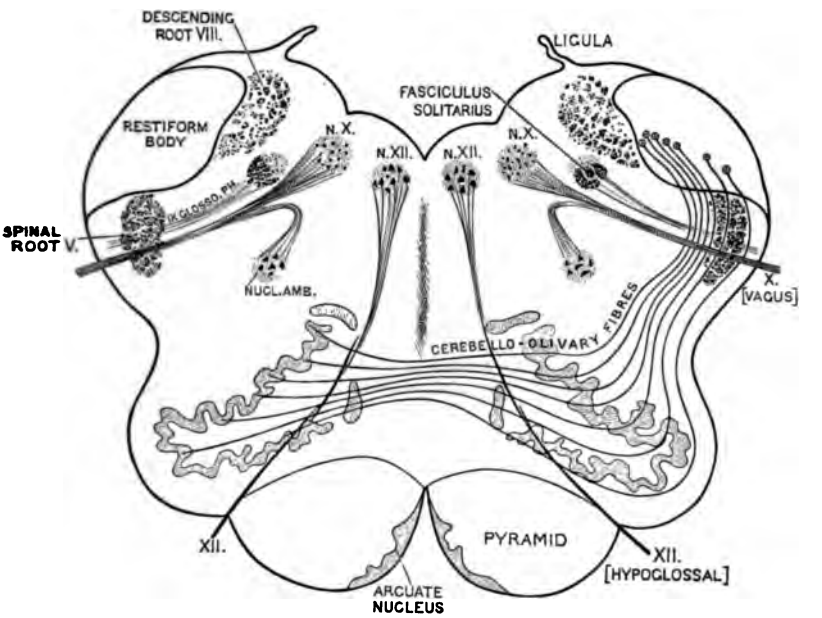


FIG. 402.—DIAGRAM OF THE CEREBELLO-OLIVARY FIBRES.

(This diagram has been constructed from the specimen figured on p. 495.)

N.X., Vago-glossopharyngeal nucleus. N.XII., Hypoglossal nucleus.

ɔm the hilum of the inferior olivary nucleus, they cross the mesial plane, and ; opposite side of the medulla they either pass through the inferior olivary ıs of that side or sweep around it. Ultimately, on the dorsal aspect of the y nucleus, they are gathered together in the form of a conspicuous group of ;e fibres, which curve backwards to take up a position in the deep part of the ɔrm body. In passing back, they traverse the spinal root of the trigeminal and break it up into several separate bundles. The cerebello-olivary fibres ;onnect the inferior olivary nucleus of one side with the opposite side of the ıllum.

hough we have traced the cerebello-olivary tract in an upward direction from the olive to ebellum, and have thus inferred that it is composed of fibres which proceed from the cells inferior olivary nucleus of the opposite side, it is right to state that this view is not uni- y accepted. There are some who regard these fibres as constituting an efferent tract from ebellum, or, in other words, as arising in the cerebellar cortex (probably as the axons of ls of Purkinje), and descending in the inferior cerebellar peduncle to establish connexions he cells of the inferior olivary nucleus of the opposite side. If this view be correct, the

destination of the axons of the cells of the inferior olivary nucleus becomes a difficu Kölliker considers that they enter the lateral column of the cord.

Arcuate Nucleus (nucleus arcuatus).—Immediately above the decussa the pyramids, a small flattened mass of gray matter, covered by superficial fibres, makes its appearance on the ventral or superficial aspect of the p (Fig. 393). At a higher level, when the open part of the medulla is reach gray mass shifts its position and comes to lie upon the mesial aspect pyramid, and thus constitutes the immediate boundary of the antero-fissure (Fig. 398). From its intimate connexion with the anterior sup arcuate fibres, as they sweep out from the antero-median fissure, it recei name of the **arcuate nucleus.**

The nerve-cells which lie in its midst are smaller than those of the inferior olivary and are fusiform in shape. It would appear that large numbers of the anterior superficial fibres end in this nucleus, whilst others take origin within it. Many of the anterior fibres, however, sweep continuously over its surface and bind it down to the pyramid. upper end of the medulla the arcuate nucleus increases in size, and ultimately it becon tinuous with the gray matter of the ventral part of the pons.

Formatio Reticularis.—Behind the olive and the pyramid is the fo reticularis. In the medulla it occupies a position which, to a large extent, sponds with that of the lateral column in the spinal cord. In transverse sec appears as an extensive area, which is divided into a lateral and a mesial fi the root fascicles of the hypoglossal nerve as they traverse the substance medulla to reach the surface. In the lateral portion which lies behind th there is a considerable quantity of gray matter, continuous with that in th present in the reticular formation; it is, therefore, called the **formatio ret grisea.** In the mesial part which lies behind the pyramid the gray ma extremely scanty, and the reticular matter here is termed the **formatio ret alba.**

In the **formatio grisea** many of the cells which are scattered thickly amongst the inte bundles of fibres are to be regarded as association cells. They possess short axons, which serv different levels of the medulla to each other, and therefore constitute association fibres. F the combined and harmonious activity exhibited by the nuclei of the vagus, facial and nerves in the process of respiration, is attained through the nuclear connexions establi these fibres (Edinger). Certain compact masses of gray matter are also seen in the grisea. Of these may be mentioned (*a*) the dorsal accessory olivary nucleus, which already described, and (*b*) the nucleus lateralis. The **nucleus lateralis** is seen in th between the olive and the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi. In the upper part of the me gradually becomes diffuse and disappears.

Except in the immediate vicinity of the raphe, the **formatio alba** may be said to be d cells. The mesial accessory olive, however, forms an isolated compact mass of gray matte its limits.

The nerve fibres which traverse the formatio reticularis run both in a tra and a longitudinal direction. The **transverse fibres** are the deep arcuate The **longitudinal fibres** are derived from different sources in the two fields. formatio grisea they represent to a large extent the fibres of the lateral col the cord, after the removal of the direct cerebellar and the crossed pyramidal They consist, therefore, of the fibres of the tract of Gowers and of fibres corre ing to the lateral basis-bundle of the cord. In the formatio alba the longit fibres are the tract of the fillet and the posterior longitudinal bundle, both o have already been sufficiently described.

Central Canal and the Gray Matter which surrounds it.—The centra as it proceeds upwards through the closed part of the medulla, is gradually to assume a more dorsal position, owing to the accumulation of fibres on its aspect. First the decussation of the pyramids, and then the decussation fillet, both of which take place in front of the canal, tend to push it back and the formation of the longitudinal strands in which these intercrossings (viz. the pyramid and the fillet), together with the continuation upwards anterior basis-bundle, lead to a great increase in the amount of tissue separates it from the anterior surface of the medulla. In the closed part medulla it is surrounded by a thick layer of gray matter, which is continuo

agus, glosso-pharyngeal, and auditory nerves lie in the lateral part of the The gray matter of the ventricular floor is covered by ependyma.

Areas of Flechsig.—In transverse sections, through the upper open part of the the root fibres of the hypoglossal and vagus nerves are seen traversing the substance of lla. The nucleus of origin of the hypoglossal is placed in the gray matter of the floor urth ventricle close to the mesial plane; the nucleus of the vagus is situated in the er of the ventricular floor immediately to the outer side of the hypoglossal nucleus. se nuclei the root-bundles of the two nerves diverge from each other as they are traced face and subdivide the substance of the medulla, as seen in transverse section, into the s of Flechsig, viz. an anterior, a lateral, and a posterior.

nterior area, which is bounded internally by the median raphe and externally by the al roots, presents within its limits: (*a*) the formatio alba; (*b*) the pyramid; (*c*) the the posterior longitudinal fasciculus; (*e*) the mesial accessory olivary nucleus; (*f*) the ucleus.

ateral area lies between the root fibres of the hypoglossal and those of the vagus. It (*a*) the inferior olivary nucleus; (*b*) the dorsal accessory olivary nucleus; (*c*) the nucleus (*d*) the nucleus ambiguus, or the motor nucleus of the vagus and glosso-pharyngeal *e*) the formatio reticularis grisea.

osterior area is situated behind the vagus roots, and within its limits are seen: (1) the body; (2) the upper part of the cuneate nucleus; (3) to the inner side of this a crowd ersely-cut bundles of fibres, loosely arranged and forming the descending root of the r part of the auditory nerve; (4) close to these, but placed more deeply, a round, com- l very conspicuous bundle of transversely-cut fibres, viz. the fasciculus solitarius, or ıg root of the vagus and glosso-pharyngeal nerves; (5) the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi, luced, with the large spinal root of the trigeminal nerve close to its outer side.

INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE PONS VAROLII.

en transverse sections are made through the pons, it is seen to be composed ıtral part and a dorsal or tegmental part. The **ventral part** is much the f the two, and, broadly speaking, it corresponds to the pyramidal portions nedulla and the pedal portions of the two crura cerebri, which lie above it and to issue from it. The dorsal **tegmental part** may be regarded as the con- on upwards of the formatio reticularis grisea and the formatio reticularis As these parts are traced upwards into the pons they become much modified, w constituents are added.

ntral Part of the Pons (pars basilaris pontis).—This constitutes the chief f the pons. It is composed of: (1) transverse fibres arranged in coarse s; (2) longitudinal fibres, gathered together in massive bundles; and (3) a mount of gray matter termed the **nucleus pontis**, which fills up the inter-

passing across upon the dorsal aspect of the latter. Laterally these trans fibres are collected together into one compact mass, which enters the white co core of the cerebellum and constitutes the **middle cerebellar peduncle.** A mesial plane the transverse fibres of the two sides of the ventral portion o pons intercross and form a coarse decussation.

The **gray matter** (the nucleus pontis) forms a considerable part of the b the ventral portion of the pons. It is packed into the intervals between the i secting transverse and longitudinal bundles.

There is a close analogy between the pyramidal portions of the medulla and the v part of the pons. In the medulla fine arcuate fibres on their way to the surface pass th the pyramids. Other superficial arcuate fibres sweep over the surface of the pyramids present a strong resemblance to the transverse fibres of the pons. They likewise the cerebellum, although by a different route, viz. the inferior cerebellar peduncle. nucleus pontis is also represented in the pyramidal part of the medulla by the a

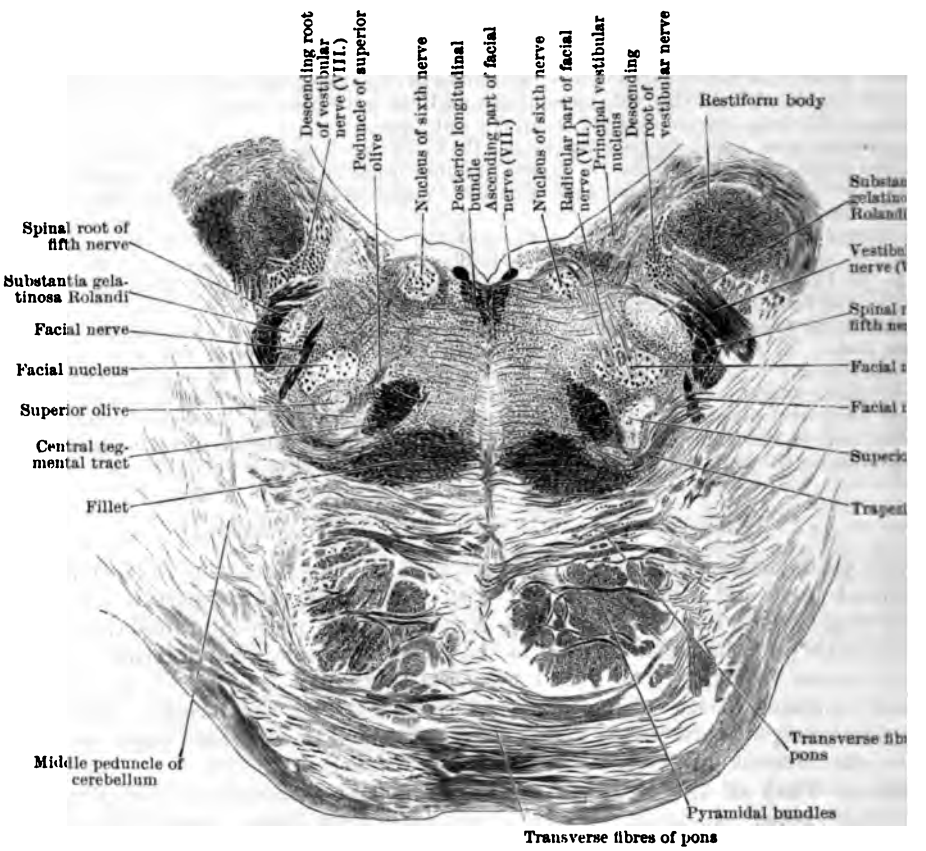


FIG. 403.—SECTION THROUGH THE LOWER PART OF THE HUMAN PONS VAROLII IMMEDIATELY A THE MEDULLA.

nuclei, which are covered over by the superficial arcuate fibres, and even tend to pen to a slight extent, into the pyramidal tracts. These arcuate nuclei, as already point are continuous with the nucleus pontis.

Connexions of the Longitudinal and Transverse Fibres.—Our knowle the connexions of the longitudinal and transverse fibres of the ventral part of the very far from being complete. When a transverse section through the upper part pons is compared with one close to its lower border, it becomes at once apparent th numerous scattered bundles of longitudinal fibres which enter the ventral part of th from above, if brought together into one tract, would form a strand very much large the two pyramids which leave its lower aspect and enter the medulla. It is clear, fore, that many of the longitudinal fibres which pass into the pons from above do n

t below into the medulla. What becomes of these fibres that are thus absorbed in

It is known that the pyramidal bundles suffer a small loss by the fibres which to the nuclei of origin of the efferent nerves which arise within the pons (viz. the t of the fifth, the sixth, and seventh nerve nuclei); but this loss is, comparatively trifling. It is clear, therefore, that other longitudinal bundles enter the pons e than those which form the pyramidal tracts. These bundles occupy a lateral l position in the ventral part of the pons, and may be termed the **cortico-pontine** ing that they come from the cerebral cortex and end in fine ramifications around of the nucleus pontis.

ansverse fibres are of two kinds, viz.: (1) those which arise in the cortex of the a; and (2) those which in in the nucleus pontis. er are the axons of certain ls of the cortex of the cere- ells of Purkinje). They fly from the lateral hemi- it also to some extent from an lobe of the cerebellum, the pons by the middle

They end in fine rami- around the cells of the ontis, some on the same e peduncle through which the pons, but the majority ay matter of the opposite

ansverse fibres which arise ns take origin as axons of of the nucleus pontis. he mesial plane, they enter e peduncle of the opposite thus reach the cerebellar here they end in ramifica- nd certain of the cortical e middle peduncle thus both efferent and afferent fibres, and no fibres pass sly through the pons from le peduncle into the other. tion to this view, Klimoff rs hold that the middle is composed solely of centri- afferent fibres, which pass nucleus pontis to the cere- Some of these fibres are nd others direct.

in of the transverse fibres ons turn backwards and e dorsal or tegmental part ons, but the precise con- f these are doubtful.

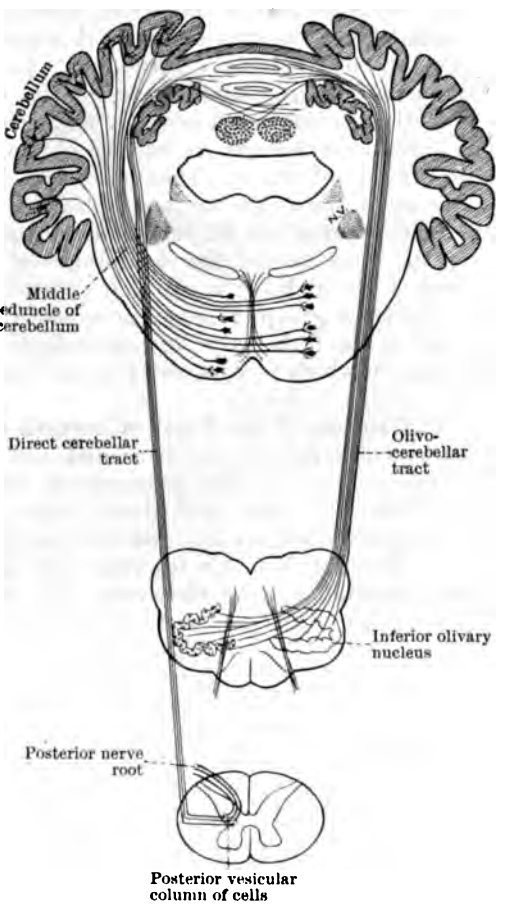


FIG. 404. — DIAGRAM TO SHOW CONNEXIONS OF THE DIRECT CEREBELLAR AND THE OLIVO-CEREBELLAR TRACTS. The connexions of the fibres of the middle peduncle of the cerebellum are likewise diagrammatically shown (from Edinger, modified).

us Trapezoides.—This name is applied to a group of transverse fibres averse the lower part of the pons (Fig. 405). They are quite distinct from hich have been just described as entering the middle peduncle of the m, and they lie in the boundary between the dorsal and ventral parts of , but encroaching considerably into the ground of the former. They arise cells of the terminal nucleus of the cochlear division of the auditory nerve, stitute a tract which establishes certain central connexions for that nerve. ll be more fully described when we treat of the cerebral connexions of the nerve.

al or Tegmental Part of the Pons (pars dorsalis pontis).—On the dorsal of the tegmental part of the pons there is spread a thick layer of gray

matter, covered by ependyma, which forms the floor of the upper or po part of the fourth ventricle. Beneath this the mesial raphe of the medu continued up into the pons, so as to divide its tegmental part into two symme halves.

In the *lower part of the pons*, immediately beyond the medulla, the rest body is placed on the outer side of the tegmental part (Fig. 403). In trans sections through the pons it appears as a large, massive oval strand of fibres w gradually inclines backwards into the cerebellum, and thus leaves the Between the restiform body and the median raphe the tegmental part of the is composed of formatio reticularis, continuous with the same material in medulla. Thus arcuate or transverse fibres, curving in towards the raphe, and longitudinal fibres, are seen breaking through a mass of gray matter which occ the interstices of the intersecting fibres. To the naked eye the formatio reticu presents a uniform gray appearance, but its constituent parts are revealed by powers of the microscope in properly-stained and prepared specimens. Embed in this formatio reticularis are various clumps of compact gray matter and cer definite strands of fibres. These we shall describe as we pass from the restif body inwards towards the median raphe.

(1) **Spinal root of the trigeminal nerve and the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi.** Close to the inner side of the restiform body, but separated from it by the ve bular root of the auditory nerve as it proceeds backwards through the pons, is s a large crescentic group of coarse transversely-divided bundles of fibres. This is spinal root of the fifth nerve, and applied to its inner concave side is a small m of gray matter, which is the direct continuation upwards of the substantia gelatin Rolandi.

(2) The **nucleus of the facial or seventh nerve** comes next. It is sunk dee in the tegmental part of the pons and lies close to the transverse fibres of corpus trapezoides. It is a conspicuous, obliquely placed, ovoid clump of g matter. From its outer and dorsal aspect the root-fibres of the facial ne stream backwards and inwards towards the gray matter on the floor of the fou ventricle. Passing forwards between this nucleus and the substantia Rolandi solid nerve-bundle may be observed. This is the facial nerve, traversing the p towards its place of emergence from the brain.

(3) Immediately internal to the facial nucleus, but placed more deeply in t tegmental part of the pons, is the **superior olivary nucleus** (nucleus olivaris superi It lies in a bay formed for it by the transverse fibres of the corpus trapezoid These fibres curve round its ventral aspect, and many of them may be observed pe trating into its substance. In man it is a very small mass of gray matter, a presents little resemblance to the inferior olivary nucleus, except in the size a shape of its constituent cells. In sections through the part of the pons where attains its greatest size, it appears in the form of two, or it may be three, sm isolated masses of gray matter. It is intimately connected with the trape fibres, many of which end in it, whilst others take origin within it.

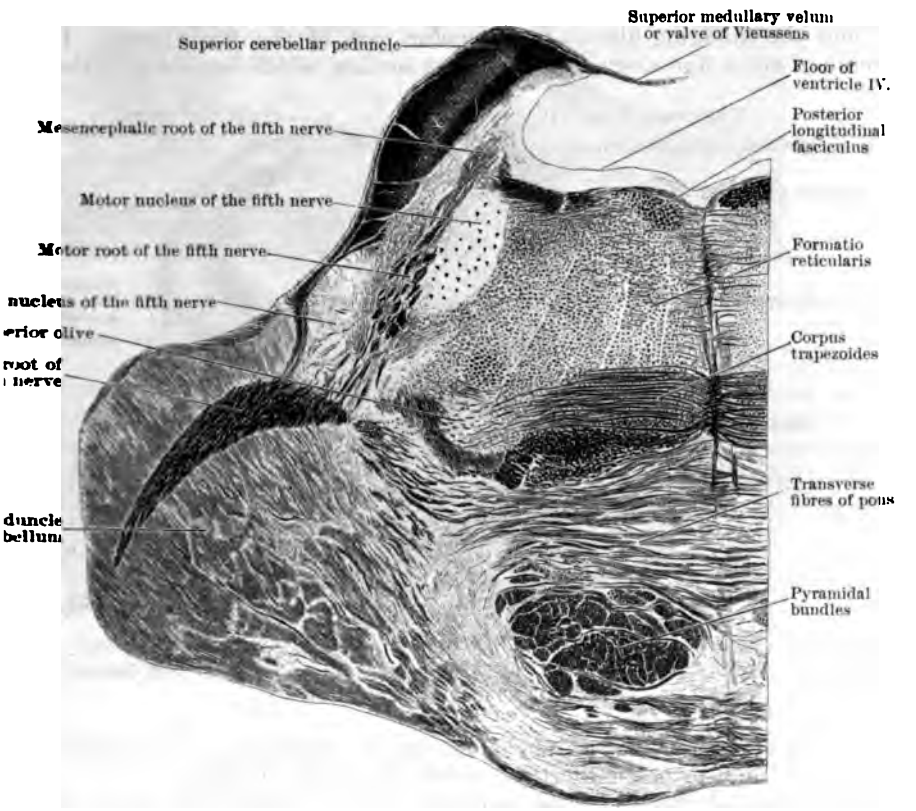
Upon the inner and dorsal aspect of the superior olive there is a dense group of longitudi fibres. These constitute the **central tegmental tract**; but as precise information in regard its connexions is still to a large extent wanting, it is not necessary to do more than indicate position.

(4) The **posterior longitudinal bundle** and the **fillet** come next. As they proce upwards through the tegmental part of the pons, these longitudinal tracts occu the same relative position as in the medulla. They are placed close to the medi raphe: but they have drawn further apart from each other, and their fibres more distinctly concentrated into separate strands, with an interval of some lit width between them. The **posterior longitudinal bundle** lies immediately und cover of the gray matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle. The **fillet** is plac close to the trapezial fibres, many of which traverse it as they pass towards t mesial plane.

(5) The **nucleus of the sixth nerve** also forms a conspicuous object in sectio through the lower part of the pons. It is a round mass of gray matter, which situated close to the outer side of the posterior longitudinal bundle, and immediate

over of the gray matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle. From its inner merous root-bundles of the sixth nerve pass out and proceed forwards the fillet and the superior olivary nucleus. They occupy in the pons, re, a position similar to that occupied by the hypoglossal root-fibres in the a.

to the present only the lower part of the tegmental portion of the pons en described, *i.e.* the portion immediately adjoining the medulla. As we upwards and gain a point *above the level of the trapezial fibres*, many of uctures which have attracted attention lower down gradually disappear ne formatio reticularis. The posterior longitudinal bundle, the fillet, and nal root of the fifth nerve, however, are still carried upwards. Further, the



405.—Transverse Section through the Pons Varolii at the Level of the Nuclei of the Trigeminal Nerve (Orang).

of the fourth ventricle becomes narrower, and other objects appear in the ental substance.

ne **superior cerebellar peduncle** (brachium conjunctivum) is a very con- ous object, in sections, through the middle and upper parts of the pons. In erse section it presents a semilunar outline, and as it emerges from the llum it lies immediately on the outer side of the fourth ventricle, towards its concave aspect is turned (Fig. 405). Its dorsal border is joined with the ponding peduncle of the opposite by the thin lamina of white matter, d the superior medullary velum, whilst its ventral border is sunk to a small t in the dorsal part of the pons. As it is traced upwards it sinks deeper and r into the pons until it becomes completely submerged, with the exception e posterior border to which the superior velum is attached. It now lies on ater side of the tegmental or reticular substance of the pons, and this position intains until the mesencephalon is reached (Fig. 406).

bout *half-way up the pons* the nuclei of the trigeminal or fifth cranial nerve a very important stage in its tegmental portion. These nuclei are two in

number on each side, viz. a large oval terminal nucleus for certain of the sen fibres of the nerve and a nucleus of origin equally conspicuous for certain of motor fibres (Fig. 405). The **sensory nucleus** lies close to the outer surface of pons, deeply sunk in its tegmental part, and in the interval between the subm anterior border of the superior cerebellar peduncle and the ventral part of the p The **motor nucleus** is placed on the inner side of the sensory nucleus, but somew nearer the dorsal surface of the pons. At this level the spinal root of the f nerve disappears by joining the fibres of the sensory portion. The sensory motor roots of the fifth nerve traverse the ventral part of the pons on their to and from the region of the nuclei.

Above the level of the nuclei of the trigeminal nerve a new tract of fi comes into view. This is the **mesencephalic root** of the fifth nerve, as it desc to join the emerging fibres of the motor part of the fifth nerve. It is a s bundle of nerve fibres, semilunar in cross section, which lies close to the inner s

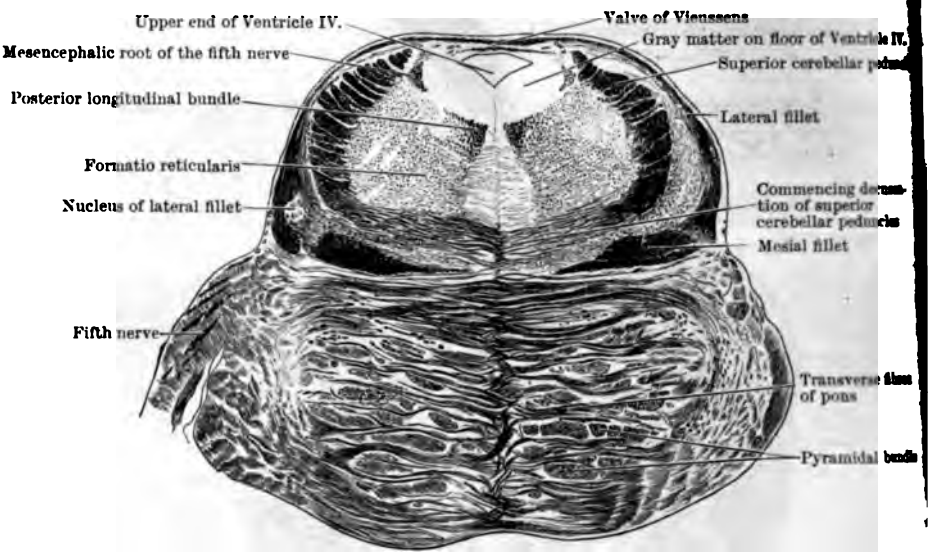


FIG. 406.—SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER PART OF THE PONS VAROLII OF THE ORANG, ABOVE THE LEVEL OF THE TRIGEMINAL NUCLEI.

of the superior cerebellar peduncle and on the outer and deep aspect of the gray matter on the floor of the fourth ventricle (Figs. 406 and 407).

On a slightly deeper plane than the mesencephalic root of the fifth nerve, between it and the posterior longitudinal bundle, and in close relation to the gray matter of the floor of the ventricle, is the collection of pigmented cells which constitutes the **substantia ferruginea.**

The **posterior longitudinal bundle,** as it is traced upwards through the tegmental part of the pons, maintains the same position throughout, and as it ascends it becomes more clearly mapped out as a definite and distinct tract. It lies close to the mesial raphe, and immediately subjacent to the gray matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle.

The **fillet** as it ascends through the tegmental part of the pons undergoes striking changes in shape. In the lower portion of the pons its fibres, which in the medulla are spread out along the side of the median raphe, are collected together in the form of a loose bundle, which occupies a wide field, somewhat triangular in shape, on either side of the median raphe and immediately behind the ventral portion of the pons. As it proceeds up, the fibres spread out laterally until a compact ribbon-like layer is formed in the interval between the tegmental and ventral portions of the pons. This constitutes what is termed the **mesial fillet** (Figs. 406 and 407).

Above the level of the trigeminal nuclei another flattened layer of fibres comes

into view to the outer side of the mesial fillet. To this the name of **lateral fillet** is given. These fibres spread outwards and backwards, and finally take up a position on the outer surface of the superior cerebellar peduncle. In the angle between the mesial and lateral fillets a little knot of compact gray matter, termed the **lateral**

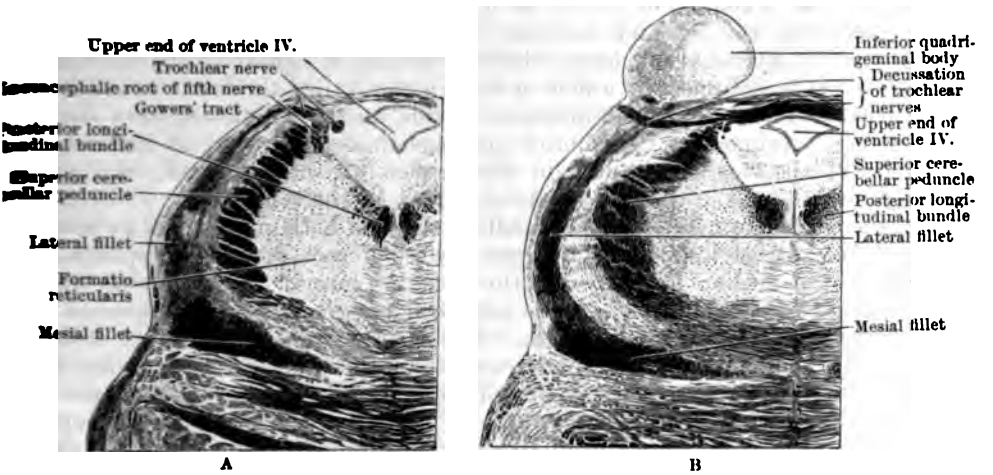


FIG. 407.—TWO SECTIONS THROUGH THE TEGMENTUM OF THE PONS AT ITS UPPER PART, CLOSE TO THE MESENCEPHALON.

A is at a slightly lower level than B.

fillet nucleus, comes into view (Fig. 406). This appears to be in more or less direct continuity with the superior olivary nucleus. Many of the fibres of the lateral fillet take origin in this nucleus. Bruce has called attention to the continuity between the superior olive and the lateral fillet nucleus in man, and the writer can confirm his statement in so far as the orang brain is concerned.

THE CEREBELLUM.

The **cerebellum** lies behind the pons Varolii and the medulla oblongata, and below the hinder portions of the cerebral hemispheres. From the latter it is

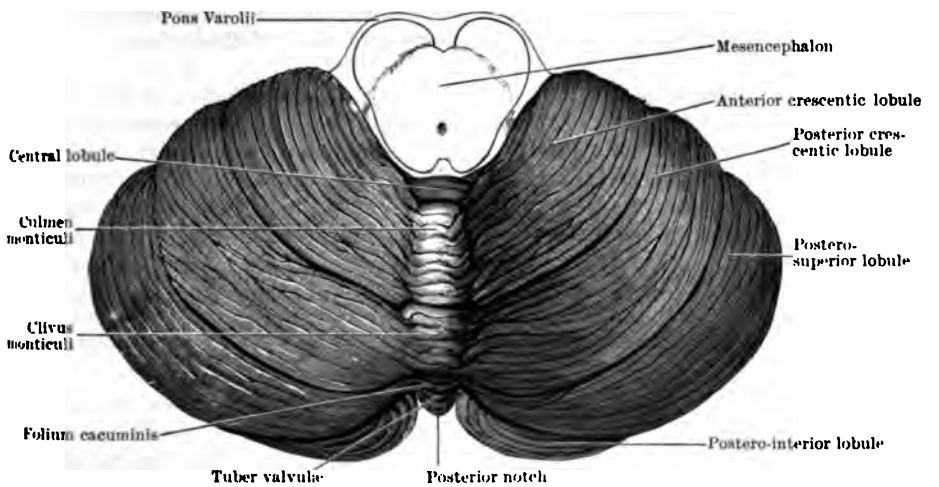


FIG. 408.—UPPER SURFACE OF THE CEREBELLUM.

separated by an intervening partition of dura mater, termed the tentorium cerebelli. It is distinguished by the numerous parallel and more or less curved sulci, which traverse its surface and give it a foliated or laminated appearance. It is composed of a cortex of gray matter (substantia corticalis) spread over its surface, with white matter in the interior, forming a central core (corpus medullare).

The cerebellum is subdivided somewhat arbitrarily into a median port termed the **vermis**, and two much larger lateral portions, called the **lateral he spheres** (hemisphæria cerebelli). The demarcation between these main subdivisi of the organ is not very evident from every point of view. In front, and s behind, there is a marked deficiency or notch. The **posterior notch** (incisura ce belli posterior) is smaller and narrower than the anterior notch. It is bound laterally by the lateral hemispheres, whilst its bottom is formed by the median l or vermis. It is occupied by a fold of dura mater, called the falx cerebelli. T **anterior notch** (incisura cerebelli anterior) is wide, and, when viewed from above, is seen to be occupied by the inferior quadrigeminal bodies and by the super peduncles of the cerebellum. As in the case of the hinder notch, its sides a formed by the lateral hemispheres and the bottom by the vermis.

On the superior surface of the cerebellum there is little distinction to be not between the median lobe and the upper surface of each lateral hemisphere. this aspect the median lobe receives the name of **superior vermis**, and it form high median elevation, from which the surface slopes gradually downwards on e side to the margin of the hemisphere. The superior vermis is highest in fr immediately behind the anterior notch, and from this it shows a somewhat sh descent towards the posterior notch. This elevation of the superior worm frequently called the monticulus cerebelli. The folia on the surface of the supe vermis are thicker and fewer in number than those on the upper surface of lateral hemisphere. It is this which gives it the worm-like appearance from wh it derives its name.

On the inferior surface of the cerebellum the distinction between the three m constituent parts of the organ is much better marked (Fig. 409). On this asp the lateral hemispheres are full, prominent, and convex, and occupy the cerebe fossæ in the floor of the cranium. They are separated by a deep mesial holl which is continued forwards from the posterior notch. This hollow is termed **vallecula cerebelli**, and in its fore-part is lodged the medulla oblongata. When medulla is raised and the lateral hemispheres are pulled apart, so as to expose bottom of the vallecula, it will be seen that this is formed by the **vermis infe** or inferior aspect of the median lobe, and, further, that the latter is separated each side from the corresponding lateral hemisphere by a distinct furrow, ter the **sulcus valleculæ**.

Sulci Cerebelli.—Certain of the fissures which traverse the surface of cerebellum are deeper and longer than the others, and they map out districts wh are termed lobes. One of the most conspicuous of these clefts is the great horizon fissure.

The **great horizontal fissure** (sulcus horizontalis cerebelli) of the cerebell begins in front and passes continuously round the circumference of the org cutting deeply into its outer and posterior margins. In front, its lips diverge enclose the three cerebellar peduncles as they pass into the interior of cerebellum. The great horizontal fissure divides the organ into an upper an lower part, which may be studied separately.

The prominence which is accorded to the great horizontal fissure in descriptive anatom not justified by its developmental history and morphological status. It is very late in mak its appearance in the fœtal cerebellum, and not infrequently the part of the fissure on the side fails to establish a continuity across the vermis with the part of the fissure on the o side of the organ.

Lobes on the Upper Surface of the Cerebellum.—When examined fr before backwards, the superior vermis presents the following subdivisions: (1) **lingula**; (2) the **central lobule** (lobulus centralis); (3) the **culmen monticuli**: (4) **clivus monticuli**: (5) the **folium cacuminis** (folium vermis). With the exception the lingula, each of these is continuous on either side, with a corresponding dist on the upper surface of the hemisphere, thereby forming a cerebellar lobe. T the central lobule is prolonged outwards on either side in the form of a sm flattened, wing-like expansion called the **ala**; the culmen constitutes the mec connecting piece between the two **anterior crescentic lobules** of the hemisphe the clivus stands in the same relation to the two **posterior crescentic lobules**;

folium cacuminis is the connecting band between the **postero-superior lobules** of the hemispheres.

It should be noted that this subdivision of the upper surface of the cerebellum is to some extent conventional, and in certain particulars receives little support from morphological data.

The lingula can only be seen when the part of the cerebellum which forms the bottom of the anterior notch is pushed backwards. It consists of four or five small flat folia continuous with the gray matter of the vermis superior, which are prolonged forwards on the upper surface of the superior medullary velum in the interval between the two superior cerebellar peduncles.

Lobus Centralis with its Alæ.—The lobulus centralis lies at the bottom of the anterior cerebellar notch, and is only seen to a very small extent on the upper surface of the organ. It is a little median mass which laterally is prolonged outwards for a short distance round the anterior notch in the form of two expansions, termed the alæ.

Lobus Culminis.—The culmen monticuli constitutes the highest part or summit of the monticulus of the vermis superior. It is bounded behind by a deep and strongly marked fissure called the **fissura prima** (Elliot Smith), and is prolonged outwards on either side into the lateral hemisphere as the **anterior crescentic lobule.** This is the most anterior subdivision on the upper surface of the hemisphere. The two anterior crescentic lobules, with the culmen monticuli, form the **lobus culminis cerebelli.**

Lobus Clivi.—The clivus monticuli lies behind the culmen, from which it is separated by the fissura prima, and it forms the sloping part or descent of the monticulus of the vermis superior. On each side it is continuous with the **posterior crescentic lobule** of the lateral hemisphere, and the three parts are included under the one name of **lobus clivi.**

The two crescentic lobules on the upper surface of the hemisphere are sometimes classed together and described as the **lobulus quadrangularis.** They are separated from each other by a lateral extension on the upper surface of the hemisphere of the fissura prima, whilst the posterior crescentic lobule is bounded behind by a curved sulcus termed by Elliot Smith the **fissura postlunata.** The union of the two postlunate furrows across the vermis separates the clivus from the folium cacuminis, but in many cases this junction fails to take place.

Lobus Cacuminis.—The folium cacuminis forms the most posterior part of the vermis superior, and when the right and left portions of the great horizontal fissure are continuous across the vermis it bounds that fissure superiorly at the posterior notch. It is a single folium, subject to considerable variation in the degree of its development, and its surface may be smooth or beset with rudimentary secondary folia. It is the median connecting link between the two **postero-superior lobules** of the hemispheres, the three parts forming the **lobus cacuminis.** As the folium cacuminis is traced outwards into the postero-superior lobule, it is found to expand greatly, and as a result of this the postero-superior lobule on each side forms an extensive foliated district bounding the great horizontal fissure above.

Lobes on the Under Surface of the Cerebellum.—The connexion between the several parts of the inferior vermis and the corresponding districts on the under surface of the two hemispheres is not so distinct as in the case of the vermis superior and the lobules on the upper surface of the hemispheres. A groove, the **sulcus vallecula**, intervenes between the vermis inferior and the hemisphere on each side.

From behind forwards the following subdivisions of the vermis inferior may be recognised: (1) the **tuber valvulæ** (tuber vermis); (2) the **pyramid** (pyramis); (3) the **uvula**; (4) the **nodule** (nodulus).

On the under surface of the hemisphere there are four main lobules mapped out by intervening fissures. From behind forwards these are: (1) the **postero-inferior lobule**, a large subdivision which bounds the great horizontal fissure on its under aspect; (2) the **biventral lobule** (lobulus biventer) which lies in front of the postero-inferior lobule, and is partially divided into two parts by a curved fissure which traverses its surface; (3) the **tonsil** or **amygdala** (tonsilla), a small rounded lobule which bounds the fore-part of the vallecula, and is lodged in a deep concavity on

the inner aspect of the biventral lobule; (4) the **flocculus**, a minute lobule situated on the middle peduncle of the cerebellum in front of, and partially overlapped by, the anterior border of the biventral lobule.

These lobules, with the corresponding portions of the vermis inferior, constitute the lobes on the under surface of the cerebellum. Still, it should be noted that, just as in the case of the upper surface of the organ, this subdivision is to some extent artificial, and is not in every particular provided with a sound morphological basis.

Lobus Tuberis.—The tuber valvulæ, which forms the most posterior part of the vermis inferior, is composed of several transversely arranged folia which, on either side, run directly into the postero-inferior lobule. The three parts of the lobus tuberis are thus linked together.

The postero-inferior lobule, which is wider towards the vallecula than it is further out, is traversed by two or it may be three curved fissures. The most anterior of these cuts off a narrow, curved strip of cerebellar surface, which presents a more or less uniform width throughout its whole length. This is the so-called **lobulus gracilis.**

Lobus Pyramidis.—The pyramid is connected with the biventral lobule on each side by an elevated ridge which crosses the sulcus valleculæ. The term lobus pyramidis is applied to the three lobules, which are thus associated with each other.

The pyramid is separated from the tuber valvulæ by a deep furrow which has been termed by Elliot Smith the **suprapyramidal fissure.** It is in a measure continuous with the curved fissure, which on the under surface of the hemisphere intervenes between the biventral lobule and the lobulus gracilis or fore part of the postero-inferior lobule. The name applied to the latter fissure by Elliot Smith is **fissura parapyramidalis.**

Lobus Uvulæ.—The uvula is a triangular elevation of the vermis inferior. It lies between the two tonsils, and is connected with each of these by a low-lying

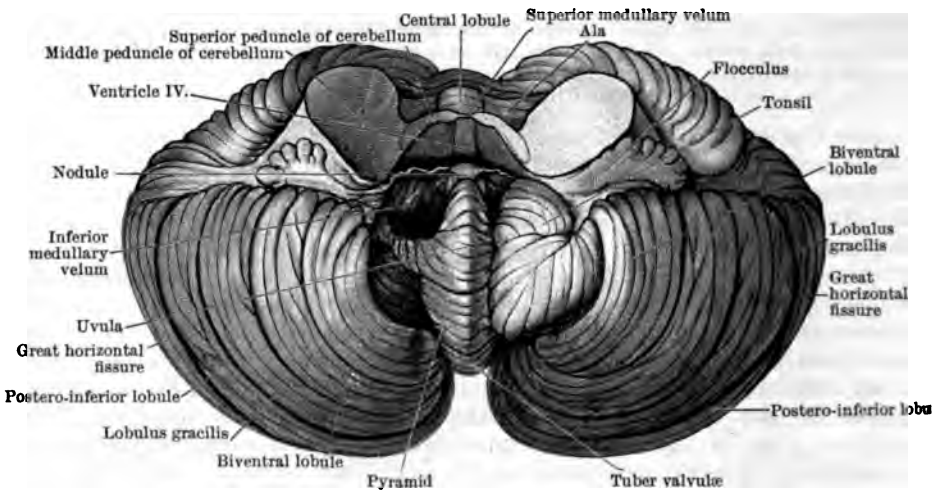


FIG. 409.—LOWER SURFACE OF THE CEREBELLUM.

The tonsil on the right side has been removed so as to display more fully the inferior medullary velum and the furrowed band.

band-like ridge of gray matter scored by a few shallow furrows, and in consequence termed the **furrowed band.** The two tonsils and the uvula form the lobus uvulæ.

Between the pyramid and the uvula there is a deep cleft which may be termed the **infra-pyramidal fissure** (the fissura secunda of Elliot Smith). This is more or less directly connected with the **retrotonsillar fissure** which curves round the tonsil. The large size of the tonsil is characteristic of the brain of man and the anthropoid apes.

Lobus Noduli.—The lobus noduli comprises the nodule and the flocculus on each side, with a delicate connecting lamina of white matter termed the **inferior medullary velum.**

The cleft between the nodule and the uvula is termed the **postnodular fissure** (Elliot Smith); that between the flocculus and the biventral lobule is called the **floccular fissure.**

The flocculus will usually be observed to be partially divided into two pieces. The smaller inferior portion, which, as a rule, is completely overlapped by the overhanging edge of the biventral lobule, is the **paraflocculus.** This assumes very large proportions in certain of the lower mammals.

Arrangement of the Gray and White Matter of the Cerebellum.—The white matter of the cerebellum forms a solid compact mass in the interior, and over this is spread a continuous and uniform layer of gray matter. In each lateral hemisphere the white central core is more bulky than in the median lobe or worm, in which the central white matter is reduced to a relatively thin bridge thrown across between the two lateral hemispheres. The white matter in the interior of the median lobe or worm is termed the **corpus trapezoides.** When sagittal sections are made through the cerebellum, the gray matter on the surface stands out clearly from the white matter in the interior. Further, from all parts of the surface of

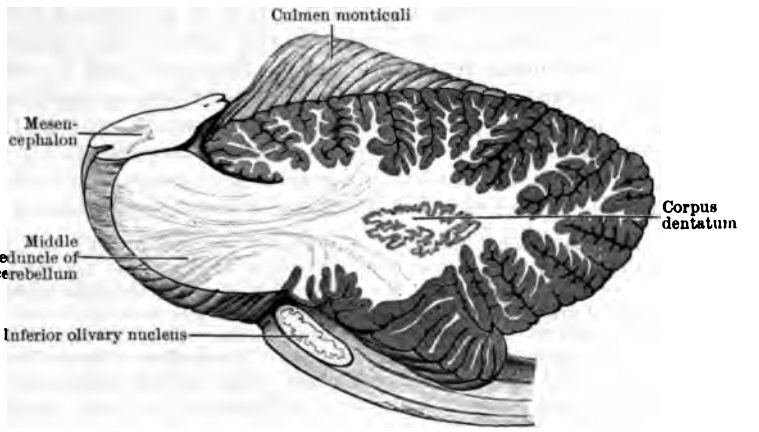


FIG. 410.—SAGITTAL SECTION THROUGH THE LEFT LATERAL HEMISPHERE OF THE CEREBELLUM,

Showing the "arbor vitæ" and the corpus dentatum.

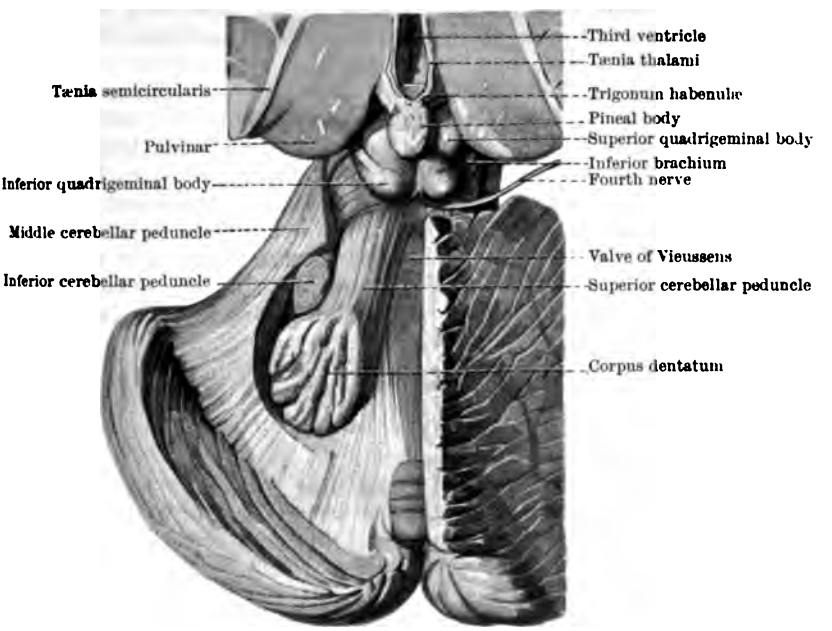


FIG. 411.—From a dissection by Dr. Edward B. Jamieson in the Anatomical Department of the University of Edinburgh. The corpus dentatum is displayed from above and the superior cerebellar peduncle has been traced from it to the mesencephalon.

the central core stout stems of white matter are seen projecting into the lobes of the cerebellum. From the sides of these white stems secondary branches proceed

at various angles, and from these again tertiary branches are given off. Over the various lamellæ of white matter thus formed the gray cortex is spread, and the fissures on the surface show a corresponding arrangement, dividing up the organ into lobes, lobules, and folia. When the cerebellum is divided at right angles to the general direction of its fissures and folia, a highly arborescent appearance is thus presented by the cut surface. To this the term **arbor vitæ cerebelli** is applied.

Corpus Dentatum and other Gray Nuclei in the White Matter of the Cerebellum.—Embedded in the midst of the mass of white matter which forms the central core of each lateral hemisphere there is an isolated nucleus of gray matter which presents a strong resemblance to the inferior olivary nucleus of the medulla. It is called the **corpus dentatum** (nucleus dentatus), and it consists of a corrugated or plicated lamina of gray matter, which is folded on itself so as to enclose, in a flask-like manner, a portion of the central white matter (Figs. 410 and 411). This gray capsule is not completely closed. It presents an open mouth, termed the hilum, which is directed inwards and upwards, and out of this stream the great majority of the fibres of the superior cerebellar peduncle.

Three small additional masses of gray matter are also present on either side of the mesial plane in the central white matter of the cerebellum. These are termed the **nucleus emboliformis**, the **nucleus globosus**, and the **nucleus fastigii**. The **nucleus emboliformis** or **embolus** is a small lamina of gray matter which lies immediately internal to the hilum of the corpus dentatum, being thus related to it somewhat in the same manner that the mesial accessory olivary nucleus is related to the main inferior olivary nucleus. The **nucleus globosus** lies internal to the embolus and on a somewhat deeper horizontal plane. The **nucleus fastigii** or **roof nucleus** is placed in the white substance of the worm (corpus trapezoides) close to the mesial plane and its fellow of the opposite side. It is, therefore, situated on the mesial aspect of the nucleus globosus.

Although isolated from the gray matter of the surface, these small nuclei and the corpus dentatum are connected at certain points with each other. The corpus dentatum and the embolus present a structure very similar to that of the inferior olivary nucleus. In the nucleus globosus and the nucleus fastigii the cells are somewhat larger in size.

Cerebellar Peduncles.—These are three in number on each side, viz. the middle, the inferior, and the superior (Fig. 391, p. 487). The fibres of which they are composed all enter or emerge from the white medullary centre of the cerebellum.

The **middle peduncle** is much the largest of the three, and has already been described on pp. 486 and 501. It is formed by the transverse fibres of the pons, and it enters the cerebellar hemisphere on the outer aspect of the other two peduncles. The lips of the anterior part of the great horizontal fissure are separated widely from each other to give it admission (Fig. 409). Within the cerebellar hemisphere its fibres are distributed in two great bundles. Of these, one, composed of the upper transverse fibres of the pons, radiates out in the lower part of the hemisphere; whilst the other, consisting of the lower transverse fibres of the pons, spreads out in the upper part of the hemisphere.

The **inferior peduncle** is simply the restiform body of the medulla. After leaving the medulla it ascends for a short distance on the dorsal surface of the pons and then turns sharply backwards, to enter the cerebellum between the other two peduncles.

The **superior peduncle**, as it issues from the cerebellum, lies close to the inner side of the middle peduncle (Fig. 409). Its further course upwards on the dorsum of the pons to the inferior quadrigeminal body has been previously described (pp. 486 and 503).

Connexions established by the Peduncular Fibres.—The fibres of the **middle peduncle** are both afferent and efferent. The connexions which they establish in the pons are described on p. 501. The efferent fibres arise from cells in the gray cortex of the lateral hemisphere (also probably to some small extent in the cortex of the vermis), and end in connexion with the cells of the nucleus pontis, and likewise in the tegmental part of the pons. The afferent fibres, arising in the pons, end in the gray cortex of the lateral hemisphere of the cerebellum, and perhaps also in the cortex of the worm.

The **inferior peduncle** is also composed of afferent and efferent fibres (see p. 496); only the more important connexions which these establish in the cerebellum can be touched on here. The principal afferent strand is the *direct cerebellar tract*. The fibres of this strand end in the cortex of the superior worm on both sides of the mesial plane, but chiefly on the opposite side. The *cerebello-olivary fibres* are also probably afferent. It

ears that they end in connexion with cells in the cortex of both the worm and hemi-ere, and also cells in the nucleus dentatus. The numerous *arcuate fibres* which enter inferior peduncle establish connexions with cells in the cortex of the lateral hemisphere of the worm.

The superior peduncle is an efferent tract. The majority of its fibres come from cells of the nucleus dentatus, whilst a small proportion appear to come from the cere-llar cortex. According to Risien Russell, the fibres which form the dorsal edge of the come from the opposite side of the cerebellum and cross the mesial plane to join the duncle.

Our knowledge of the connexions of the peduncles of the cerebellum has been greatly ended by Ferrier and Aldren Turner; and the account which is given above, and also at 501, is largely derived from their memoir on this subject.

Commissural and Association Fibres.—In addition to those fibres of the white edullary centre which belong to the system of peduncles, there are others which have clusively cerebellar connexions. Thus the various folia are bound together by numerous sociation fibres, which pass from one folium into another around the bottom of the inter-ening fissure. Tracts of transversely-directed **commissural fibres** cross the mesial plane the white centre of the vermis, connecting corresponding parts of opposite sides. These, some measure, are analogous to the corpus callosum of the cerebrum. The **roof nuclei** re also closely bound by connecting fibres with the cortex.

Medullary Vela.—The medullary vela are closely associated with the cerebellar eduncles. They consist of two thin laminæ of white matter, which are projected ut from the white central core of the cerebellum.

The **superior medullary velum** is described on p. 486. Laterally, it is continuous ith the dorsal edges of the superior cerebellar peduncles; whilst, inferiorly, it s prolonged downwards and backwards under the lingula and the central lobule of he superior worm, to become continuous with the central white matter or corpus rapezoides of the worm.

The **inferior medullary velum** is more complicated in its connexions. It presents uch the same relations to the nodule of the inferior vermiform process that the uperior velum presents to the lingula of the superior vermiform process. It is a ide thin lamina of white matter—so thin that it is translucent—which is pro-onged out from the white centre of the cerebellum above the nodule. From the nodule it stretches outwards to the flocculus on each side, thereby bringing these hree small portions of the cerebellum into association with each other (Fig. 409). Where it issues from the white matter of the cerebellum it is in contact with the uperior medullary velum, but, as the two laminæ are traced forwards, they iverge from each other. The superior velum is carried upwards between the wo superior cerebellar peduncles, whilst the inferior medullary velum is curved orwards and then downwards round the nodule, and ends at a variable point in free, slightly thickened, crescentic edge. The cavity of the fourth ventricle carried backwards into the cerebellum between the two vela, which thus form peaked and tent-like roof for it.

Relation of the Tract of Gowers to the Superior Medullary Velum.—The scending tract of Gowers has been noticed in connexion with the lateral column of the ord (p. 469). The fibres which compose it are carried upwards through the formatio eticularis grisea of the medulla and the corresponding part of the tegmental portion of he pons. In this part of its course the fibres are scattered and do not form a compact trand. Reaching the upper end of the pons the tract turns backwards, enters the uperior medullary velum, and proceeds downwards in it into the cerebellum.

Roof of the Fourth Ventricle.—In its upper part the roof of the fourth ventricle is formed by the superior medullary velum as it stretches across between the two superior cerebellar peduncles, and also, to some extent, by the approximation of these peduncles themselves as they approach the mesencephalon.

In its lower part the roof of the ventricle is exceedingly thin and is not all formed of nervous matter. The inferior medullary velum enters into its formation, and, where this fails, the epithelial lining of the cavity, supported by pia mater, is carried downwards towards the lower boundaries of the floor of the ventricle. At the lowest part of the calamus scriptorius, and also along each lateral boundary of

the floor, a thin lamina of white matter is carried for a short distance over epithelial roof. The small semilunar lamina which stretches across between lower parts of the two clavæ at the calamus scriptorius and overhangs the ope

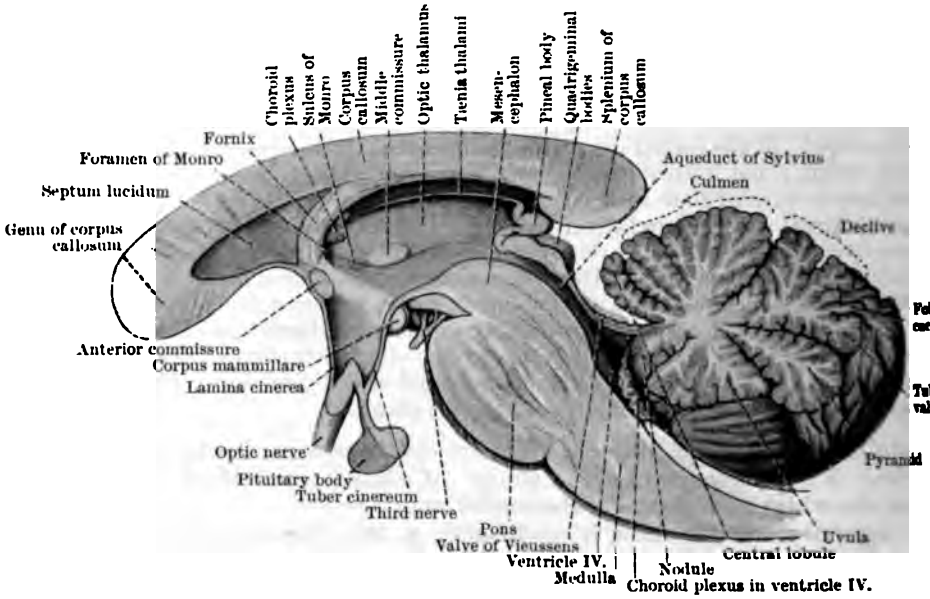


FIG. 412. - MESIAL SECTION THROUGH THE CORPUS CALLOSUM, THE MESENCEPHALON, THE PONS, MEDULLA, AND CEREBELLUM.

Showing the third and fourth ventricles joined by the aqueduct of Sylvius.

of the central canal is termed the **obex** (Fig. 391, p. 487). The lamina in connexion with the lateral boundary of the ventricular floor is more extensive, and is called the **ligula** (Figs. 388 and 390). It begins on the clava and passes upwards over the cuneate tubercle to the restiform body. On the outer surface of the restiform body it turns outwards so as to bound the lateral recess of the ventricle below, and in some cases it may be seen to become continuous around the extremity of the lateral recess with the inferior medullary velum.

A short distance above the calamus scriptorius there is, in the mesial plane, an opening in the epithelial and pial roof of the ventricle, by which the cavity of the ventricle communicates with the subarachnoid space. This opening is termed the **foramen of Majendie**. There is also an aperture of a similar nature in the epithelial and pial roof at the extremity of each lateral recess.

Two **choroid plexuses**, or highly vascular infoldings of the pia mater, invaginate the lower part of the roof of the fourth ventricle. These are placed one on either side of the mesial plane, and, although they appear to lie within the cavity, they are in reality excluded from it by the epithelial lining of the ventricle, which covers over and is adapted to every sinuosity on their surface.

Two lateral offshoots from these longitudinal choroid plexuses proceed outwards, and protrude in a similar manner into the lateral recesses.

MINUTE STRUCTURE OF A CEREBELLAR FOLIUM.

A cerebellar folium is composed of a central core of white matter, covered by a layer of gray matter. The gray cortex is arranged in two very evident layers, viz. a superficial **molecular layer** and a subjacent rust-coloured **granular layer**. Between these strata a single layer of large cells, termed the **cells of Purkinje**, are disposed in the form of a very nearly continuous sheet. The cells of Purkinje constitute the most characteristic, and probably the most essential, constituents of the cerebellar cortex.

The **cells of Purkinje** are most numerous on the summit of the folium. At the bottom of the sulci which intervene between the folia they become fewer in number, and, therefore, looser in their arrangement. Each consists of a large flask-shaped or pyriform

l body, the narrow end of which projects into the molecular layer, whilst the thicker, per end rests on the granular layer. From the latter arises a **single axon**, which passes to the granular layer and presents the peculiarity of almost immediately assuming its edullary sheath. From this axon a few collateral branches soon arise, which, taking a current course, enter the molecular layer, to end in connexion with certain of the joining cells of Purkinje. They would seem to have the function of binding together djacent cells, and thus nabling them to carry on eir operations in harmony ith each other.

The **dendritic processes** pring from the narrow end f the cell either in the form f one or perhaps two stout talks. These ascend into he molecular layer, branching and rebranching until an aborescent arrangement of extraordinary richness and extent results. The dendritic branches extend throughout the entire thickness of the molecular layer, and the branching takes place in one plane only, viz. in a plane which is transverse to the long axis of the folium. Consequently, it is only when transverse sections are made through a folium that the full dendritic effect is obtained; in sections made parallel to the long axis of the folium the cells are seen in profile, and are observed to occupy quite a narrow area (Fig. 414). The branching of the dendrites of a cell of Purkinje may, therefore, be compared to that which takes place in the case of a fruit-tree which is trained against a wall.

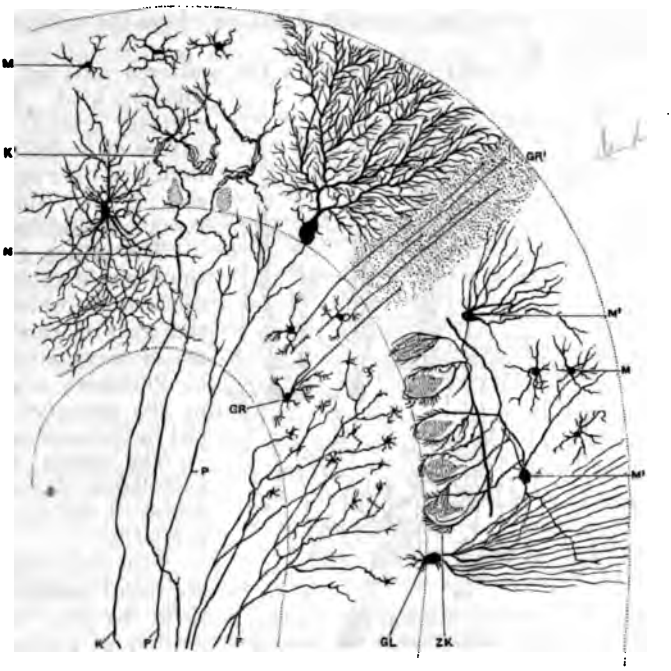


FIG. 413.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH A CEREBELLAR FOLIUM (after Kölliker).

Treated by the Golgi method.

P. Axon of cell of Purkinje.
F. Moss fibres.
K and K¹. Fibres from white core of folium ending in molecular layer in connexion with the dendrites of the cells of Purkinje.
M. Small cell of the molecular layer.
GR. Granule cell.
GR¹. Axons of granule cells in molecular layer cut transversely.
M¹. Basket-cells.
ZK. Basket-work around the cells of Purkinje.
GL. Neuroglial cell.
N. Axon of an association cell.

In the **molecular layer** the cells are not particularly numerous, and of these the most characteristic are the **basket-cells** which lie in the deeper part of the layer. In addition to numerous dendrites the basket-cell gives off an axon which runs transversely, as regards the long axis of the folium, between the planes of adjacent dendritic arborisations of the cells of Purkinje. At first very fine these axons gradually become coarse and thick, and at intervals they give off collaterals which run towards the bodies of the cells of Purkinje. Reaching these, they break up into an enormous number of fine terminal branches, which enclose the cells of Purkinje, as well as the short non-medullated portions of their axons, in a close basket-work of fine filaments.

The **granular layer** is, for the most part, composed of large numbers of small granule-like bodies closely packed together. Each of these possesses a somewhat large nucleus, with a very small amount of surrounding protoplasm. From the cell body three or four, or perhaps five, dendrites and one axon proceed. The **dendrites** are short and radiate out from different aspects of the cell body. They end in tufts of claw-like twigs, which either embrace or are otherwise in contact with neighbouring granule cells. The whole multitude of granule cells, therefore, are brought into intimate connexion with each other. The **axon** passes into the molecular layer, in which it ends at a varying

distance from the surface by dividing into two branches. These diverge so sharp each other that they almost form a right angle with the parent stem, and th parallel to the long axis of the folium, threading their way between the branche various dendritic planes of the cells of Purkinje and entering into contact associati them. When the great number of granule cells is borne in mind, and the fact th sends an axon into the molecular layer, the important part which these fibres, wi longitudinal branches, take in building up the molecular layer will be understood. are found pervading its entire thickness—from the surface down to the bodies of t of Purkinje.

Near the cells of Purkinje a few scattered cells are seen in the granular la different kind. These are much larger t ordinary granule cells, and are probably nature of association cells. They are ste form, and have numerous long branching d and an axon which divides up in the g layer to a singular extent.

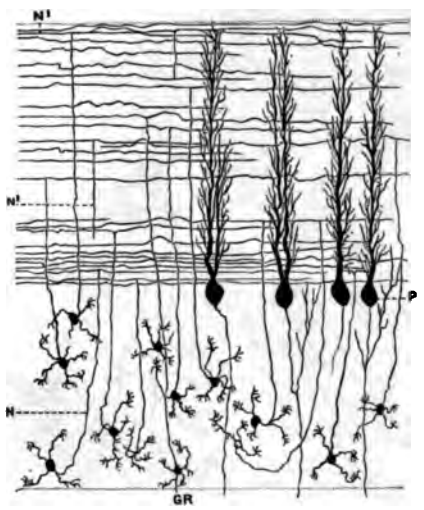


FIG. 414.—SECTION THROUGH THE MOLECULAR AND GRANULAR LAYERS IN THE LONG AXIS OF A CEREBELLAR FOLIUM (after Kölliker).

Treated by the Golgi method.

P. Cell of Purkinje.
GR. Granule cells.
N. Axon of a granule cell.
N¹. Axons of granule cells in molecular layer.

The **white centre** of the folium l thinner as it approaches the summit. Thi to the fibres which compose it gradually e the gray matter on the surface. Thes are of three kinds, viz.: (1) axons of t of Purkinje; (2) fibres which apparen in the granular layer; and (3) fibres end in the molecular layer.

The **axons of the cells of Purki** medullated fibres which, entering the centre of the folium, form a not incons part of it.

The fibres which end in the granul are called **moss-fibres.** This name is ap them because, in the granular laye present at certain points moss-like thic from which short rough twigs proceed.

The fibres which proceed into the m layer give off few or perhaps no branches traverse the granular layer. In the dee of the molecular layer they break varicose branches, which twine arou primary and secondary stems of the Purkinje dendrites.

Entering into the constitution of the **molecular layer** are the following eleme dendrites of the cells of Purkinje; (2) basket-cells and somewhat smaller cells ne surface; (3) axons of the granule cells, with their longitudinally arranged branc the terminations of certain fibres from the white core of the folium, which end in with the Purkinje dendrites.

In the **granular layer** are found: (1) granule cells; (2) larger stellate as cells; (3) axons of the cells of Purkinje; (4) moss-fibres; (5) fibres traversing th to end in the molecular layer.

THE DEEP CONNEXIONS OF THE CRANIAL NERVES ATTACHED TO MEDULLA AND PONS.

There are twelve pairs of cranial nerves, of which the lower eight are a to the medulla and pons Varolii. From above downwards these are nam fifth or trigeminal, the sixth or abducent, the seventh or facial, the ei auditory, the ninth or glossopharyngeal, the tenth or vagus, the eleventh c accessory, and the twelfth or hypoglossal. The hypoglossal, the spinal ac the greater part of the facial, the abducent, and the motor root of the tri are efferent nerves; the auditory, the pars intermedia of the facial, and the root of the trigeminal are purely afferent nerves: whilst the vagus and the pharyngeal are composed of both efferent and afferent fibres. In all cases fibres arise from ganglionic cells placed outside the brain and penetrate th *stem, to end in connexion* with the cells of certain **nuclei of termination.**

res, on the other hand, take origin within the brain as the axons of cells which grouped together in certain places in the form of **nuclei of origin.**

Nuclei of Origin, or Motor Nuclei.—In the spinal cord the nuclei of origin are presented by elongated columns of cells which run more or less continuously in anterior horn of gray matter of successive cord-segments, and from these the series efferent anterior nerve-roots take origin. In the medulla and pons the nuclei of gin, or, in other words, the motor nuclei of the individual nerves become, for the st part, discontinuous, and are represented by certain isolated clumps of compact y matter, in which are placed the clusters of cells from which the fibres of the erent nerves arise. The nucleus ambiguus, however, which consists of a column of ls from which root fibres of the medullary part of the spinal accessory, of the vagus, d possibly also of the glossopharyngeal are derived, is an exception to this rule. the decussation of the pyramids, the anterior horn of gray matter of the cord is oken up by the intercrossing bundles into a detached head and a basal part which mains in relation with the ventro-lateral aspect of the central canal. Certain the efferent or motor nuclei of the medulla and pons lie in the line of the basal rtion of the ventral horn of gray matter of the spinal cord, and thus close to e mesial plane. These are termed **mesial nuclei of origin**, and are met with at ferent levels in the brain-stem. This group comprises the hypoglossal nucleus, e dorsal motor nucleus of the vago-glossopharyngeal nerve, the abducent nucleus nd, in the mesencephalon, the trochlear nucleus and the oculo-motor nucleus). ther motor nuclei of origin are present in the form of isolated clumps or columns gray matter, which lie at different levels in the medulla and pons in the line of e detached head of the anterior horn of gray matter. They are the nucleus mbiguus of the spinal accessory, the vagus and glossopharyngeal, the facial ucleus, and the nucleus of the motor root of the trigeminal nerve. From their osition in the tegmental substance of the medulla and pons they constitute a group to which the name of **lateral motor nuclei** is applied.

The different nuclei of origin of the efferent fibres which belong to the various cranial nerves, both mesial and lateral, are connected with the motor area of the cerebral cortex by fibres from the pyramidal tract, which enter the nuclei and end in connexion with their cells.

Nuclei of Termination.—In the brain the nuclei of termination are likewise discontinuous, and are represented by more or less isolated clusters or columns of cells. Unlike the motor nuclei, however, these nuclei show no regular or definite position within the medulla and pons. Some are found in the gray matter which surrounds the central canal, and in its continuation upwards as the gray matter in the floor of the fourth ventricle; others are placed in the tegmental substance; whilst two actually lie on the surface of the brain-stem, viz. the lateral and ventral nuclei of the cochlear or outer division of the auditory nerve.

The axons of the cells of the nuclei of termination enter the reticular formation of the tegmental substance as arcuate fibres, and, crossing the mesial plane, are carried upwards in the tegmental substance of the opposite side to establish direct connexions with the optic thalamus and indirect connexions with the cerebral cortex.

Hypoglossal Nerve (nervus hypoglossus).—The nucleus of origin of the hypoglossal nerve, the motor nerve of the tongue, lies in the substance of the medulla oblongata. It is composed of several groups of large multipolar cells, which closely resemble the cells in the ventral horn of gray matter in the spinal cord, and is pervaded by an intricate network of fine fibrils. In form it is elongated and rod-like, and in length it is somewhere about 18 mm. It extends from a point immediately above the decussation of the pyramids up to the level of the striæ acusticæ. The lower portion of the nucleus is thus placed in the closed part of the medulla (Fig. 397, p. 493), whilst its upper part is situated in the open part of the medulla (Fig 402, p. 497). The former lies in that part of the central gray matter which is continuous with the basal part of the ventral horn of gray matter of the cord. It is thus placed on the ventral and lateral aspect of the central canal, close to the *mesial plane and the corresponding* nucleus of the opposite side. The *upper part of the nucleus occupies a position* in the gray matter on the floor of

the fourth ventricle, subjacent to the inner part of the surface area, which has been described under the name of the trigonum hypoglossi. Within the nucleus the axons of the cells arrange themselves in converging bundles of fine fibres, which come together and leave the ventral aspect of the nucleus as the fasciculi of the nerve. The nerve bundles thus formed traverse the entire antero-posterior thickness of the medulla between the formatio reticularis grisea and the formatio reticularis alba, and emerge on the surface in linear order at the bottom of the furrow between the olivary eminence and the pyramid. In the substance of the medulla the root-bundles of the hypoglossal pass between the main inferior olivary nucleus and the mesial accessory olivary nucleus, and many of them on their way to the surface pierce the ventral lamina of the main olivary nucleus.

No decussation between the nerves of opposite sides takes place in the medulla, but commissural fibres pass between the two nuclei (Kölliker). Further, numerous fibres from the opposite pyramidal tract enter the nucleus and end in connexion with its cells. The nucleus is thus brought into connexion with the motor area of the opposite side of the cerebral cortex.

Spinal Accessory Nerve (nervus accessorius).—The spinal accessory is likewise a motor nerve, and it is generally described as consisting of a spinal and a medullary or accessory part.

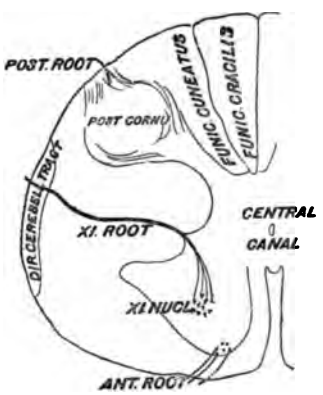


FIG. 415.—DIAGRAM OF THE SPINAL ORIGIN OF THE SPINAL ACCESSORY NERVE (after Bruce).

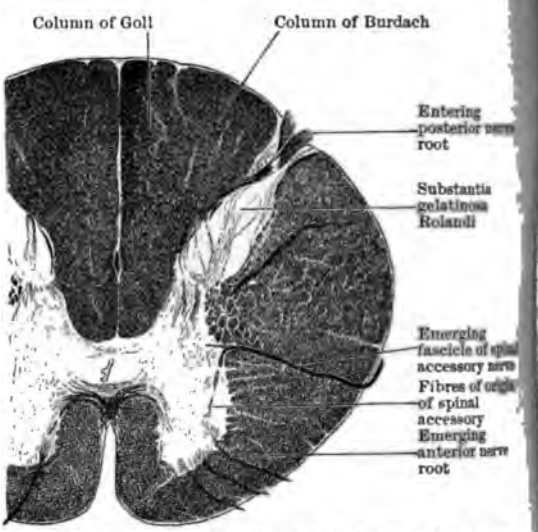

Column of Goll
Column of Burdach
Entering posterior nerve root
Substantia gelatinosa Rolandi
Emerging fascicle of spinal accessory nerve
Fibres of origin of spinal accessory
Emerging anterior nerve root

FIG. 416.—SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER PART OF THE CERVICAL REGION OF THE CORD (Orang), Showing the origin of the spinal part of the spinal accessory nerve.

The **spinal part** of the nerve emerges by a series of roots which issue from the surface of the lateral column of the upper part of the cord as low down as the fifth cervical nerve. These take origin in a column of cells situated in the anterior horn of gray matter of the cord close to its lateral margin, and immediately behind the nerve-cells which give rise to the fibres of the anterior roots of the upper five cervical nerves. The cells of the accessory nucleus are large, multipolar, and in every respect similar to the motor cells of the spinal nerves. The axons from these cells leave the dorsal aspect of the nucleus in converging groups to form the root-bundles of the nerve. These, in the first place, proceed straight backwards in the anterior horn of gray matter. Reaching the bay between the two horns of gray matter, they turn sharply outwards into the white matter and traverse the lateral column to gain their points of exit from the cord. At the decussation of the pyramids, root-bundles, which join the spinal accessory nerve, are seen to proceed from the detached head of the anterior horn of gray matter.

The **medullary part** of the spinal accessory nerve has its nucleus of origin in the medulla; and its root-bundles, as they proceed outwards from this, can be distin-

ished by the fact that they pursue a course on the ventral side of the spinal root the trigeminal nerve, whereas the vagus roots, with which they are apt to be infused, pass through or lie on the dorsal aspect of the trigeminal root (Kölliker). e nucleus of origin of the medullary part of the accessory nerve is formed by the ine column of cells which constitutes the **nucleus ambiguus**, and which, at a higher el, gives motor fibres to the vagus and glossopharyngeal nerves.

The part of the spinal accessory nerve which takes origin in the spinal cord supplies the sterno-mastoid and trapezius muscles. The medullary or accessory portion joins the vagus, and hrough the external and recurrent laryngeal nerves it supplies the muscles of the larynx. The rtion of the nucleus ambiguus from which it arises has thus been termed the laryngeal nucleus Ellinger).

Collaterals and fibres of the opposite pyramidal tract end in connexion with the cells of rigin of the accessory nerve, and thus bring its nucleus into connexion with the motor area of e cerebral cortex. Fibres also from the posterior roots of the spinal nerves (afferent or sensory ves) end in the nucleus.

Vagus and Glossopharyngeal Nerves (nervus vagus, nervus glossopharyngeus).—These nerves present similar connexions with the brain, and they may herefore be studied together. The greater part of both nerves is composed of fferent fibres, which arise outside the brain-stem from ganglionic cells placed in elation to the nerve-trunks. Both nerves likewise possess motor or efferent fibres, which spring from two special nuclei of origin situated within the medulla and rmed respectively the **dorsal motor nucleus** and the **nucleus ambiguus**. The afferent anglionic fibres of the vagus and glossopharyngeal enter the brain by a series of oots which penetrate the medulla along the outer or ventral side of the restiform ody. Within the medulla they separate into two sets, viz. a series of bundles chiefly composed of vagus fibres), which end in the **dorsal nucleus of termination** f the vagus and glossopharyngeal nerves, and another series of bundles (chiefly mposed of glossopharyngeal fibres), which join a conspicuous longitudinal tract f fibres called the **fasciculus solitarius**.

The **dorsal nucleus** (Figs. 398, p. 495, and 402, p. 497) of the vagus and glossopharyngeal nerves is mixed, and contains both motor cells which give origin to fferent fibres and cells around which afferent fibres of the vagus, and possibly also the glossopharyngeal nerve, break up into terminal arborisations. It very nearly uals in length the nucleus of the hypoglossal nerve, with which it is closely lated. Above, it reaches as high as the striæ acusticæ, whilst below its lower end lls slightly short of that of the hypoglossal nucleus. In specimens stained by e Weigert-Pal method the two nuclei offer a marked contrast. The hypoglossal ucleus presents a dark hue, owing to the enormous numbers of fine fibres which rine in and out amidst its cells; the vago-glossopharyngeal dorsal nucleus is pale om the scarcity of such fibres within it. In the closed part of the medulla the rsal vago-glossopharyngeal nucleus lies in the central gray matter immediately hind the hypoglossal nucleus, and upon the lateral aspect of the central canal; the open part of the medulla it lies in the gray matter of the floor of the fourth ntricle, immediately to the outer side of the hypoglossal nucleus and subjacent the surface area termed the trigonum vagi.

The cells in the portion of the dorsal nucleus which acts as a *nucleus of rmination* are spindle-shaped in form and similar to those found in the posterior orn of gray matter in the cord. In connexion with these cells, the greater umber of the afferent fibres of the vagus nerve, and a small proportion of the fferent fibres of the glossopharyngeal nerve end in fine terminal arborisations. A small part of the upper portion of the nucleus may be said to belong to the glosso-pharyngeal nerve and the remainder of the nucleus to the vagus nerve.

The cells which constitute the *dorsal motor* or *efferent nucleus* as seen in transverse section appear in a more or less compact cluster, which lies immediately to he outer side of the hypoglossal nucleus. These cells, although very conspicuous, re not so large as those in the hypoglossal nucleus, nor as those in the anterior orn of gray matter of the cord; nor do they stain so deeply.

The **fasciculus solitarius** (Figs. 397, p. 493; 398, p. 495; and 402, p. 497) is a ound bundle of longitudinal fibres which forms a very conspicuous object in transverse sections through the medulla. It begins at the upper limit of the medulla,

and can be traced downwards through its whole length. Its precise p
termination is not known, but it is believed that it is carried for some d
downwards into the upper part of the cord, viz. to the level of the fourth
nerve, according to Kölliker. The relations of the fasciculus solitarius
the same in all parts of its course. It lies immediately to the outer side
dorsal vago-glossopharyngeal nucleus; but whereas in the upper part of the
it is situated somewhat on the ventral side of that nucleus, in the lower clo
of the medulla it is placed on its dorsal aspect. Throughout its entire leng
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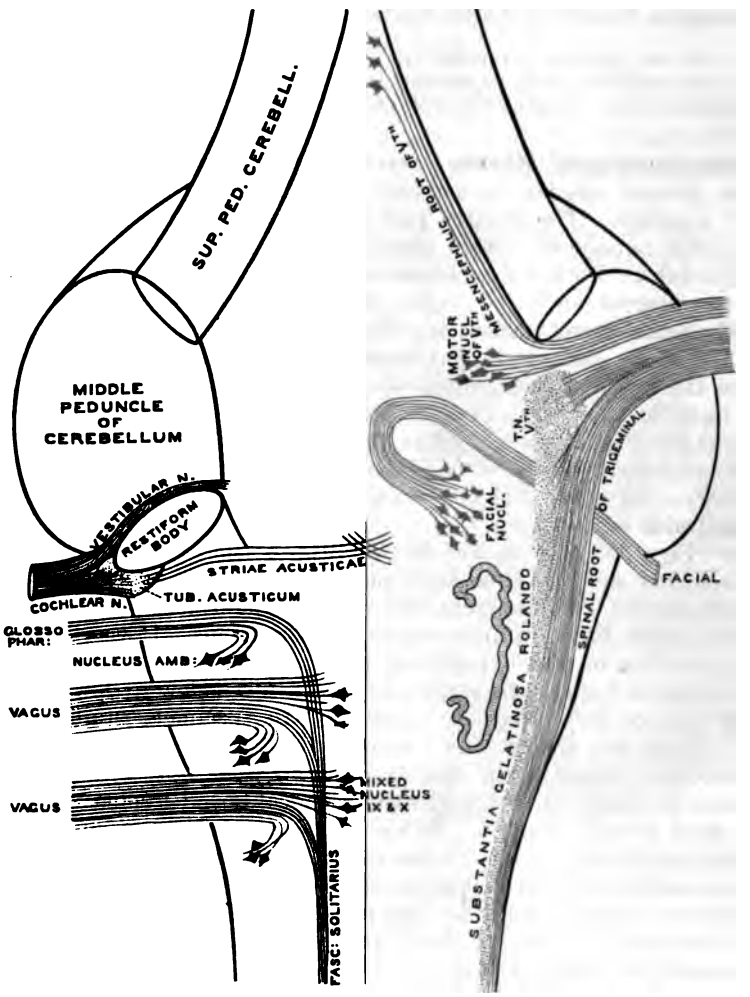


FIG. 417.—DIAGRAM, showing the brain connexions of the vagus, glosso-pharyngeal, auditory, facial, abducent, and trigeminal nerves.

As th
bundles of t
and the
pharyngeal
traverse the substance of the medulla in a backward and inward direction to r
fasciculus solitarius and the dorsal nucleus of termination, they pass through t
root of the trigeminal nerve and the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi associated
The term **ascending root** is sometimes applied to the fasciculus solitarius; but
conveys an altogether false conception of its character it should be discarde
axons of the nucleus of termination and of the nucleus of the fasciculus s
form central connexions with other parts of the brain, but these have not as
completely elucidated.

The **dorsal efferent nucleus** gives off fibres which join the afferent fibre
vago-glossopharyngeal rootlets as they traverse the medulla, and mixin
them they pass along the same path to emerge from the medulla.

The **nucleus ambiguus** (Figs. 398, p. 495, and 402, p. 497) also gives o

motor or efferent fibres which join the vagus and glossopharyngeal nerves. The cells which compose it are large, multipolar, and similar in every respect to the large cells in the ventral horn of gray matter of the spinal cord. These cells are arranged in a slender column which is best developed in the upper open part of the medulla. Here the nucleus can easily be detected in transverse sections as a small area of compact gray matter which lies in the formatio reticularis grisea, midway between the dorsal accessory olive and the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi. It therefore lies more deeply in the substance of the medulla than the mixed dorsal vago-glossopharyngeal nucleus. Kölliker states that it can be traced downwards as low as the level of the decussation of the fillet, and upwards as high as the place of entrance of the cochlear root of the auditory nerve. From its dorsal aspect the axons of the cells proceed, and in the first instance they pass backwards towards the floor of the fourth ventricle; then, bending suddenly outwards and forwards, they join the afferent roots of the vagus and possibly also of the glossopharyngeal nerves, and emerge from the brain in company with these.

Upon anatomical grounds it might be questioned whether the glossopharyngeal nerve contains any efferent fibres. It gives off, it is true, one motor branch, viz. to the stylo-pharyngeus muscle, but there are paths by means of which these fibres might enter the nerve other than by coming directly from the motor nuclei, which have been described in connexion with the vago-glossopharyngeal nerve-roots.

There is, further, some ground for the belief that all the fibres of the glossopharyngeal pass into the fasciculus solitarius. In a very instructive case described by Alexander Bruce in which the glossopharyngeal was destroyed in the jugular foramen by the pressure of a tumour, no degenerated fibres could be traced beyond the fasciculus solitarius.

Auditory Nerve (nervus acusticus).—This is a large nerve which joins the brain at the lower border of the pons Varolii and on the ventral aspect of the restiform body. It is an afferent nerve, and its fibres spring from bipolar ganglionic cells either within or in the immediate neighbourhood of the labyrinth or internal ear (see section dealing with the organs of sense). Reaching the brain the auditory nerve divides into two parts, viz. the nervus cochlearis and the nervus vestibularis, which present totally different connexions and apparently exercise absolutely distinct functions. In their further course these two divisions deviate from each other so as to embrace the restiform body—the vestibular part entering the pons on the inner or mesial aspect of the restiform body, whilst the cochlear part sweeps round its outer surface. Special nuclei of termination require to be studied in connexion with each part of the nerve.

The **cochlear nerve** is composed of finer fibres than the vestibular nerve, and these acquire their medullary sheaths at a later period. It is the true nerve of hearing, and its fibres end in a ganglion which lies in intimate relation to the restiform body, and which may be described as consisting of two parts. Of these one, called the **tuberculum acusticum** or the **lateral cochlear nucleus**, is a pyriform mass which is placed on the outer aspect of the restiform body—between it and the flocculus of the cerebellum. The second part, termed the **ventral cochlear nucleus**, does not extend so low down as the tuberculum acusticum. It is a wedge-shaped nuclear mass which is placed on the ventral aspect of the restiform body in the interval between the cochlear and vestibular divisions of the auditory nerve, after they have separated from each other. The fibres of the cochlear nerve enter these two ganglia and end around the cells in terminal arborisations, which are finer, closer, and more intricate than those met with in any other nerve nucleus in the brain.

The **vestibular nerve** enters the brain at a slightly higher level than the cochlear nerve and on the mesial aspect of the ventral cochlear nucleus. It forces its way backwards through the pons between the restiform body, which lies on its outer side, and the spinal root of the fifth nerve, which is placed on its inner side. Its fibres come to an end in three nuclei of termination, which are situated in the dorsal part of the pons and medulla, viz. (1) the principal nucleus or dorsal nucleus; (2) the nucleus of the descending root; and (3) the nucleus of Deiters.

The **principal nucleus** (Figs. 403, p. 500, and 418, p. 520) is a large diffuse nuclear mass, which lies in the floor of the fourth ventricle subjacent to the surface

district known as the *area acustica* (Fig. 391, p. 487). It is situated, therefore, both the pons and the medulla to the outer side of the fovea superior and the fo inferior. In transverse section it is prismatic in outline, and crossing the surf of its upper or pontine p immediately under t ependyma of the ventri are the striæ acusticæ.

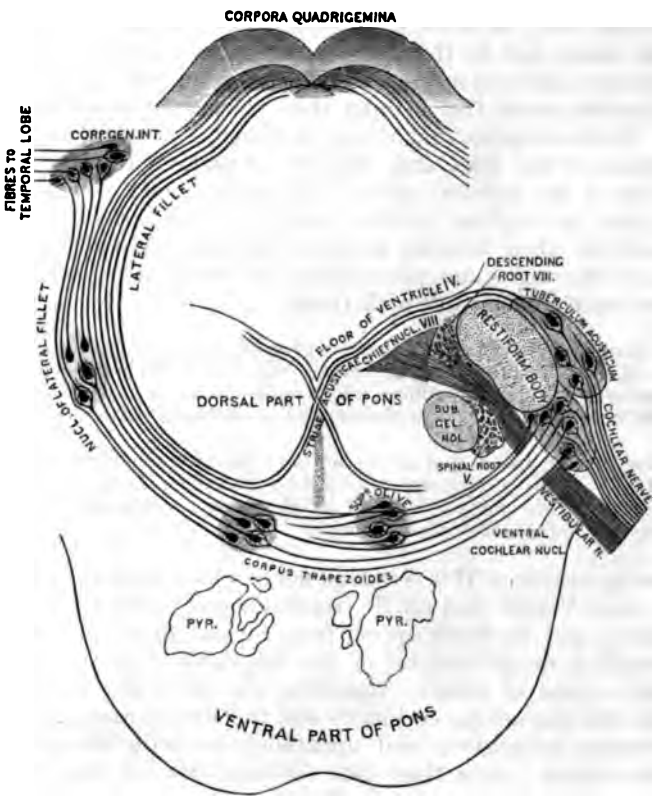


FIG. 418.—CENTRAL CONNEXIONS OF THE COCHLEAR AND VESTIBULAR DIVISIONS OF THE AUDITORY NERVE.

(Diagram founded on drawings by Edinger and Ferrier and Turner.)

When the nervus ve bularis, as it traverses brain, reaches the in aspect of the dorsal port of the restiform body very large proportion its fibres turn vertica downwards in separ bundles and form the scending root of the ve bular nerve (Figs. 398 495; 402, p. 497; 4 p. 500; 418, p. 5 This proceeds through lower part of the pons i the medulla, in which may be traced as far the level of the decu tion of the fillet. sociated with the desce ing root there is a colu of gray matter, with ne cells strewn spars throughout it. This the **nucleus of the scending root**, and fibres end in fine arbor tions around these ne cells.

The fibres of the vestibular nerve likewise end in the **nucleus of Deiters.** T nucleus is composed of a number of large and conspicuous multipolar nerve-c which are scattered amidst the bundles of the upper part of the descending r of the vestibular nerve. As it is traced upwards into the pons the nucl gradually inclines backwards, and finally it occupies a place in the lateral wal the fourth ventricle. It attains its greatest development at the level of emerging part of the facial nerve, and this upper part is sometimes termed **nucleus of Bechterew**.

Central Connexions of the Cochlear Nerve.—The cochlear nerve is brou into connexion with the inferior quadrigeminal body, and the corpus geniculat internum of the opposite side by the fibres of the corpus trapezoides and the lat fillet. But this connexion is not direct; the chain is composed of several separate l or neurons superimposed one over the other.

The fibres of the cochlear nerve end in the ventral cochlear nucleus and in the tu culum acusticum. From the cells of these nuclei two tracts arise, viz. a **ventral t** composed of the fibres of the corpus trapezoides, and a **dorsal tract**, which is represe by the striæ acusticæ.

The **corpus trapezoides** (Figs. 418 and 419) is formed of the axons of the cells o ventral cochlear nucleus, as well as certain of the axons of the cells of tuberc acusticum. In the midst of the corpus trapezoides are lodged large cells which are kn as the *nucleus trapezoideus*, and these give off axons which join the strand with w they are associated. Further, the *superior olive* forms an important internode in path of the corpus trapezoides. Many of the fibres of the corpus trapezoides end in

[illegible]node, whilst others are added to the tract from the cells of that nuclear mass. So [illegible]stituted, the trapezial fibres cross the mesial plane and decussate with the correspond-[illegible] fibres of the opposite side. Reaching the opposite superior olivary nucleus a further [illegible]change of fibres takes place, and almost immediately after this the strand turns [illegible]wards and becomes the **lateral fillet** (Figs. 405, p. 503; 406, p. 504). But still [illegible]other nucleus is interposed in its path, viz. the *nucleus of the lateral fillet*. Here [illegible]me fibres are dropped, whilst from the nuclear cells others are acquired, and the lateral [illegible]et then proceeds onwards without further interruption until it reaches the inferior [illegible]adrigeminal body and the corpus geniculatum internum, in which its fibres end. It is [illegible]obable, however, that some likewise extend into the superior quadrigeminal body.

But the lateral fillet also includes the fibres of the **striæ acusticæ** of the opposite [illegible]de. These fibres arise from the cells of the tuberculum acusticum, and arrange them-[illegible]lves in the conspicuous bundles which sweep round the dorsal aspect of the resti-[illegible]rm body and proceed inwards across the floor of the fourth ventricle, immediately [illegible]neath the ependyma (Fig. 391, p. 487). Reaching the middle line they dip forwards [illegible]to the substance of the medulla, and, crossing the mesial plane, they join the lateral [illegible]llet.

It is well to remember that the connexion between the terminal cochlear nuclei and [illegible]he inferior quadrigeminal body is not altogether with that of the opposite side, as the [illegible]regoing description and the diagram (Fig. 418) might lead one to infer. A few fibres [illegible]ass directly to the inferior quadrigeminal body of the same side, but none to the corre-[illegible]ponding corpus geniculatum internum: the connexion with the latter is entirely *crossed* [illegible]Ferrier and Turner).

From the corpus geniculatum internum there proceeds a tract to the gray cortex of [illegible]he superior convolution of the temporal lobe. The whole nervous apparatus is thus [illegible]inked on to the cerebral cortex, and the succession of neurons which build up the entire [illegible]hain are therefore: (1) the bipolar cells of the ganglion spirale; (2) the neurons of the [illegible]erminal cochlear nuclei; (3) the neurons of the superior olive and the nucleus of the [illegible]ateral fillet; (4) the neurons of the corpus geniculatum internum.

It must be borne in mind that all the axons of the cells of the superior olive do not [illegible]join the trapezoid strand. Many leave its dorsal aspect and pass backwards in a group [illegible]called the **pedicle of the superior olive**, to end in the nucleus of the sixth nerve, and, [illegible]through the posterior longitudinal bundle, in the nuclei of the fourth and third nerves. [illegible]In this way the organ of hearing is brought into connexion with the nuclei, which preside [illegible]over the movements of the eyeballs (Figs. 403, p. 500, and 420, p. 523).

Central Connexions of the Vestibular Nerve.—Although the central connexions of the vestibular nerve have been closely studied by many observers, they are still very far from being fully understood. The principal nucleus and the nucleus of Deiters both stand in intimate relation with the superior vermis of the cerebellum; and in consideration of the fact that the vestibular nerve is the nerve of equilibration, this is an important and significant circumstance. The strand which establishes this connexion has been termed by Edinger "the direct sensory cerebellar tract," and in all probability it is an efferent tract from the cerebellum. Its fibres arise to a large extent in the cerebellar **roof nuclei** of the opposite side, and, crossing the mesial plane, they sweep forwards around the outer side of the superior cerebellar peduncle as it emerges from the cerebellum to end in the nucleus of Deiters, the chief vestibular nucleus, and very possibly also in the terminal sensory nuclei of certain other cranial nerves, such as the trigeminal, vagus, and glossopharyngeal.

Until the precise nature of the nucleus of Deiters is discovered, the exact character of the central connexions of the vestibular nerve will remain more or less obscure. It cannot be regarded as a nucleus specially given over to the vestibular nerve. Composed of large cells scattered amidst the bundles of the upper part of the descending root of the vestibular nerve, it only becomes a compact nucleus above the level of that nerve, viz. at the point where the restiform body turns backwards into the cerebellum, or, in other words, at the level of the emerging facial nerve and the lower end of the abducent nucleus. Here, in the outer part of the floor of the fourth ventricle, its cells are gathered together in a crowded mass. Deiters himself considered that this nucleus should be regarded as an internode between the cerebellum and the spinal cord, and Ferrier and Turner have brought forward strong evidence in support of this view. Klimoff attaches a very high importance to the direct "sensory" tract of Edinger. From his description it would appear that he regards it as the only cerebellar efferent tract which takes a downward direction. He believes, further, that the axons of the cells of Deiters form the anterior marginal tract of Lowenthal (tractus vestibulo-spinalis of Monakow), which

descends in the antero-lateral column of the cord as far as the lumbar region. I supposed that the fibres of this tract end in the cord in arborescent terminations am the motor cells in the ventral horn of gray matter.

From what has been said it must be apparent that the nucleus of Deiters plays a q important part in connexion with the maintenance of the equilibrium of the body; the co-ordination of its muscular movements. Thus it constitutes an internode in path of those fibres which connect the cortex and roof nuclei of the cerebellum with motor apparatus of the spinal cord; it receives fibres through the vestibular nerve f the labyrinth of the ear; and it sends fibres into the posterior longitudinal bun through which it in all probability exercises some influence over the nuclei of the ca nerves.

Opinion is also divided as to the composition and nature of the so-called descend root of the vestibular nerve. After division of the eighth nerve, Ferrier and Turner w unable to detect any degeneration in this root, and they therefore are inclined to ca question its direct continuity with the nerve. They consider that in all probabilit forms an internuncial connexion between the nucleus of Deiters and the cuneate nucl in which Bruce has seen its lower end to terminate.

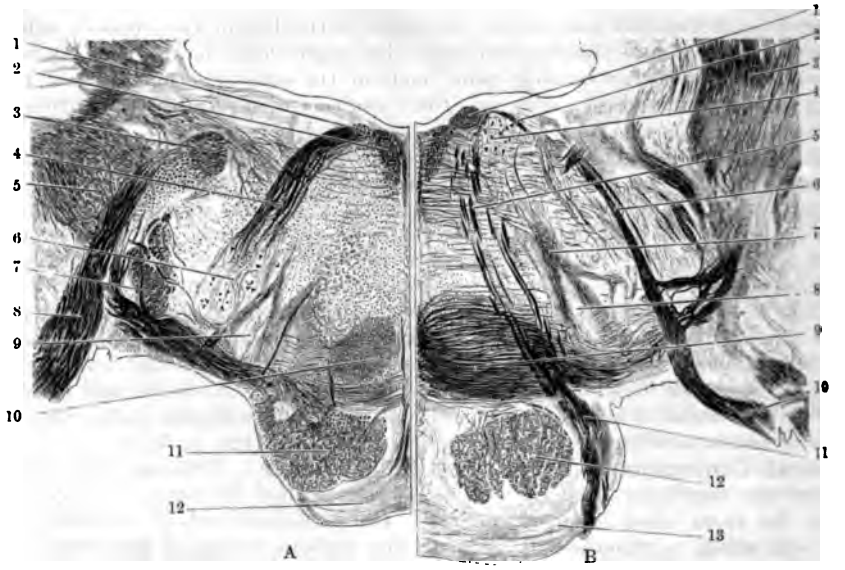


FIG. 419.—SECTION THROUGH THE PONS VAROLII OF THE ORANG,

Showing the nucleus and intrapontine course of the facial nerve. The left side of the drawing is take from a section at a slightly lower level than the section from which the right side is taken.

A

1. Ascending part of facial nerve.
2. Posterior longitudinal bundle.
3. Descending root of eighth nerve.
4. Radicular fibres of facial nerve.
5. Restiform body.
6. Facial nucleus.
7. Spinal root of fifth nerve.
8. Vestibular nerve.
9. Superior olive.
10. Fillet.
11. Pyramidal tract.
12. Transverse fibres of pons.

B

1. Ascending part of facial nerve.
2. Emergent portion of facial nerve.
3. Restiform body.
4. Nucleus of sixth nerve.
5. Sixth Nerve.
6. Emergent part of facial nerve.
7. Peduncle of superior olive.
8. Superior olive.
9. Corpus trapezoides.
10. Facial nerve.
11. Sixth nerve.
12. Pyramidal tract.
13. Transverse fibres of pons.

Facial Nerve (nervus facialis) (Figs. 419 and 420).—The facial nerve is c posed of two distinct parts, viz. a large efferent or motor portion, the **facial n proper**, and a small efferent sensory portion termed the **pars intermedia of Wris** The facial nerve emerges from the brain at the lower border of the pons, immedia in front and to the inner side of the auditory nerve, whilst the pars interm sinks into the upper part of the medulla between the facial and auditory ne The three nerves, therefore, lie in intimate relation with each other, where are attached to the surface of the brain, and they pass in company into the inte auditory meatus.

The nucleus of origin of the facial nerve is an oval mass of gray matter, about mm. in length, and containing numerous groups of large multipolar cells. It unk deeply in the dorsal or tegmental part of the lower portion of the pons rolii, and is placed close to the inner side of the spinal root of the fifth nerve. en transverse sections are made through the brain-stem, the facial nucleus is ountered the moment the boundary line between the medulla and pons is ed, and the region immediately above the inferior olivary nucleus is reached. first it lies so deeply in the tegmentum of the pons that it actually rests upon dorsal aspect of the corpus trapezoides; but a little farther up the superior e comes into view, and insinuates itself between the facial nucleus and the ezial fibres. The upper part of the nucleus is in this way tilted somewhat kwards, and thus comes to lie on the dorsal and outer aspect of the superior e.

The facial nucleus is situated close to the place where the nerve emerges from brain, but the nerve does not at once pass to this point of exit. It pursues ng and devious path within the pons before it finally reaches the surface. is intrapontine part of the nerve may be divided into three parts, viz.: (1) a icular part, (2) an ascending portion, and (3) an emergent part.

The **radicular part of the facial nerve** (Fig. 420) is composed of a large number ine loosely-arranged bundles of fibres, which issue from the outer and dorsal ct of the nucleus and proceed backwards and slightly inwards through the s. Reaching the floor of the fourth ventricle they curve inwards, and the dles which lie highest up sweep over the outer and dorsal aspect of the lower of the nucleus of the sixth nerve. Close to the mesial plane they turn ply upwards and are collected into a single solid nerve-bundle, which consti- s the **ascending part of the facial nerve** (Figs. 419 and 420). This proceeds ically upwards immediately eath the ependyma of the tricular floor, on the dorsal ct of the posterior longitudinal dle, and along the inner side he sixth or abducent nucleus a distance of about five milli- res. Suddenly the nerve bends wards at a right angle, and ves a second time over the sal aspect of the sixth or lucent nucleus. The nerve now ses straight to the place of exit m the brain, and this part of intrapontine trunk may be med the emergent portion (Figs.) and 420). The facial nerve is forms a curved loop over the sal aspect of the abducent cleus. The **emergent part** of nerve takes an oblique course ough the pons to reach the face. It inclines outwards and wnwards as it proceeds towards e ventral aspect of the pons, d on its way it passes between own nucleus and the spinal root the fifth nerve.

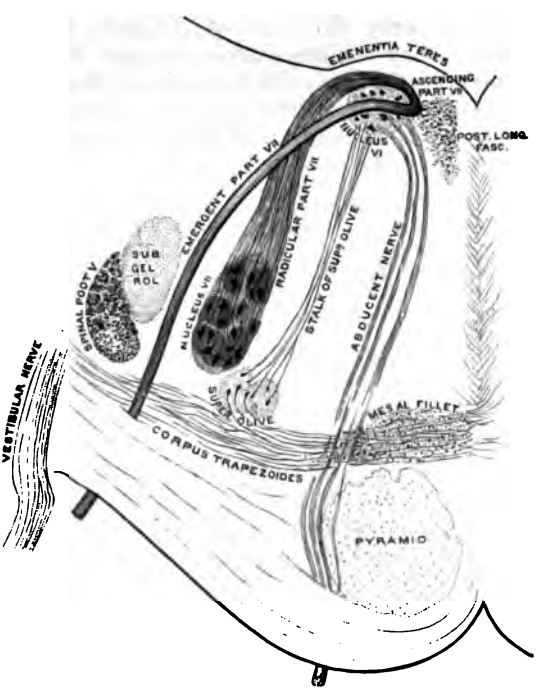


FIG. 420.—DIAGRAM OF THE INTRAPONTINE COURSE PURSUED BY THE FACIAL NERVE.

Entering the facial nucleus, and ending in fine terminal arborisations around its cells, are my fibres from the opposite pyramidal tract; fibres from the spinal root of the fifth nerve; res from the corpus trapezoides, etc. The nucleus is thus brought into connexion with the otor area of the cerebral cortex, with the trigeminal nerve or sensory nerve of the face, and th the auditory nerve, etc.

The fibres of the **pars intermedia of Wrisberg** arise from the cells of the g... culate ganglion of the facial nerve. These, like the cells of a spinal ganglion, ... unipolar, the single process in each case dividing into a peripheral and a ce... branch. The group of peripheral fibres represent the chorda tympani branc... the facial nerve, whilst the central fibres form the pars intermedia. The la... penetrate the brain, and, passing either through or on the dorsal side of the s... root of the fifth nerve, they finally reach the upper part of the column of g... matter in connexion with the fasciculus solitarius, and in this they end. The p... intermedia presents, therefore, the same terminal connexions within the brain ... the glossopharyngeal nerve.

Efferent secretory fibres are also described as being present in the pars intermedia. Th... are said to spring from cells which constitute a *salivary nucleus* placed in the pons on the dor... aspect of the facial nucleus.

Abducent or Sixth Nerve (nervus abducens) (Figs. 419 and 420).—This is ... small motor nerve which emerges from the brain at the lower border of the po... on the outer side of the pyramid of the medulla. It is the nerve of supply to ... the external rectus muscle of the eyeball. Its nucleus of origin is a smal... spherical mass of gray matter, containing large multipolar cells, which lies in ... the dorsal part of the tegmental portion of the pons, close to the mesial plane and ... immediately subjacent to the gray matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle. Its ... position can be easily indicated on the ventricular floor, seeing that it is placed ... subjacent to the eminentia teres and immediately above the level of the stri... acusticæ. Its peculiar and intimate relation to the intrapontine portion of the ... facial nerve has already been indicated. It lies on the ventral aspect of, and within ... the concavity formed by, the two limbs of the loop of that nerve.

The axons of the multipolar cells of this nucleus emerge from the inner aspect ... of the nucleus in the form of several bundles, which proceed through the whole ... antero-posterior thickness of the pons towards the place of exit. As they pass ... forwards they incline downwards and slightly outwards. In the tegmental part ... of the pons they proceed forwards on the inner side of the superior olive, whilst in ... the ventral part of the pons they keep for the most part to the outer side of ... the pyramidal bundles, although several of the nerve fasciculi pierce these on ... their way to the surface.

It would appear probable that certain of the axons of the cells of the abducent nucleus enter the posterior longitudinal fasciculus and proceed upwards in it to join the third or oculo-motor nerve of the opposite side. Further mention of these will be made later on. Fibres and collaterals from the pyramidal tract of the opposite side enter the nucleus, and, ending around the cells, bring the nucleus into connexion with the motor area of the cerebral cortex. The pedicle of the superior olive ends partly within the nucleus of the abducent nerve (p. 521).

Trigeminal or Fifth Nerve (nervus trigeminus).—The trigeminal nerve strikes its roots deeply into the brain and establishes a connexion with it which extends from the upper part of the mesencephalon above to the level of the second cervical nerve below. No other cranial nerve presents so extensive a connexion (Fig. 417, p. 518). It is composed of two roots—a large afferent or sensory root and a small efferent or motor root. Both roots appear close together on the surface of the pons, rather nearer its upper border than its lower border, and in the same line as the facial and auditory nerves.

The **sensory root of the fifth nerve** is composed of fibres which arise outside the brain from the cells of the Gasserian ganglion. They end within the brain in two nuclei of termination. One of these is situated in the pons and is termed the sensory nucleus of the trigeminal nerve, and the other is a long column of gray matter which is directly continuous below with the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi of the spinal cord.

The **sensory nucleus** (Fig. 421) is an oval mass of gray matter which is placed half-way up the pons in the outer part of its tegmental portion. It lies close to the outer surface of the pons and immediately subjacent to the ventral submerged margin of the superior cerebellar peduncle. It is directly continuous with the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi, and may be regarded as being merely the enlarged upper end of that column of gray matter.

The fibres of the sensory root of the fifth nerve, on reaching the sensory nucleus, **ide in a manner similar** to the fibres of the entering posterior roots of the spinal **ves into a system** of ascending and descending branches (Fig. 417, p. 518). **ascending fibres** are short, and almost immediately enter the sensory nucleus **l end within it**; the descending fibres turn sharply downwards and form the **spinal t** (**tractus spinalis**: the ascending root of many text-books). This root descends **the outer side** of the column of gray matter formed by the substantia gelatinosa **landi**, which constitutes its terminal nucleus. Fibres constantly leave it to **ter the nucleus**, so that the lower it gets the smaller does the spinal root become **til**, in the upper part of the spinal cord, about the level of the first or second **inal nerve**, it disappears altogether.

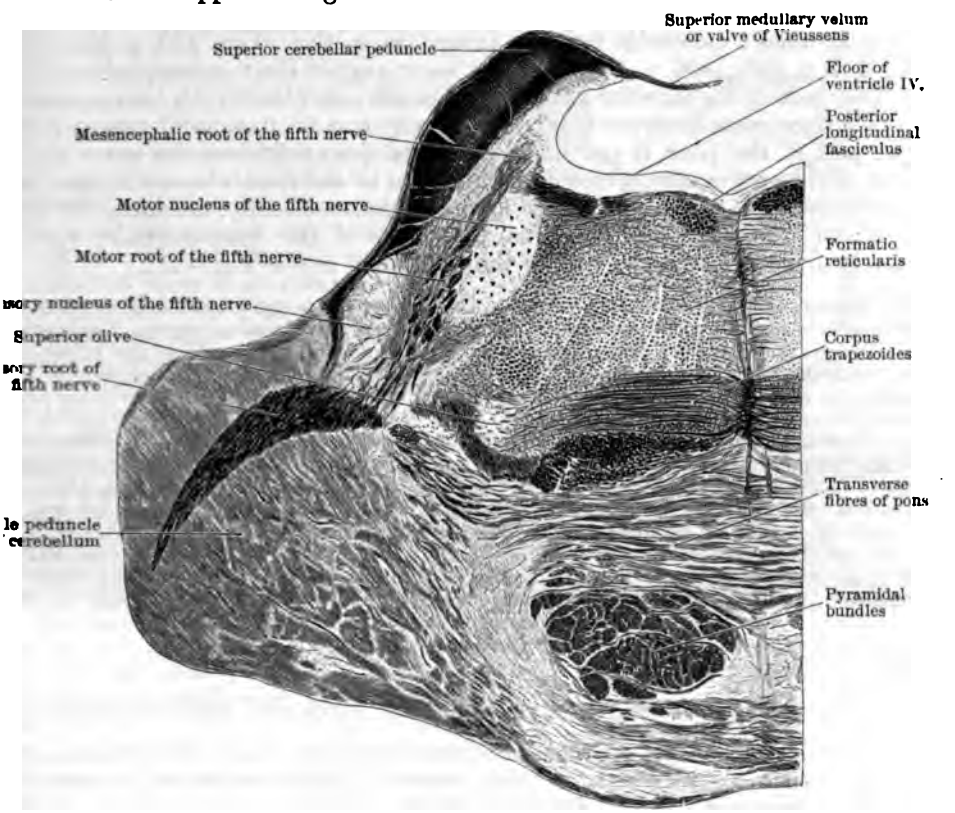


FIG. 421.—SECTION THROUGH THE PONS VAROLII OF THE ORANG, AT THE LEVEL OF THE NUCLEI OF THE TRIGEMINAL NERVE.

The large spinal root of the fifth nerve is a conspicuous object in sections through the is and medulla. In the former it traverses the tegmental part, first, between the ergent part of the facial nerve and the vestibular nerve; and then lower down, between e restiform body and the nucleus of the facial nerve (Fig. 419, A, p. 522). In cross tions it presents a well-defined semilunar or curved pyriform outline. In the upper rt of the medulla it lies on the ventral aspect of the restiform body, and therefore arer to the surface (Fig. 398, p. 495). Here it is traversed and broken up into parate bundles by the cerebello-olivary fibres and the roots of the glossopharyngeal and gus nerves. Finally, it comes to the surface and its fibres are spread over the area on e side of the medulla known as the tubercle and funiculus of Rolando (Fig. 394, 492).

The small **motor part of the trigeminal nerve** is chiefly distributed to the muscles f mastication, and derives its fibres from two sources, viz. from the motor nucleus nd from the mesencephalic root of the trigeminal nerve.

The **motor nucleus** (Fig. 421) lies in the lateral part of the tegmental portion of he pons, close to the inner side of the sensory terminal nucleus, but somewhat

nearer to the floor of the fourth ventricle. It is not placed in the exact line of the facial nucleus, as it is situated somewhat nearer the dorsal aspect of the pons; nevertheless, it may be considered as being equivalent in this region to the detached head of the anterior horn of gray matter in the lower part of the medulla. The cells of this nucleus are large and multipolar, and their axons run together to form the greater portion of the motor root of the fifth nerve.

The **mesencephalic root** takes origin in the mesencephalon from a column of large loosely-arranged cells which are placed in the extreme lateral part of the gray matter which surrounds the Sylvian aqueduct. As the lower end of this column of cells reaches the pontine part of the floor of the fourth ventricle it becomes continuous with the dark cells of the locus cœruleus. The mesencephalic root as it is traced downwards gradually gains strength by the addition of new fibres, and it assumes a crescentic form in transverse section (Figs. 430, p. 535; 432, 537; 407, p. 505; 406, p. 504). In the lower part of the mesencephalon it lies on the inner side of the superior cerebellar peduncle; and the fourth nerve, on its way to the surface, runs downwards in its concavity and on its mesial aspect. In the upper part of the pons, it continues its course downwards on the outer and dorsal aspect of the gray matter which forms the floor of the fourth ventricle, and here it stands in relation to the cells of the locus cœruleus. Finally, reaching the level of the nuclei of the trigeminal nerve, the fibres of the mesencephalic root turn forwards and join the motor part of the trigeminal nerve (Fig. 421).

S. Ramon y Cajal has shown that an intimate relationship is established between the mesencephalic nucleus and the principal motor nucleus of the trigeminal nerve. Large numbers of collaterals from the fibres of the mesencephalic root enter the latter nucleus and break up into close networks around its cells. It has been suggested that through this connexion a weak impulse proceeding from the higher nucleus may be transformed within the lower or principal nucleus into a powerful excitation.

(1) It is not known to what parts the fibres of the mesencephalic root go. Kölliker suggests that they supply the tensor veli palatini and the tensor tympani; perhaps, also, they may be distributed to the mylo-hyoid and the anterior belly of the digastric. (2) Fibres from the opposite pyramidal tract go to the motor nucleus and bring it into connexion with the motor area of the cerebral cortex. (3) By degeneration methods the root of the fifth nerve has been traced down to the level of the second cervical nerve (Ferrier and Turner). (4) The axons of the terminal nuclei emerge as arcuate fibres, and, proceeding through the raphe, assume a longitudinal course in the tegmentum of the opposite side, and thus establish connexions with parts higher up (tractus quinto-thalamicus). (5) Some of the axons of the cells of the terminal nucleus enter the motor nucleus, and thus establish a simple reflex apparatus.

The Development of the Parts derived from the Rhombencephalon.

A general sketch of the development of the medulla, pons, and cerebellum has already been given (p. 476). It is only necessary, therefore, in this section to call attention to some of the more important details connected with the process.

Medulla.—In the embryo the cervical flexure indicates in a sharp and definite manner the point of junction between the cord and the brain (Fig. 382, p. 477). In the early condition of the rhombencephalon the calamus scriptorius extends downwards to this level, so that, in the first instance, there is no part of the medulla which corresponds to the closed portion present in the adult. The lower closed part of the medulla makes its appearance at a later period, and is termed by His the **intercalated portion** (Schaltstück).

In our study of the development of that part of the neural tube which forms the spinal cord we have recognised two thick lateral walls connected in front and behind by narrow mid-ventral and mid-dorsal laminæ. The same parts are seen in the developing medulla. Owing, however, to the expansion of the cavity in this portion of the tube the mid-dorsal lamina is stretched out into an extensive and thin epithelial membrane which forms the dorsal wall or roof of the ventricle in this section of the early brain. The thick lateral walls have also fallen away from each other, and are joined in front by the narrow mid-ventral lamina. On section, therefore, the medullary part of the neural tube presents a triangular figure—the base, which is directed backwards, being formed by the thin epithelial expansion derived from the mid-dorsal lamina, the apex by the narrow mid-ventral lamina, and the sides by the thick lateral walls of the tube. Further, each lateral wall consists of an alar or dorsal and a basal or ventral lamina. This subdivision is more clearly indicated than in the cord, and on the inner surface of the lateral wall a strongly marked longitudinal furrow marks the line of junction of the two laminæ. The histo

›pment of these several parts of the wall of the medullary portion of the ›roceeds in a manner very similar to that already detailed in the case of the uroblasts are formed in the mid-ventral and mid-dorsal laminæ; the entire formation is confined to the basal and alar laminæ. Within the basal lamina, collected the neuroblasts which form the nuclei of origin of the efferent st within the alar lamina are developed the neuroblasts which constitute the mination for the fibres of the es.

›pment proceeds, the two laminæ al wall fall outwards to a still ıt, so that they come to lie very same horizontal plane. In this r originally mesial or ventricular e to form the floor of the fourth Even in the adult the groove, ıtes the basal and alar laminæ om each other in the early con- re or less distinctly perceptible on ar floor. It is represented by the ›r and by the fovea superior. ese depressions and the mesial he floor of the fully-developed icle there is an elongated eleva- in its lower part, forms the tri- glossi, above this the emenentia higher up it is continued towards cement of the Sylvian aqueduct. marked and bulging mesial strip ricular floor corresponds to the , whilst the part of the floor which ıter side of it and the two foveæ om the alar lamina. The latter, ludes the trigonum vagi, the area l the locus cœruleus.

her development of the medulla on the ventral aspect of the two the deposition of new parts on are already formed. An oval ongitudinal fibres makes its ap- the outer surface of the alar the point where this joins the a. This is the early fasciculus It is composed of afferent fibres ssopharyngeal and vagus nerves. aching the surface of the medulla, ards upon it. At first the con- the fasciculus solitarius with is very loose, and it may be being the equivalent in this neural tube of the oval bundle ıal fibres which, in the early cord, the first stage of the column

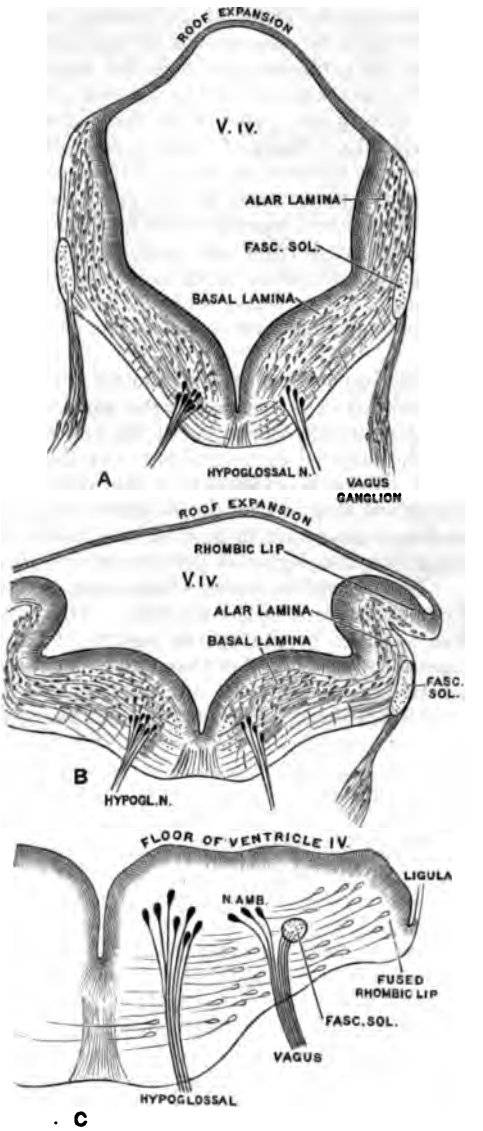


FIG. 422.—THREE STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA (from His—slightly modified).

Throughout the further stages ıent the fasciculus solitarius in- sufficiently clear manner the point of junction between the alar and e. Very soon it becomes covered over by parts developed on its ventral it ultimately comes to lie deeply in the substance of the medulla. This ıe position of the fasciculus solitarius with reference to the surface is asso- a striking developmental process which leads to certain remarkable results, termed the formation of the **rhombic lip** of His (Fig. 422, B and C). Before ina falls outwards, while it still stands erect and its inner surface faces the g surface of the opposite lamina, its dorsal edge is folded outwards and ed with the outer surface of the remaining portion of the alar lamina. This

is the rhombic lip, and, when the fusion is complete, a multitude of neuroblasts take
within it and migrate in a forward and inwards direction into the ventral parts
alar and basal laminæ. The mid-ventral lamina—which consists of spongioblastic
alone, and which forms a narrow partition between the two basal laminæ—is reach
either side by the axons of many of these migrating cells. Whilst acting as an impe
barrier to the neuroblasts, this spongioblastic septum gives free passage from one
the other to their axons, and a decussation of arcuate fibres in the mesial plane re
In this way the raphe of the medulla is formed. The process is very similar to that w
takes place in the course of the formation of the anterior commissure of the co
which the raphe may be regarded as the equivalent in the medulla.

The development of the inferior olivary nucleus and of its two accessory parts is
wise closely connected with the migration of the neuroblasts from the region of
rhombic lip. Many of these cells collect together so as to form a nuclear lamella, w
afterwards assumes its characteristic crumpled form.

As the neuroblasts of the rhombic lip stream inwards they pass both on the do
and the ventral aspects of the fasciculus solitarius, which thus comes to be covered
and separated from the surface. The spinal root of the trigeminal nerve, like
fasciculus solitarius, is also, in the first instance, throughout its entire course on
surface of the medulla, and its change of position in the greater part of its course wit
the pons and medulla is due to the subsequent development of those parts which cover
over.

The importance of the rhombic lip in the development of the medulla will be bet
appreciated if we enumerate the parts which spring from it: (1) the inferior olivary nuc
(2) the cuneate nucleus; (3) the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi; (4) the arcuate nucle
(5) the internal arcuate fibres; (6) the olivary system of fibres; (7) the restiform bod
From this it is evident that the formation of the rhombic lip constitutes an extreme
important step in the development of the human brain. Recent investigation, howeve
makes it clear that in most of the lower mammals the rhombic lip does not attain an
thing like the degree of prominence which it presents in the early brain of man.

The pyramidal tracts which come down from the cerebral cortex are late in maki
their appearance in the medulla. The formatio reticularis precedes them in development.
They appear in the fourth month of fœtal life, and as they are developed the antero-
median furrow between them takes form on the ventral aspect of the medulla.

His has pointed out that the earliest formed part of the medulla is the floor of the
fourth ventricle, and that the other parts, speaking generally, are added in succession as
we pass towards the surface. "The oldest layer of the medulla is the floor of the fourth
ventricle with its nuclei. It is followed, in the first instance, by the reticular formation,
and afterwards by the layer containing the olivary and other nuclei. Last of all come
the pyramids and the outer (superficial) arcuate fibres" (His).

Pons Varolii.—The information which we possess at the present moment regarding
the development of the pons Varolii is somewhat deficient; but there is little doubt that
the course pursued is, in general, very similar to that which has been described for the
medulla. It has been seen to be composed of parts which are in a great measure
equivalent to those met with in the medulla, the formatio reticularis of the latter
passing into the tegmental substance in the former, while the pyramids and arcuate nuclei
and anterior superficial arcuate fibres of the medulla are represented by the large ventral
part of the pons. Further, as His points out, similar relations between the chronological
and local succession of layers may be recognised. Thus the primitive position of the
motor nucleus of the trigeminal nerve, and also of its spinal root, is a superficial one, and
it is only by a later process of development that the nucleus pontis and the thick layer
of transverse and longitudinal fibres are formed.

From the phylogenetic point of view the tegmentum is the oldest part of the pons.
The study of the comparative anatomy of the brain makes it evident that the large
ventral part is comparatively a recent acquisition. As the cerebral cortex extends with
the increasing evolution of the cerebral hemispheres (pallium), the ventral part of the
pons is seen to keep pace with it in its development. This should easily be understood
from what has been said in regard to its structure and connexions. It is composed
of the nucleus pontis, the transverse fibres, and the pyramidal and cortico-pontine fibres,
all of which stand in direct relation to the cerebral cortex. One of the striking features
of the brain of a microcephalic idiot, where the cerebral cortex is greatly reduced, is the
corresponding marked diminution in the size of the ventral part of the pons.

Cerebellum.—The roof of the fourth ventricle is formed for the most part by the
thin epithelial layer already described as being formed by the expanded mid-dorsal lamina.

s not stretch, however, over its entire extent. As we approach the upper part of ricle, it is seen to become continuous in the region of the isthmus with a thicker

This lamella is bounded *above* by the intercrossing of the two trochlear nerves, arks on the dorsal aspect of the neural tube the place of junction between the cephalon and the mesencephalon; *below*, it is limited by a forwardly-directed

ır fold of epithelial lar roof, akes place rentricular t the level ontine flex- the brain. d so con- is termed choroidea, that meso- introduced its two nd this ul- gives rise choroid

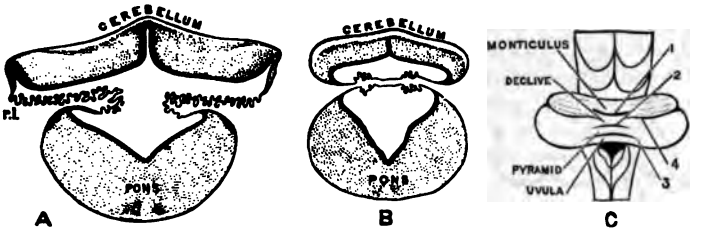


FIG. 423.—DRAWINGS TO ILLUSTRATE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CEREBELLUM (from Kuithan).

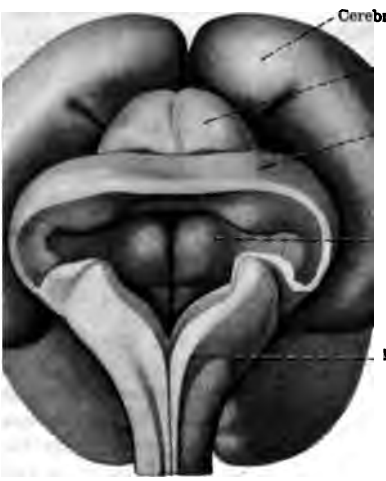
A. Transverse section through the forepart of the cerebellum of a sheep embryo.
B. Transverse section through the hinder part of the cerebellum of a sheep embryo.
C. Cerebellum of a human fœtus 17 cm. long.

1. Sulcus primarius.
2. Sulcus suprapyramidalis.
3. Sulcus infrapyramidalis.
4. Fissura post-lunata.

r.l. Lateral recess ventricle IV.

f the fourth ventricle (Fig. 425, A). The lamella which forms the roof or dorsal the ventricle in front of the plica choroidea is developed into the cerebellum, superior medullary velum (valve of Vieussens).

cerebellar part of this lamella consists of two thick lateral plates which meet in the ine and are joined there by an extremely thin dorsal seam or lamina (Fig. 423, A). er extremities of the two cerebellar plates are thus separated by a median groove, pens into the cavity of the hind-brain (fourth ventricle). The statement, there- it the median lobe or vermis of the cerebellum is the most archaic part of the organ and is the part which is developed first is not supported by fact; indeed, the reverse of this is the case, because at this early stage the lateral portions are alone represented.



—THE BRAIN OF AN EMBRYO OF ELEVEN WEEKS, viewed from nd to show the development of the cerebellum. At this stage the ›ellum is in the form of a simple band or plate which arches over ıinder aspect of the fore part of the cavity of the hind brain (from .

In the course of time the inner ends of the cerebellar plates become fused in the middle line, and the median furrow between them disappears. In the process of this fusion the deep part of the intervening furrow remains enclosed within the substance of the median part of the cerebellum and persists for a short time as a minute cerebellar ventricle (Blake).

The cerebellum now presents the appearance of a simple uniform arch which across the dorsal aspect of the upper part of the early fourth ventricle; and very e sulci begin to appear. Of late years the development and morphological import ə sulci have received much attention. Stroud, Kuithan, Blake, Elliot Smith, and have published valuable papers on this subject, and what is written here is gathered from the writings of these observers. Further, the terminology ed by Elliot Smith has been chiefly, but not entirely, followed.

first fissure to appear is the **flocculär fissure**, which cuts off the postero-lateral ›f the cerebellar plate. The portion thus marked off is the **flocculus**, and its early ınce and relatively large size at this stage are significant of its high morphological

importance as a lobule of the cerebellum. The floccular fissure is continued close to the posterior of the cerebellar pla ing its fellow of the (side in the middl Here it receives th of **post-nodular fiss** narrow strip of ce surface is thus mark The median part strip, by special grov comes the **nodulus**, wh part which extends h this and the flocculus narrow and band-lik ultimately forms a of the inferior me velum.

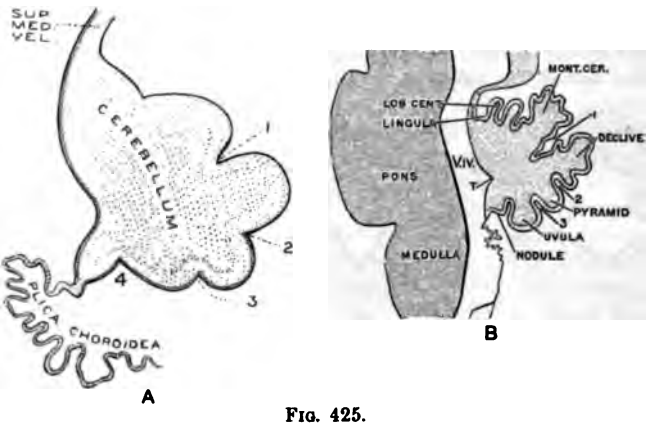


FIG. 425.

A. Mesial section through the cerebellum of an early human fœtus (semi-diagrammatic).
B. Mesial section through the cerebellum of a human fœtus 17 cm. long (from Kuithan).

1. Fissura prima.
2. Fissura suprapyramidalis.
3. Fissura infrapyramidalis.
4. Fissura postnodularis.
T. Transverse groove on the roof of the fourth ventricle.

The next furrow appears is the **sulcu arius** (Kuithan) or **prima** (Elliot Smit cuts deeply into the in a transverse direc tween the culmen m and the clivus monticuli, and is then carried outwards over each hemisphere s separate the two crescentic lobules. The fissura prima is the deepest of all the of the vermis, and it is developed towards the end of the third month. A little later two other furrows are observed in the vermis. These are the **suprapyramidal** and the **infrapyramidal** (the fissura secunda of Elliot Smith). By the former the pyramid is limited above; by the latter the pyramid is separated from the uvula.

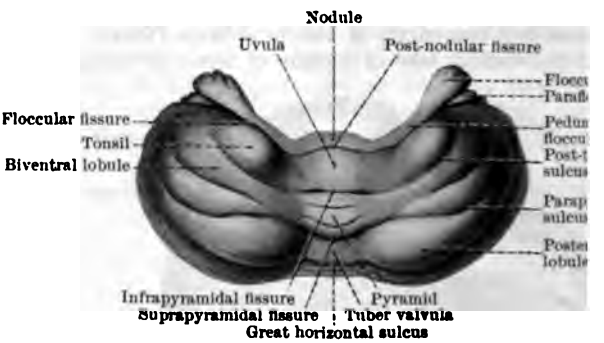


FIG. 426.—UNDER SURFACE OF THE CEREBELLUM OF A HUMA WHICH HAS REACHED THE END OF THE FIFTH MONTH OF DEVE

After the main fissures of the vermis are established, four important sulci on the surface of each cerebellar hemisphere come into view, viz. the postlun post-tonsillar, the parapyramidal, and the great horizontal sulci.

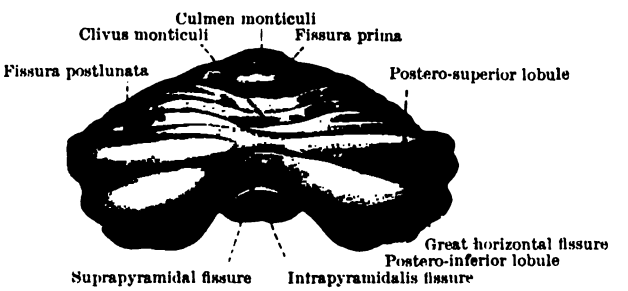


FIG. 427.—CEREBELLUM OF A HUMAN FŒTUS WHICH HAS REACHED THE END OF THE FIFTH MONTH OF DEVELOPMENT. Viewed from above and behind.

The **fissura postlu** pears in the fourth mo curves inwards on th surface of the organ be posterior crescentic lob many cases it becor fluent with its fellow opposite side behind t monticuli. The **post-fissure** is seen on th surface of the cerebellu the beginning of the fift It circumscribes the p and conspicuous to becomes confluent w fissura infrapyramidalis. The **parapyramidal fissure** appears on the under surfa cerebellar hemisphere behind the biventral lobule, and usually joins the suprap fissure of the inferior vermis.

The **great horizontal fissure**, in spite of its depth in the adult brain—a depth which ue to the excessive growth in the later months of development of the two lobules that nd it—appears very late in the development of the cerebellum. It is first seen as a broad shallow groove or furrow on the outer margin of the hemisphere. From this uns forwards to the middle peduncle and backwards towards the vermis, where it ally joins the postlunate fissure. At this stage there is no folium cacuminis, so that combined portion of the postlunate and great horizontal fissures intervenes between clivus monticuli and the tuber valvulæ. Even at the time of birth the folium minis is not seen on the surface. It rises up from the bottom of the combined portions ie great horizontal and postlunate fissures so as to form a barrier between them.

Very early a transverse groove appears on the smooth anterior or ventricular surface ie cerebellum (Fig. 425, B, T). This is placed much nearer the lower than the upper er of the organ, and it represents at this stage the angular peak of the tent-like roof e fourth ventricle in the adult brain. As growth goes on, the portions of the cere- m in front and behind this groove approach each other, so as to deepen the groove ring about the backward prolongation of the ventricular cavity towards the cerebellum.

The leading distinctive characters of the human cerebellum are: (1) the small size e flocculus; (2) the large size of the tonsil; (3) the excessive development of the al hemisphere, and particularly of the postero-superior and postero-inferior lobules h bound the great horizontal fissure.

THE MESENCEPHALON.

The mesencephalon or mid-brain is the short, narrow part of the brain-stem h occupies the aperture of the tentorium cerebelli (incisura tentorii), and ects the cerebrum which lies above with the parts which occupy the posterior ial fossa. It is about three-quarters of an inch in length, and it consists of a al part, composed of the **corpora quadrigemina**, and a much larger ventral part, h is formed by the two **crura cerebri**.

In the undissected brain the corpora quadrigemina are completely hidden from by the splenium of the corpus callosum, which projects backwards over them, also by the superimposed cerebral hemispheres. The hinder end of each optic amus likewise, to some extent, overhangs the upper part of the mesencephalon ts dorsal and lateral aspect (Fig. 388, p. 482). On this portion of the optic amus are seen two projections, which are specially related to the mesencephalon. se are the cushion-like **pulvinar**, which forms the inner and hinder part of the amus, and the **corpus geniculatum externum**, an ill-defined oval swelling on the r and under aspect of the posterior end of the thalamus.

The crura cerebri can to some extent be seen on the base of the brain, where bound the posterior part of the interpeduncular space. Encircling the upper of each crus cerebri, where it plunges into the cerebrum, is the optic tract . 380, p. 474).

The mesencephalon is tunnelled from below upwards by a narrow passage, ed the **aqueduct of Sylvius**, which connects the fourth ventricle with the third tricle (Fig. 429, p. 533). This channel lies much nearer the dorsal than the tral aspect of the mesencephalon.

Corpora Quadrigemina.—This name is applied to four rounded eminences on posterior aspect of the mesencephalon (Fig. 388, p. 482). The **superior pair** are er and broader than the **inferior pair**, but they are not so well defined nor are so prominent. A longitudinal and a transverse groove separate the quad- minal bodies from each other. The longitudinal groove occupies the mesial plane extends upwards to the posterior commissure of the brain. The upper end of groove widens out into a shallow depression, in which the **pineal body**, a small ical structure which belongs to the diencephalon, rests. From the lower end of same groove a short but well-defined and projecting band, the **frenulum veli**, es to the valve of Vieussens, which lies immediately below the inferior pair quadrigeminal bodies. The transverse groove curves round below each of the erior pair of quadrigeminal bodies and separates them from the inferior pair. is also continued in an upward and forward direction on the lateral aspect the mesencephalon.

The quadrigeminal bodies are not marked off laterally from the sides of t mesencephalon, but each has in connexion with it, on this aspect, a promin strand of white matter, which is prolonged upwards and forwards under projecting pulvinar and corpus geniculatum externum. These strands are ca the **brachia of the corpora quadrigemina**, and they are separated from each other a continuation on the side of the mesencephalon of the transverse groove, wh intervenes between the two pairs of bodies.

The **corpus geniculatum internum** (corpus geniculatum mediale) is clo associated with the brachia. It is a small, sharply-defined oval eminence, wh lies on the side of the upper part of the mesencephalon under shelter of the pulvi of the optic thalamus.

The **inferior brachium** (brachium quadrigeminum inferius), proceeding upw from the lower quadrigeminal body, advances towards the corpus geniculat internum and disappears from view under cover of this prominence. Upon t opposite side of the same geniculate body the mesial root of origin of the optic tr takes shape on the surface, and the appearance is such that the conclusion mig very naturally be arrived at that the inferior brachium and this root of the opti tract are continuous with each other under the genic late elevation. This is not the case, however; th fibres of the inferior brachium, to a large exte proceed into the subjacent tegmentum under cover the internal geniculate body and help to constitute ascending tract from the inferior quadrigeminal bod which proceeds upwards to the optic thalamus. Of th fibres of the mesial root of the optic tract some end i the gray matter of the internal geniculate body, whil others arise within it. They constitute what is calle **Gudden's commissure.**

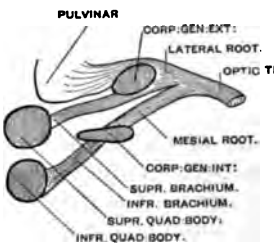


FIG. 428.—DIAGRAM OF THE ROOTS OF THE OPTIC NERVE.

The **superior brachium** (brachium quadrigeminum superius) is carried upwards and forwards between the overhanging pulvinar and the corpus geniculatum internum. A surface examination of the mesencephalon is sufficient to show that, while a large part of this strand enters the corpus geniculatum externum, a considerable portion runs into the lateral root of the optic tract.

The **optic tract** is thus attached to the brain-stem by two roots, viz. a mesial and a lateral, which are separated from each other by a distinct groove. The **mesial root** disappears under the internal geniculate body. The **lateral root** spreads out and some of its fibres enter the superior quadrigeminal body through its brachium, whilst others find their way into the corpus geniculatum externum and the pulvinar of the optic thalamus (Fig. 428).

Crura Cerebri (pedunculi cerebri).—The crura cerebri constitute the chief bulk of the mesencephalon (Fig. 429, p. 533). Upon the basal aspect of the brain they appear as two large rope-like strands, which emerge close together from the upper aspect of the pons Varolii and diverge as they proceed upwards to enter the cerebrum. At the place where each crus disappears into the corresponding side of the cerebrum, it is encircled by the optic tract.

Each crus cerebri is composed of two parts, viz. a **dorsal tegmental part** (tegmentum), which is prolonged upwards into the region below the optic thalamus (subthalamic tegmental region), and a **ventral pedal portion** or **crusta** (basis pedunculi), which, when traced upwards into the cerebrum, is seen to take up a position on the outer side of the optic thalamus and to be continuous with the internal capsule of the brain. When the base of the brain is examined it is the crusta which is seen, and it is observed to be white in colour and streaked in the longitudinal direction. In the tegmentum the longitudinally-arranged fibres are, for the most part, *corticipetal*, or, in other words, fibres which are ascending towards the cortex of the cerebrum; the crusta, on the other hand, is entirely composed of longitudinal strands of fibres which are *corticifugal*, or fibres which descend from the cortex cerebri.

On the surface of the mesencephalon the separation between the tegmental and

ions of the crus cerebri is clearly indicated by an inner and an outer groove.
· or mesial furrow is the more distinct of the two. It looks into the
icular space, and from it emerge the fascicles of the third or oculo-motor
is, therefore, termed the **sulcus oculo-motorii** (sulcus nervi oculo-motorii).
· groove, which is placed on the lateral aspect of the mesencephalon,
ıe name of the **sulcus lateralis mesencephali**. When traced downwards, it
l to become continuous with the furrow which intervenes between the
l superior peduncles of the cerebellum.
ɜ inspection of the outer surface of the tegmental part of the crus cerebri,
level of the quadrigeminal brachia, will reveal some faintly-marked
· fibres curving obliquely upwards and backwards to reach the inferior
inal body (Fig. 390, p. 484). These are fibres of the **lateral fillet**, coming
·face at the sulcus lateralis and sweeping over the subjacent superior
peduncle to gain the inferior quadrigeminal body.

INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE MESENCEPHALON.

transverse sections are made through the mesencephalon the aqueduct of
seen to be surrounded by a thick layer of gray matter, which receives the
ıe **Sylvian gray matter** or the **central gray matter of the aqueduct** (stratum
ıntrale). On the dorsal aspect of the Sylvian gray matter the corpora
ina form a layer which separates it from the surface, and to which the
ıa **quadrigemina** is applied.
ıntral and lateral aspects
lvian gray matter are the
portions of the crura
hilst, intervening between
he latter and the corre-
crusta, there is a con-
mass of dark pigmented
med the **substantia nigra.**

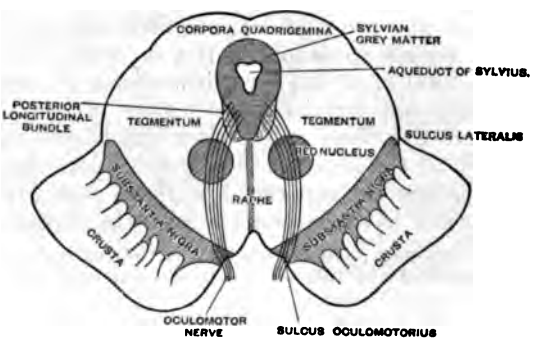


FIG. 429.—DIAGRAMMATIC VIEW OF THE CUT SURFACE OF A TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER PART OF THE MESENCEPHALON.

ın Aqueduct and Sylvian
tter (aquæductus cerebri griseum centrale).—The
of Sylvius is the canal
s from the fourth ventricle
vards through the mesen-
ɔ the third ventricle above.
quite three-quarters of an inch in length, and it lies much nearer
than the ventral surface of the mesencephalon. When examined in
section, it presents a triangular outline as it passes into the fourth
ınd a T-shaped outline close to the third ventricle. In the intermediate
ɜ course it assumes different outlines, and not always the same form at
evel in different individuals.
ueduct of Sylvius is lined by ciliated epithelium, and outside this is the
r of Sylvian gray matter, which is directly continuous below with the gray
ead out on the floor of the fourth ventricle, and above with gray matter
or and sides of the third ventricle. Scattered more or less irregularly
t the Sylvian gray matter are numerous nerve-cells of varying forms and
ɜt in addition to these there are three definite collections or clusters of
h constitute the nuclei of origin of the trochlear nerve, the oculo-motor
l the mesencephalic root of the trigeminal nerve. The position and
f these will be given at a later stage.
ıntia Nigra.—When seen in transverse section, the substantia nigra
semilunar outline. It consists of a mass of gray matter, in the midst of
large numbers of deeply pigmented nerve-cells. It is only when this
is examined in bulk that it appears dark; in thin sections it does not
h in colour from ordinary gray matter, although, under the microscope,
-coloured cells stand out very conspicuously, even under low powers.

The substantia nigra is disposed in the form of a thick layer, interposed between the tegmental and pedal portions of the crus cerebri. It begins below at the upper border of the pons Varolii and extends upwards into the subthalamic region. The margins of this layer of dark-coloured substance come to the surface at the oculo-motor and the lateral sulci of the mesencephalon, and its inner part is traversed by the emerging fascicles of the oculo-motor nerve. It is not equally thick throughout. Towards the lateral sulcus it becomes thin, whilst it thickens considerably near the inner aspect of the crus cerebri. The surface of the substantia nigra, which is turned towards the tegmentum, is concave and uniform; the opposite surface is convex and rendered irregular by the presence of numerous slender prolongations of the substance into the crusta.

The morphological and physiological significance of the substantia nigra is not fully understood, and the connexions established by its cells are imperfectly known.

Inferior Quadrigeminal Bodies (colliculi inferiores).—Each of the inferior quadrigeminal bodies is largely composed of a mass of gray matter which, in transverse section, presents an oval outline (Fig. 432, p. 537). This central nucleus is, to a large extent, encapsulated by white matter. Numerous cells of different sizes are scattered throughout it, and the whole mass is pervaded by an intricate interlacement of fine fibres, which, to a large extent, are derived from the lateral fillet and the inferior brachium.

In transverse sections, through this region, the lateral fillet is seen to abut against the outer margin of the central nucleus. Many of the fibres of this tract enter it at once and become dispersed amongst its cells; others sweep over its dorsal surface, so as to give it a superficial covering; whilst a third group is carried in the form of a thin layer inwards on its ventral aspect, so as to mark it off from the subjacent Sylvian gray matter of the aqueduct (Fig. 432, p. 537). In this manner, therefore, the inferior quadrigeminal nucleus becomes partially circumscribed by the fibres of the lateral fillet. Several of the lateral fillet fibres, which proceed over the superficial or dorsal aspect of the nucleus, reach the mesial plane and form a loose decussation with the corresponding fibres of the opposite side.

The intimate connexion which is thus exhibited between the fibres of the lateral fillet and the nucleus of the inferior quadrigeminal body is very significant. It has already been shown that the lateral fillet, to a large extent, comes from the nuclei of termination of the cochlear nerve of the opposite side, although most of its fibres have to pass through several nuclear internodes before they reach the inferior quadrigeminal body. We must associate, therefore, the inferior quadrigeminal body, and also the corpus geniculatum internum, which likewise receives lateral fillet fibres, with the organ of hearing.

This view of the inferior quadrigeminal bodies is supported both by experimental and by morphological evidence. Speaking broadly, it may be stated that the inferior quadrigeminal bodies are only present as distinct eminences in mammals, and then they are invariably correlated with a spirally-wound and well-developed cochlea. That they have nothing to do with sight, is shown by the fact that, when the eyeballs are extirpated in a young animal, the inferior quadrigeminal bodies remain unaffected, whilst the superior quadrigeminal bodies after a time atrophy (Gudden). When, on the other hand, the cochlear terminal nuclei are destroyed, fibres which have undergone atrophy may be followed to the inferior quadrigeminal bodies of both sides, but particularly to that of the opposite side (Baginski, Bumm, and Ferrier and Turner). A very considerable tract of ascending fibres takes origin within the inferior quadrigeminal body and passes upwards, in the inferior brachium, into the tegmentum subjacent to the internal geniculate body. Within the tegmentum they proceed up to the optic thalamus (Ferrier and Turner).

Superior Quadrigeminal Bodies (colliculi superiores).—The superior quadrigeminal body presents a more complicated structure (Fig. 431). Superficially, it is coated with a very thin layer of white matter, which is termed the **stratum zonale**. Underneath this there is a gray nucleus, called the **stratum cinereum**, which in transverse section exhibits a crescentic outline and rests in a cap-like manner upon the subjacent part of the eminence. The succeeding two strata, which respectively receive the names of **stratum opticum** and the **stratum lemnisci**, present this feature in common, that they are composed of gray matter, traversed by numerous fibres. The source from which the fibres are derived differs, however, in each case.

Nerve-fibres reach the superior quadrigeminal body through—(1) the lateral and mesial fillets, and (2) through the superior brachium. The **fillet fibres** enter

stratum lemnisci, and, in all probability, end there. The **superior brachium** ains fibres of two different kinds, viz. fibres from the optic tract and fibres from cortex of the occipital lobe of the cerebrum. By the former it is connected h the retina, and by the latter with the visual centre in the occipital region of cerebral cortex. The *retinal fibres*, for the most part, spread out on the surface the quadrigeminal body and form the stratum zonale. Most of them dip down o the substance of the body and end in connexion with the cells of the deeper ers; several, however, are carried across the mesial plane, to end in the superior drigeminal body of the opposite side. The *occipital fibres*, and probably also e of the retinal fibres, enter the stratum opticum. The fibres from the occipital ex form part of the optic radiation, and the course which they pursue will be lt with later on.

Tegmental Portions of the Crura Cerebri (tegmenta).—The tegmentum of crus cerebri may be regarded as the continuation upwards of the formatio cularis of the medulla the dorsal or tegmental tion of the pons into mesencephalon. It refore consists of fine idles of longitudinal es intersected by arch- fibres, which take a nsverse and curved rse. The interstices ween these nerve- idles is occupied by y matter containing ir- ularly scattered nerve- s. On its dorsal aspect tegmentum is con- uous, at the side of the vian gray matter, with bases of the corpora drigemina, whilst ven- lly it is separated from crusta by the sub- ntia nigra. The two menta of opposite sides , to some extent, marked from each other in the sial plane by a pro- gation upwards of the dian raphe of the pons d medulla, although, in the lower part of the mesencephalon, this is much scured by the decussation of the superior peduncles of the cerebellum. The two gitudinal strands, termed the **posterior longitudinal bundle** and the **fillet**, are olonged upwards throughout the entire length of the mesencephalon; and they esent the same relations to the tegmentum as in the lower parts of the brain. e former is placed in relation to its dorsal aspect, whilst the fillet is carried up its ventral part.

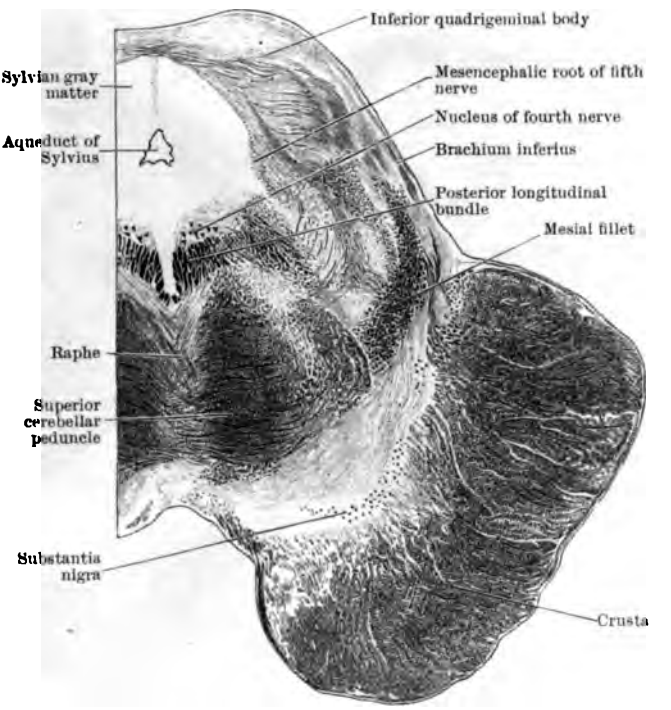


FIG. 430.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE HUMAN MESENCEPHALON AT THE LEVEL OF THE INFERIOR QUADRIGEMINAL BODY.

The tegmentum of the crus cerebri may be considered as presenting two parts: z. (1) a lower part, which is placed subjacent to the inferior quadrigeminal bodies d which is largely occupied by the decussation of the superior cerebellar peduncles ig. 430); and (2) a superior part, subjacent to the superior quadrigeminal dies, which is traversed by the emerging bundles of the third nerve and which ntains a large and striking nuclear mass, termed the nucleus ruber or the red tegental nucleus (Fig. 431). In the lower part of the mesencephalon is the nucleus the fourth nerve; in the upper part, the nucleus of the third nerve.

Superior Cerebellar Peduncles (brachia conjunctiva).—As the superior cere-

bellar peduncles leave the pons and sink into the tegmenta of the mesencephal they undergo a complete decussation subjacent to the inferior quadrigeminal bod and the Sylvian gray matter (Figs. 407, p. 505; 432, p. 537; and 430, p. 5 In this manner each peduncle is transferred from one side, across the me plane, to the opposite side. The decussation is completed at the level the upper borders of the inferior quadrigeminal bodies, and then each pedu proceeds upwards into the superior part of the tegmentum, where it encoun the red nucleus. Into this a large proportion of its fibres plunge and come to end in connexion with the nuclear cells. Many of the peduncular fibres, h ever, are carried around the nucleus so as to form for it a capsule which is thic on the inner than on the outer side (Fig. 431). These are prolonged into subthalamic region, and ultimately penetrate the ventral aspect of the optic tha

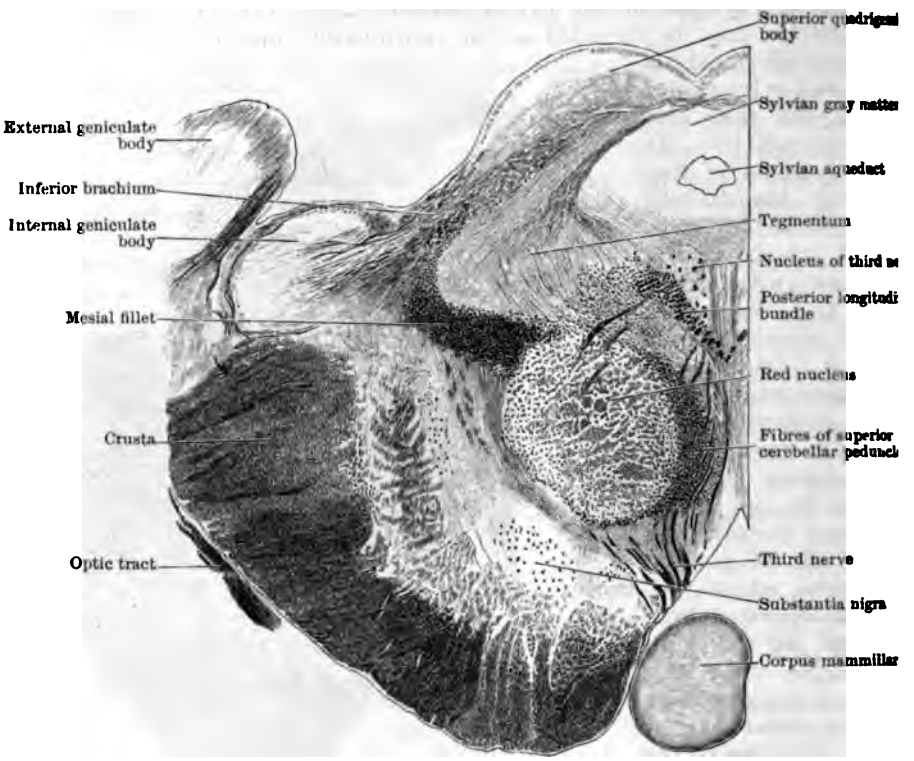


FIG. 431.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE HUMAN MESENCEPHALON AT THE LEVEL OF THE SUP QUADRIGEMINAL BODY.

mus, where they end in connexion with the thalamic cells. The superior cereb peduncle is, therefore, a great efferent tract which issues from the la hemisphere of the cerebellum, crosses the mesial plane in the lower part of mesencephalon, and ends in the red nucleus and the ventral part of the thalamus.

Red Nucleus (nucleus ruber).—This is a rounded nuclear mass, of a red tint in the fresh brain, which lies in the upper part of the tegmentum, and in path of the superior cerebellar peduncle. In transverse section it presents a cir outline. It begins at the level of the lower border of the superior quadrigem body and it extends upwards into the subthalamic tegmental region. At first small and is placed at a little distance from the mesial plane; but as it pro towards the subthalamic region, it increases in bulk and approaches more n to the mesial raphe, and its neighbour of the opposite side. The curved emer bundles of the third nerve pass through it on their way to the surface. relation which the fibres of the opposite superior cerebellar peduncle present has been described. These fibres traverse its lower part in such numbers th Weigert-Pal specimens it presents a very dark colour; but higher up, as the

ually absorbed by the nuclear mass, they become less numerous in its nd the nucleus assumes a paler tint.

rous fibres which descend from the cerebral cortex and others from the corpus striatum red nucleus. It likewise sends out fibres which proceed in two directions: (1) upwards halamus; (2) downwards to the spinal cord. The former may be regarded as carrying ntinuity of the superior cerebellar path after its internodal interruption in the red The fibres to the spinal cord, called the *rubro-spinal tract* and first described by , cross to the opposite side and then descend in the tegmentum to reach the lateral the cord.

erior Longitudinal Fasciculus.—This is a very conspicuous tract of longi- fibres which extends throughout the whole length of the medulla, pons, and phalon, in the formatio reticularis or tegmental part of each. Below, at the the decussation of the pyramids, it becomes continuous with the anterior ndle of the spinal cord (p. 491), whilst, by its opposite or upper end, it ies intricate connexions in .on immediately above the phalon. Throughout its ength it lies close to the plane and its fellow of the side. In the mesen- it is applied to the aspect of the Sylvian gray whilst in the pons and it is situated immediately it to the gray matter of the the fourth ventricle. One iost salient features is the association which it pre- th the three motor nuclei hich the nerves for the f the muscles of the eye- origin, viz. the oculo-motor nucleus, the trochlear or nucleus, and the abducent nucleus. The first two of e closely applied to its inner sal aspect, whilst the ab- nucleus is placed on its de. Into each of these nuclei it sends many collaterals, and probably also its constituent fibres, and these end in terminal arborisations around the cells. It would appear, therefore, that one of the most important functions strand is to bind together these nuclei, and thus enable them to act in y with each other. Fibres also enter the posterior longitudinal fasciculus e auditory system and perhaps, also, from the facial and other motor The results obtained by degeneration would seem to indicate that, to a tent, it is formed of fibres which run a short course within it.

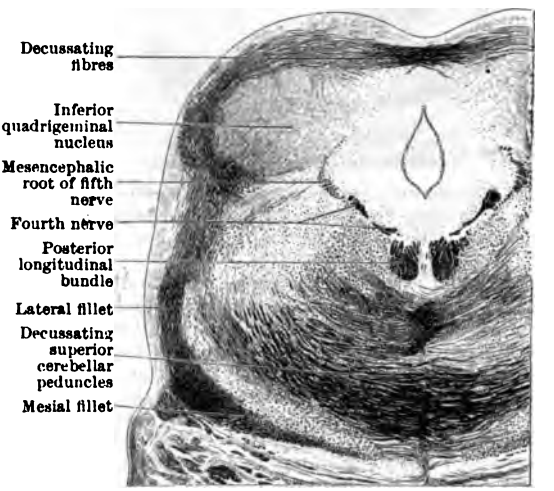


FIG. 432.—SECTION THROUGH THE INFERIOR QUADRIGEMINAL BODY AND THE TEGMENTUM OF THE MESENCEPHALON BELOW THE LEVEL OF THE NUCLEUS OF THE FOURTH NERVE IN THE ORANG. (The decussation of the superior cerebellar peduncles and the course of the fourth nerve in the Sylvian gray matter are seen.)

te of the large amount of attention which has been given to the study of the posterior nal bundle, it must be admitted that there is little unanimity of opinion regarding its as and functions. That it is a brain tract of high importance, is evident from the fact present in all vertebrates, and, further, that its fibres assume their medullary sheaths remely early period. In fish, amphibians, and reptiles, it is one of the most powerful of the medulla. In man its fibres medullate between the sixth and seventh months of , and at the same time as the fibres of the anterior basis-bundle of the cord, with which in connexion.

ling to Van Gehuchten and Edinger, it extends upwards beyond the level of the tor nucleus, and in the subthalamic region its fibres take origin from a special nucleus of n the gray matter of the third ventricle, immediately below the level of the corpora aria. Fibres also enter the posterior longitudinal bundle from a nucleus common to it osterior commissure of the brain. This nucleus is placed in the fore-part of the Sylvian ter of the mid-brain. Held asserts that numerous fibres, arising from cells in the superior ninal body, curve in an arcuate manner in the tegmentum outside the Sylvian gray

matter, to take part on the ventral aspect of this in what is called the "fountain decu Reaching the opposite side these fibres turn downwards and join the posterior long fasciculus. The same authority considers that fibres from the ventral part of the commissure can also be traced wards into the posterior long bundle. Edinger, on the othe places these fibres as a distinct the ventral and lateral aspect posterior longitudinal bundle, a in apposition with it.

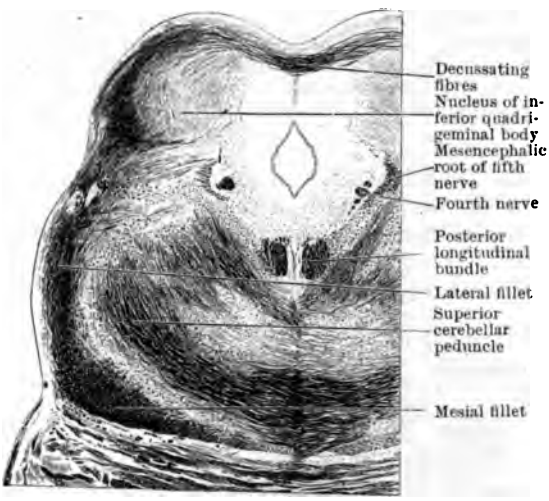


FIG. 433.—SECTION THROUGH THE INFERIOR QUADRIGEMINAL BODY AND THE TEGMENTUM OF THE MESENCEPHALON, AT A SLIGHTLY LOWER LEVEL THAN FIG. 432.

Mendel believes that fibres f oculo-motor nucleus are carried the posterior longitudinal bund from this, into the facial nerve supply of the orbicularis palp and the corrugator supercilii, these muscles therefore under the of the same nucleus as the levato bræ superioris muscle. This v received corroboration at the Tooth and Turner. It has been suggested that fibres from the hy nucleus may, by the posterior long fasciculus, reach the facial ne through it the orbicularis oris. manner the same nucleus wou sway over the tongue and the s muscle of the lips. The close which exists between the ascend of the intrapontine portion of t nerve and the posterior longitudinal bundle would render the passage of fibres from o other a matter which could easily be understood. Another interchange of fibres thr posterior longitudinal bundle has been described by Duval and Laborde. According authorities, fibres from the abducent nucleus ascend in the posterior longitudinal bundle into the mesencephalon, and establish connexions with that part of the oculo-motor nucleus from which the nerve for the internal rectus of the opposite side derives its fibres. If this view be correct, it affords a ready and simple anatomical explanation of the harmonious action of the external and internal recti muscles in producing movements of the two eyeballs simultaneously to the right and to the left. From the investigations of E. H. Fraser it would appear that no fibres from the abducent nucleus go directly into the oculo-motor nerve. The same observer has shown that many fibres from Deiters' nucleus, through the path afforded by the posterior longitudinal bundle, enter the third and the fourth nuclei.

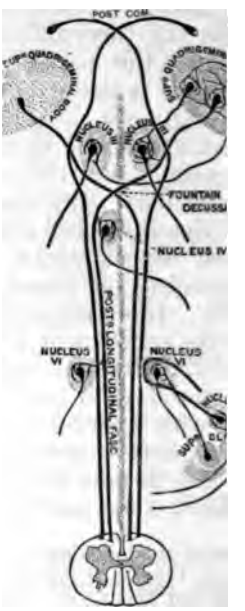


FIG. 434.—DIAGRAM OF NEXIONS OF THE LONGITUDINAL BUNDL Held—modified).

Lateral Fillet (lemniscus lateralis).—The lateral fillet is a definite tract of longitudinal fibres, which extends upwards through the lateral part of the tegmental substance of the upper portion of the pons and the mesencephalon. It is formed by the fibres of the corpus trapezoides in the lower part of the pons, abruptly turning upwards and taking a course towards the quadrigeminal region. Entering into its constitution, therefore, are fibres from several sources, viz. (1) from the terminal cochlear nuclei of the opposite side; (2) from the terminal cochlear nuclei of the same side; (3) from the superior olivary nuclei. As the tract proceeds upwards a continuation of the gray matter of the superior olivary nucleus is carried up in connexion with it to form the nucleus of the lateral fillet, and fr fibres are also added to the strand. In the mesencephalon the fibres lateral fillet end in the nucleus of the inferior quadrigeminal body (p. 5 in the gray substance of the corpus geniculatum internum, whilst a carried into the superior quadrigeminal body. The fibres which go to the drigeminal body sweep outwards round the outer side of the superi

peduncle, and to some extent appear on the surface of the mesencephalon 3).

t the lateral fillet cannot be considered as a tract composed entirely of ascending fibres ing to the auditory system. It also contains descending fibres, the connexions and ms of which are not fully understood. These have been traced by Ferrier and Turner h the pons and medulla into the lateral column of the cord.

lesial Fillet (lemniscus mesialis).—The mesial fillet has already been followed gh the medulla and pons, and its position in each of these portions of the -stem has been defined (pp. 493 and 504). In the tegmentum of the lower of the mesencephalon it is carried up in the form of a more or less flattened on the ventral aspect of the decussating superior cerebellar peduncles. To ıter side, and forming an angle with it (as seen in transverse section), is the ıl fillet (Figs. 432 and 433), and at this level there is no clear demarcation een these two tracts. In the r part of the mesencephalon the arance of the red nucleus in the ıentum causes the mesial fillet to up a more lateral and dorsal ion, so that it now comes to lie ıcent to the corpus geniculatum num (Fig. 431, p. 536). At this it exhibits a crescentic outline ansverse section, and the lateral has to a large extent disappeared its outer side.

he mesial fillet takes origin in lower part of the medulla ob- ıta from the gracile and cuneate ıi of the opposite side (p. 493). ıg that the posterior column of ord ends in these nuclei, the fillet be considered to continue that ın upwards into the brain. In ıesencephalon a considerable con- tion of fibres is given by the mesial to the superior quadrigeminal , and then the remainder of the proceeds through the subthalamic ental region into the hinder part ıe lateral nucleus of the optic mus. Here its fibres end in ter- l arborisations around the thala- ells.

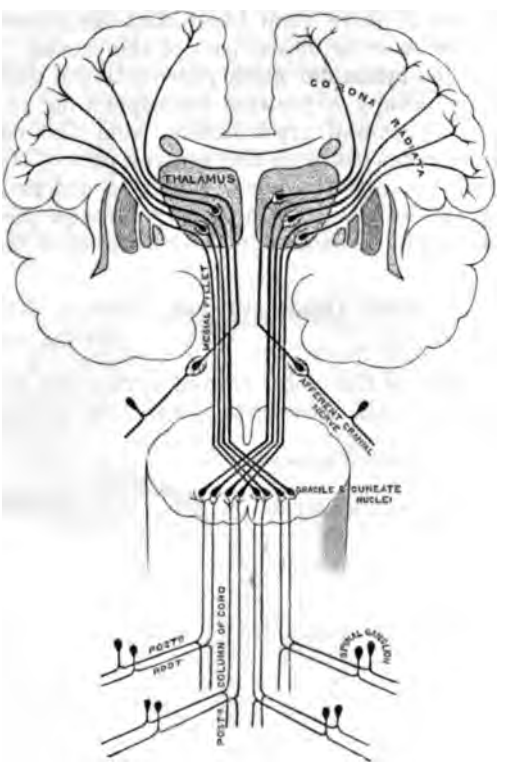


FIG. 435.—DIAGRAM OF THE CONNEXIONS OF THE MESIAL FILLET AND ALSO OF CERTAIN OF THE THALAMO-CORTICAL FIBRES.

ınglion Interpedunculare and Fasci- Retroflexus.—On the ventral aspect of the tegmentum, close to the surface and to the l plane, there is a small group of cells in the lower part of the gray matter which forms cus perforatus posticus. This is termed the *ganglion interpedunculare*.

ıe *fasciculus retroflexus* is a small band of fibres which arises above in the ganglion ıula—a nuclear mass which will be studied in connexion with the diencephalon—and runs downwards and forwards in the tegmentum of the upper part of the mesencephalon en the inner aspect of the nucleus ruber and the mesial plane, to end in the ganglion ıedunculare.

ountain Decussation.—If the region in front of the posterior longitudinal bundles be ined in the upper part of the mesencephalon a very close decussation of fibres in the mesial will be observed in the interval between the two red nuclei. This is the "fountain sation." According to Held, the fibres which take part in the dorsal portion of the ain decussation (decussation of Meynert) come from the superior quadrigeminal bodies, and, they have gained the opposite side, they turn downwards in the posterior longitudinal ulus. The ventral part of the decussation (decussation of Forel) would appear to be formed cuate fibres of the tegmentum which arise in the gray matter of the Sylvian aqueduct.

rusta or Pes of the Crus Cerebri (basis pedunculi).—The crusta presents a

somewhat crescentic outline when seen in section, and it stands quite apart fr its fellow of the opposite side. It is composed of a compact mass of longitudina directed fibres, all of which, as Déjerine has shown, arise in the cortex of t cerebrum and pursue an unbroken corticifugal course into and through the cr of the crus cerebri. These fibres may be classified into two distinct sets, v cortico-pontine and pyramidal.

The **cortico-pontine fibres** possess this leading peculiarity: in their course do wards they are all arrested in the ventral part of the pons Varolii and end fine terminal arborisations around the cells of the nucleus pontis. They come fr certain well-defined areas of cerebral cortex, viz. (1) the cortex of the prefro part of the frontal lobe, and (2) the cortex of the middle portion of the tempo lobe. These tracts would appear to hold a very definite position within the cr Thus it has been satisfactorily established that the *temporo-pontine strand* forms t outer or lateral fifth of the crusta, whilst the researches of Ferrier and Tur render it more than likely that the *fronto-pontine strand* holds a similar positi in the inner or mesial part of the crusta.

The **pyramidal fibres** constitute the great motor tract from the cerebral cort They occupy a position corresponding to the middle three-fifths of the crus The pyramidal tract differs from the cortico-pontine strands in being carri downwards through the ventral part of the pons and on the ventral aspect of t medulla into the cord, which it enters in the form of the crossed and dire pyramidal tracts. On its way through the pons and medulla it sends fibres to th various motor nuclei in those sections of the brain-stem.

Deep Origin of the Cranial Nerves which arise within the Mesencephalon.

Two of the motor cranial nerves, viz. the oculo-motor and the trochlear nerves, as well as the mesencephalic root of the trigeminal nerve, obtain origin within the mesencephalon. The nuclei from which they spring are all situated within the gray matter of the Sylvian aqueduct.

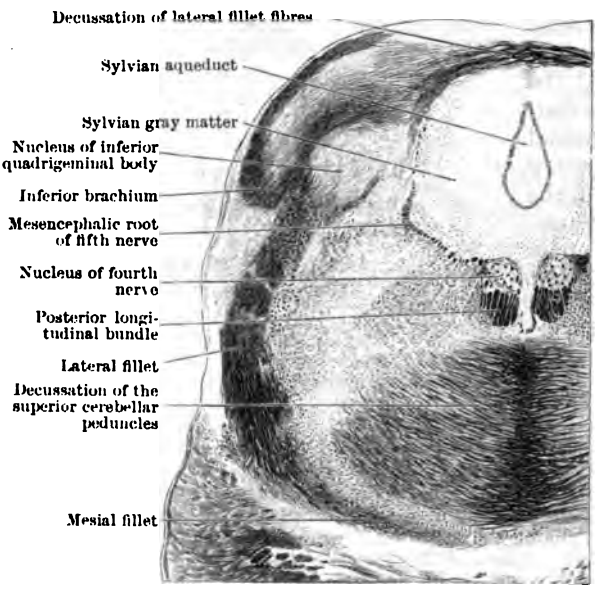


Fig. 436.—Section through the Inferior Quadrigeminal Body and the Tegmentum of the Mesencephalon at the Level of the Middle Part of the Nucleus of the Trochlear Nerve (Orang).

Mesencephalic Root of the Trigeminal Nerve (radix descendens).—The fibres of this root arise from a column of large, sparsely-arranged cells, which extends throughout the entire length of the mesencephalon. These cells lie in the outer part of the Sylvian gray matter, close to the tegmentum. The axons which emerge from the cells run downwards close to the outer surface of the Sylvian gray matter in the form of a small, gradually-increasing tract. In the lower part of the mesencephalon this tract assumes a crescentic outline, and ultimately comes to lie on the inner aspect of the superior cerebellar peduncle (Fig. 406, p. 504). The further course of the mesencephalic root of the fifth nerve through the upper part of the pons, to the point where it joins the emerging motor root of the trigeminal nerve, has already been traced (p. 526).

Trochlear or Fourth Nerve (nervus trochlearis).—The trochlear nerve supplies

or oblique muscle of the eyeball. It emerges from the brain, on its ect, at the upper part of the superior medullary velum, immediately lower border of the inferior quadrigeminal body (Fig. 438, p 543). The om which it arises is a small oval mass of gray matter, placed in the rt of the Sylvian gray matter at the level of the upper part of the uadrigeminal body. The close association of this nucleus with the ngitudinal bundle has already been alluded to. It is sunk deeply in a i is hollowed out on the dorsal and inner aspect of that tract. The a course of some length within the mesencephalon. The axons of the the outer aspect of the nuclear mass, and curve backwards and outwards lvian gray matter until they reach the concave inner surface of the alic root of the trigeminal nerve. Here they are gathered together into o round bundles, which, bending sharply, turn downwards at a right descend on the inner side of the trigeminal root. When the region inferior quadrigeminal body is reached, the nerve makes another sharp is time it turns inwards, enters the upper end of the superior medullary which it decussates with its fellow of the opposite side. Having thus e mesial plane, the trochlear nerve emerges at the inner border of the rebellar peduncle. The course pursued by the fourth nerve within the ay matter may be traced by examining in succession Fig. 437; Fig. 432, g. 433, p. 538; and Fig. 407, p. 505.

motor or Third Nerve (nervus oculo-motorius).—The oculo-motor nerve ie levator palpebræ superioris, all the ocular muscles, with the exception perior oblique and ial rectus, and also es within the eyeball, phincter iridis and ulus ciliaris. The origin is placed in l part of the Sylvian er subjacent to the quadrigeminal body p. 536). In length es from 5 to 6 mm. end is partially con- ith the nucleus of ear nerve, whilst its extends upwards for listance beyond the alon into the gray the lateral wall of entricle. Its relation sterior longitudinal even more intimate ; of the trochlear It is closely applied sal and inner aspect rand; many of its py a position in the some even are seen on its ventral or tegmental aspect. The axons of ir cells leave the nucleus in numerous bundles, which describe a series as they proceed forwards through the posterior longitudinal bundle, the n, red nucleus, and inner margin of the substantia nigra, to finally emerge brain-stem along the bottom of the sulcus oculo-motorius on the inner he crus cerebri.

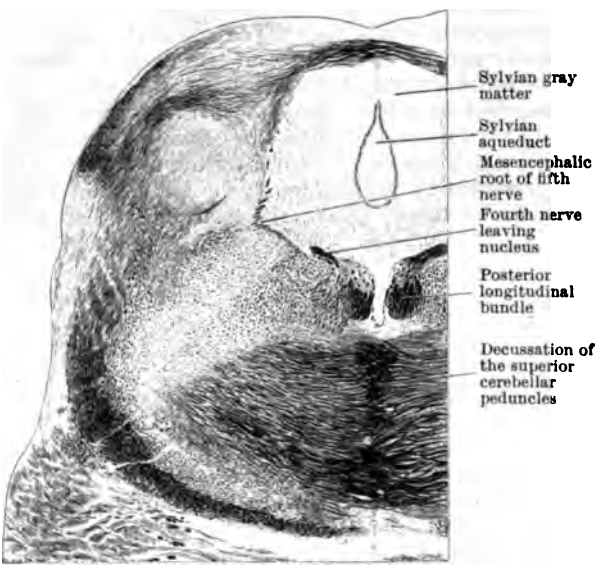


FIG. 437.—SECTION THROUGH THE INFERIOR QUADRIGEMINAL BODY AND THE TEGMENTUM OF THE MESENCEPHALON AT THE LEVEL OF THE LOWER PART OF THE NUCLEUS OF THE TROCHLEAR NERVE (Orang).

s of the oculo-motor nucleus are not uniformly distributed throughout it. They are o several more or less distinct collections or clumps, some of which possess cells which e and appearance from the others. These cell-clusters are very generally believed to finite relation to the several branches of the nerve and the muscles which they rlia recognises no less than seven such cell-clusters in each nucleus, with a small

median nucleus placed accurately on the middle line, and from which fibres for both ... spring. Whilst the majority of the fibres in the oculo-motor nerve arise from the cell-g... which lie on its own side of the mesial plane, it has been satisfactorily established that a c... proportion of its fibres are derived from the nucleus of the opposite side, thus forming a c... connexion and giving rise to a median decussation. These crossed fibres are supposed by ... to supply the internal rectus muscle; and we have seen that there is reason to believe that ... part of the nucleus from which these fibres are derived stands in connexion through the post... longitudinal fasciculus with the abducent or sixth nucleus from which proceeds the nerv... supply for the external rectus muscle. The harmonious action of the internal and external ... in producing the conjugate movements of the eyeballs is thus explained.

The oculo-motor nucleus is connected—(1) with the occipital part of the cerebral cortex ... fibres which reach it through the optic radiation; (2) with the trochlear and abducent nu... (and probably with other nuclei) by fibres which come to it through the posterior longitud... bundle; (3) possibly with the facial nerve by fibres which pass out from it into the poste... longitudinal bundle (p. 538); (4) with the visual system by fibres which enter it from the cells ... the superior quadrigeminal body.

Development of the Mesencephalon.

Even in the early embryo the mesencephalon constitutes the smallest section of t... brain-tube, although the disproportion in size between it and the other primitive s... divisions of the brain is not nearly so marked as in the adult. Owing to the cephal... flexure, the mid-brain for a time occupies the highest part of the summit of the he... Later on it becomes completely covered over by the expanding cerebral hemispheres.

The corpora quadrigemina are derived from the alar laminæ of the lateral walls of t... brain-tube, whilst the basal laminæ thicken and ultimately form the tegmenta and cru... of the two crura cerebri. The original cavity of the mid-brain is retained as the aqued... of Sylvius.

For a considerable time the cavity of the mesencephalon remains relatively large, a... the lower part of its dorsal wall is carried downwards in the form of a diverticulum ... recess, which overlaps the cerebellar plate. About this time, also, the dorsal wall show... median fold or ridge. Both of these conditions are transitory. As the corpora qua... gemina take shape, the median ridge disappears and is replaced by the median longitudi... groove, which separates the quadrigeminal bodies. Only its lower part is retained, and t... is represented by the frenulum veli of the adult brain. The diverticulum of the cav... gradually becomes reduced, and finally disappears as the aqueduct assumes form.

FORE-BRAIN.

Parts derived from the Diencephalon.

Under this heading we have to consider: (1) the **thalamus**; (2) the **epithalam...** which comprises the pineal body and the habenular region; (3) the **metathalam...** or the corpora geniculata; and (4) the **hypothalamus.**

The hypothalamus consists of two portions, viz. the **pars mammillaris hypothala...** which comprises the corpus mammillare and the portion of the central gray matt... which forms the floor of the third ventricle in its immediate vicinity; and the p... **optica hypothalami**, which embraces the tuber cinereum, the infundibulum, t... pituitary body, and the lamina cinerea. Strictly speaking, the optic part of t... hypothalamus does not belong to the diencephalon, but it is convenient to stu... the parts which it represents at this stage. It is also convenient to examine, ... the same time, the **subthalamic tegmental region**, although a very considerable part... this is apparently developed in connexion with the mesencephalon.

The original cavity of that part of the brain-tube which forms the diencepha... is represented by the greater part of the third ventricle of the brain.

Optic Thalamus (thalamus).—The optic thalamus is the principal object ... this section of the brain (Fig. 438). It is a large ovoid mass of gray matter, wh... lies obliquely across the path of the crus cerebri as it ascends into the cerebr... The smaller anterior end of the thalamus lies close to the mesial plane, and is o... separated from the corresponding part of the opposite side by a very nar... interval. The enlarged posterior ends of the two thalami are placed more wid... apart, and in the interval between them the corpora quadrigemina are situa... As previously stated, the crusta of the crus cerebri, composed of **corticifugal** fil...

gradually inclines outwards as it is traced upwards, and thus it assumes a place on the outer aspect of the optic thalamus and passes into the internal capsule of the brain. The tegmental part of the crus, on the other hand, comes into relation with the under surface of the thalamus, and forms in this situation the **subthalamic tegmental region**. To a large extent the longitudinal fibres of the tegmentum are corticipetal. For the most part they enter the thalamus, and end within it in fine arborisations around the thalamic cells.

The two optic thalami, in their anterior two-thirds, lie close together on either side of a deep mesial cleft, which receives the name of the third ventricle of the brain. Each thalamus presents an anterior and a posterior extremity and four surfaces. The inferior and external surfaces are in apposition, and, indeed, directly connected with adjacent parts of the brain, and on this account it is only possible to study them by means of sections through the brain. The superior and internal surfaces are free.

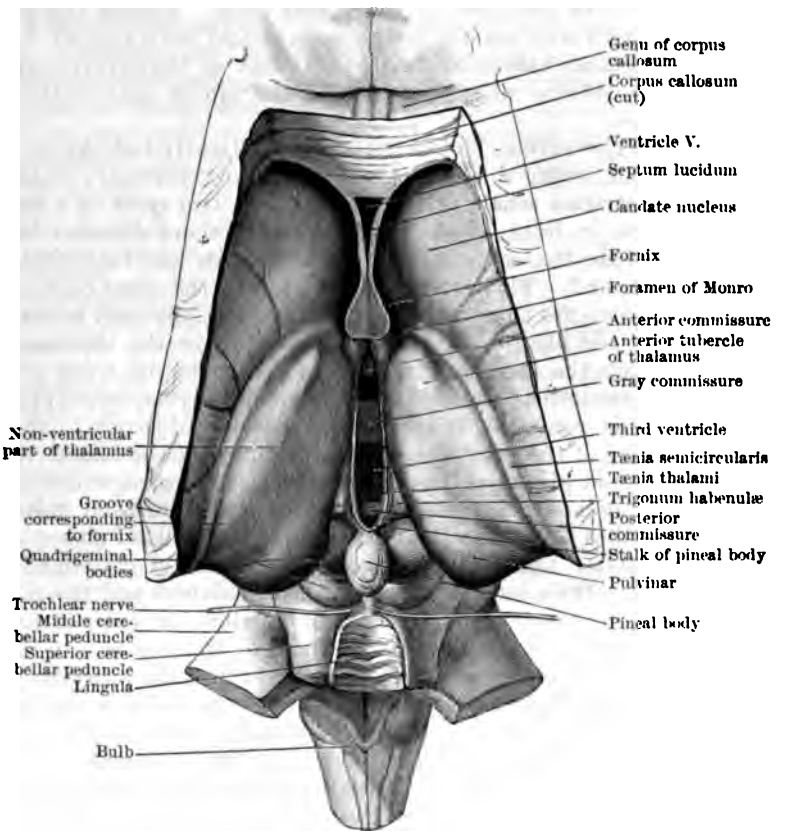


FIG. 438.—THE TWO OPTIC THALAMI (as seen from above).

The *external* or *lateral surface* of the thalamus is applied to a thick layer of white matter interposed between it and the lenticular nucleus, called the **internal capsule**, and composed of fibres passing both upwards towards and downwards from the cerebral cortex. A large proportion of these fibres descend to form the crusta or ventral part of the crus cerebri. From the entire extent of the external surface of the thalamus large numbers of fibres stream out and enter the internal capsule, to reach the cerebral cortex; over the same area other fibres which arise in the cortex of the cerebrum enter the thalamus. Both of these sets of fibres constitute what is termed the **thalamic radiation**, and by this the thalamus establishes a double connexion with the entire extent of the cerebral cortex. As the fibres leave and enter the thalamus they intersect each other at acute angles, and over the whole of the external surface of the ganglionic mass they form a very distinct reticulated zone or stratum, which is termed the **external medullary lamina**.

The *inferior* or *ventral surface* of the thalamus rests chiefly on the subthalamic tegmental region and the corpus mammillare. In front, however, as the tegmental substance gradually disappears, the thalamus comes to lie over the outer part of the tuber cinereum. From the subthalamic region many fibres enter the thalamus on its under aspect, whilst other fibres leave this surface of the thalamus to take part in the thalamic radiation.

The *superior* or *dorsal surface* of the thalamus is free. Externally it is bou by a groove, which traverses the floor of the lateral ventricle of the brain intervenes between the thalamus and the caudate nucleus. In this groove placed a slender band of longitudinal fibres, termed the tænia semicularis, a its fore-part the vein of the corpus striatum. Internally, the superior surfa the thalamus is separated from the internal or mesial surface in its anterior half a sharp edge or prominent ledge of the ependyma of the third ventricle. Th termed the **tænia thalami**, and the ridge which it forms is accentuated by the that, subjacent to it, there lies a longitudinal strand of fibres called the **medullaris**. When these two structures, viz. the ependymal ridge and the subja tract, are traced backwards, they are seen to turn inwards and become contin with the stalk or peduncle of the pineal body. Behind the portion of the t thalami which turns inwards towards the pineal body a small depressed triangu area, the **trigonum habenulæ**, situated in front of the superior quadrigeminal bo forms a very definite inner boundary for the hinder part of the superior surface the thalamus.

The superior surface of the thalamus is slightly bulging or convex, and is o whitish colour, owing to the presence of a thin superficial covering of nerve-fib termed the **stratum zonale**. It is divided into two areas by a faint oblique groo which begins in front at the inner border, a short distance behind the anter extremity of the thalamus, and extends outwards and backwards to the outer p of the hinder end. This groove corresponds to the outer edge of the fornix. T two areas which are thus mapped out are very differently related to the ventri of the brain, and also to the parts which lie above the thalamus. The *outer ar* which includes the anterior extremity of the thalamus, forms a part of the floor the lateral ventricle. It is covered with ependyma, overlapped by the chor plexus of this ventricle, and lies immediately subjacent to the corpus callosum. Along the line of the groove the epithelial lining of the lateral ventricle is reflected over the choroid plexus of this cavity. The *inner area*, which includes the hinde end of the thalamus, intervenes between the lateral and third ventricles of th brain, and takes no part in the formation of the walls of either. It is covered by a fold of pia mater, termed the velum interpositum, above which is the fornix, and these two structures intervene between the thalamus and the corpus callosum.

The *anterior extremity* of the thalamus, called the **anterior tubercle** (tuberculum anterius thalami), forms a marked bulging. It projects into the lateral ventricle, behind and to the outer side of the free portion of the anterior pillar of the fornix. The foramen of Monro, a narrow aperture of communication between the lateral and third ventricles of the brain, is bounded in front by the anterior pillar of the fornix and behind by the anterior tubercle of the thalamus.

The *posterior extremity* of the thalamus is very prominent and forms a cushion-like projection, which overhangs the brachia of the corpora quadrigemina. This prominence is called the **pulvinar**. Another oval bulging on the hinder part of the thalamus receives the name of the **corpus geniculatum externum**. It is situated below, and to the outer side of, the pulvinar, and presents a very intimate connexion with the optic tract.

The *mesial surfaces* of the two thalami are placed close together, and are covered not only by the lining ependyma of the third ventricle, but also by a tolerably thick layer of gray matter, continuous below with the central gray substance which surrounds the aqueduct of Sylvius in the mesencephalon. A band of gray matter, termed the **gray** or **soft commissure** (commissura mollis), crosses the third ventricle and joins the inner surfaces of the two thalami together.

Intimate Structure and Connexions of the Optic Thalamus.—The upper surface of the thalamus is covered by the **stratum zonale**, a thin coating of white fibres derived to some extent from the optic tract, and probably also from the optic radiation. The inner surface has a thick coating of central gray matter, whilst intervening between the internal capsule and the outer surface is the **lamina medullaris externa**. The lower surface merges into the subthalamic region.

The gray matter of the optic thalamus is marked off into three very apparent parts—termed the anterior, the mesial, and the lateral thalamic nuclei—by a thin

ıl **sheet** of white matter, continuous with the stratum zonale, termed the **medullaris interna.** The **lateral nucleus** (nucleus lateralis thalami) is by far ırgest of the three. It is placed between the internal and the external **lary laminæ**, and it stretches backwards beyond the mesial nucleus, and thus les the whole of the pulvinar (Fig. 440). The **mesial nucleus** (nucleus medialis ni) only reaches as far back as the habenular region. It is placed between entral gray matter of the third ventricle and the internal medullary lamina. ateral nucleus is more extensively pervaded by fibres than the mesial nucleus. the lateral nucleus by far the greatest number of the fibres which form the **ıio thalami** pass, and these are seen crossing it in various directions towards ımina medullaris externa. The **anterior nucleus** (nucleus anterior thalami) is nallest of the three thalamic nuclei. It forms the prominent anterior tubercle, is prolonged in a wedge-shaped manner, for a short distance, downwards and ards between the anterior parts of the mesial and lateral nuclei. The internal llary lamina splits into two parts and partially encloses the anterior nucleus. ɔnnexion with its large cells a very conspicuous bundle of fibres, the **bundle icq d'Azyr** (fasciculus thalamo-mammillaris), which arises in the corpus millare, comes to an end

diffuse gray mass imperfectly marked off from the under surface of the lateral nucleus es the name of the *ventral nucleus*. Its lower part is composed of the **central nucleus of** and the **nucleus arcuatus**. In section the former appears as a circular mass of gray matter, comes into view immediately behind the point where the internal medullary lamina pears. It would seem to be intimately connected with fibres which reach it from the red us and from the posterior commissure. These fibres pass round it so as to mark it off from st of the thalamus, and in front of the nucleus many of them enter the internal medullary a. The **nucleus arcuatus** is a small semilunar mass of gray matter placed below and to the side of the central nucleus of Luys.

'he **connexions of the thalamus** are of an extremely intricate kind. It would ar to be a ganglionic mass interposed between the tegmental corticipetal tracts ;he cerebral cortex. In its hinder part, and through its stratum zonale, it also mportant connexions with the optic tract. The corticipetal tegmental tracts, h enter it from below, will be noticed in connexion with the subthalamic n. Suffice it to say, for the present, that these fibres end in the midst of the ımus in connexion with the thalamic cells. In addition to these, enormous bers of fibres, arising within the thalamus as the axons of its cells, stream out its outer and under surfaces to form the thalamic radiation. These **thalamo-cal fibres** pass to every part of the cortex; and although there is no separation ıem into distinct groups as they leave the thalamus, it is customary to regard ı as constituting a frontal stalk, a parietal stalk, an occipital stalk, and a ral stalk. But fibres from the cortex, **cortico-thalamic fibres**, likewise stream the thalamus in large numbers, and end in fine arborisations around its cells. ɔuble connexion with the cerebral cortex is thus established by the thalamus.

'he **frontal stalk** of the thalamic radiation emerges from the anterior part of the lateral ce of the thalamus and passes through the anterior limb of the internal capsule, to reach the x of the frontal lobe. Many of these fibres end in the caudate and lenticular nuclei, between h they proceed. The **parietal stalk** issues from the lateral surface of the thalamus, and, ng through the internal capsule (and to some extent, also, through the lenticular nucleus the external capsule), gains the cortex of the hinder part of the frontal lobe and of the ital lobe. The **occipital stalk** emerges from the outer aspect of the pulvinar and constitutes o-called optic radiation. These fibres sweep outwards and backwards round the outer side ıe posterior horn of the lateral ventricle to gain the cortex of the occipital lobe. The **ral stalk** streams out from the under aspect of the anterior part of the thalamus, in front ıe subthalamic tegmental region and the corpus mammillare. Its fibres arise in both the al and lateral nuclei, and sweep downwards and outwards to reach the region below the icular nucleus. One very distinct band which lies dorsal to the other fibres (ansa lenticu-) enters the lenticular nucleus, whilst the remainder (ansa peduncularis) continue in an ard direction below the lenticular nucleus and gain the cortex of the temporal lobe and of insula or island of Reil.

Flechsig divides the thalamo-cortical fibres of ordinary sensation into three sensory systems. se he has been able to distinguish by studying the order in which they assume their sheaths ıyelin in the fœtus and infant.

Ferrier and Turner, by the degenerative method of investigation, corroborate Flechsig's lts. They confirm the observation of Flechsig that, while thalamic fibres are distributed to

the several regions of the cerebral cortex to an almost equal extent, there is one district, frontal pole, to which the supply is scanty. Another very important result has been c by these authors. They have est the fact that many of the thalam cross the mesial plane in the cor losum, and thus gain the cortex opposite cerebral hemisphere. Ha crossed callosal tract thus receiv formation.

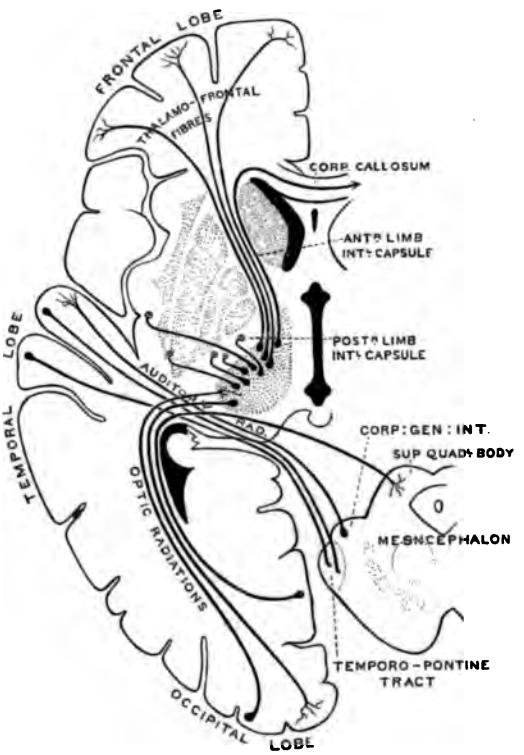


FIG. 439.—SCHEMA. Founded on the observations of Flechsig, and Ferrier and Turner.

Intimate Structure of the Geniculatum Externum. — S through the external geniculat reveal the fact that it is comp a series of alternately placed gr white curved laminæ. This g a very characteristic appearanc white laminæ are composed o which enter the body from th tract and the optic radiation connexions of the geniculate will be studied with the tract.

Subthalamic Tegmental I —The tegmental part of the cr bri is prolonged upwards and a position below the hinder pa thalamus. The **red nucleus** i spicuous object in sections thro lower part of this region (Fig. presents the same appearance down in the mesencephalo gradually diminishing, it dis before the level of the corpu millare is reached. Carried up around it are the same longitudinal tracts which have been studied in relation to it in the tegmental part of the mesenc Certain of these fibres, placed in immediate relation to the red nucleus, coating or capsule for it. This coating is partly derived from those fibre superior cerebellar peduncle which pass directly up into the thalamus a partly from fibres which issue from the nucleus itself. The **mesial fill** which in the upper part of the mesencephalon is observed to take up a pos the lateral and dorsal aspect of the red nucleus, maintains a similar positio subthalamic region. When the red nucleus comes to an end these variou are continued onwards and form, in the position previously occupied by the a very evident and dense mass of fibres. The fibres of the mesial fillet, superior cerebellar peduncle, and of the red nucleus are prolonged upwards ventral part of the thalamus, where they end in connexion with the thalam

The **substantia nigra** is likewise carried into the subthalamic region, maintains its original position on the dorsal aspect of the crusta of the crus As it is traced upwards, it is seen to gradually diminish in amount. It from within outwards, and finally disappears when the hinder part of the mammillare is reached.

In coronal sections through the subthalamic region, the most conspicuou which comes into view is the **corpus subthalamicum** or the **nucleus of Luys** (F It is a small mass of gray matter, shaped like a biconvex lens, which makes its ance on the dorsal aspect of the crusta of the crus cerebri immediately to tl side of the substantia nigra. At first it lies in an angle, which is formed meeting of the crusta and the internal capsule; but, rapidly enlarging in an direction, it takes the place of the diminishing substantia nigra on the surface of the crusta at the level of the lower part of the corpus mammillar corpus subthalamicum is rendered all the more evident by the fact th

y defined by a thin capsule of white fibres. On its mesial aspect these fibres
d inwards and form a very evident decussation across the middle line in the
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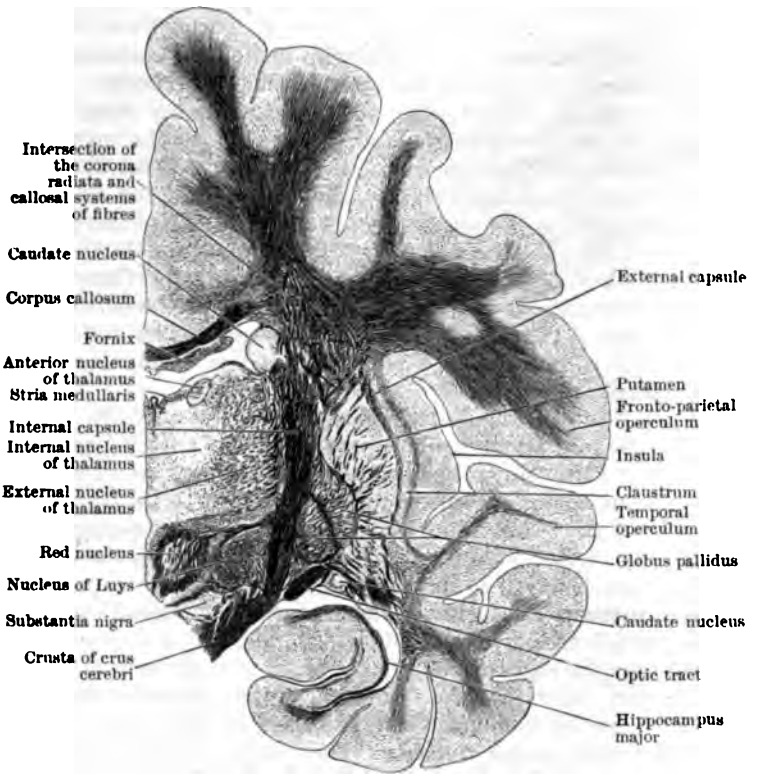


FIG. 440.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE CEREBRUM OF AN ORANG PASSING THROUGH THE SUBTHALAMIC TEGMENTAL REGION.

mi, it occupies the depression on the dorsal aspect of the mesencephalon,
intervenes between the two superior quadrigeminal bodies. Its base, which
rected upwards, is attached by a hollow stalk or peduncle. This stalk is
ated into a dorsal and a ventral part by the prolongation backwards into it
small pointed recess of the cavity of the third ventricle. The dorsal part of
talk curves outwards and forwards, and on each optic thalamus becomes
nuous with the tænia thalami and the subjacent stria medullaris; the
al part is folded round a narrow but conspicuous cord-like band of white
er, which crosses the mesial plane immediately above the base of the pineal body
eceives the name of the **posterior commissure** of the cerebrum (Fig. 438, p. 543).

ne pineal body is not composed of nervous elements. The only nerves in its midst are the
athetic filaments which enter it, with its blood-vessels. It is composed of spherical and
ar follicles, filled with epithelial cells, and containing a variable amount of gritty, calcareous
r.

ne pineal body is a rudimentary structure, but in certain vertebrates it attains a much
r degree of development than in man. In the lizard, blind-worm, etc., it is present in the
of the so-called pineal eye. In structure it resembles, in these animals, an invertebrate eye,
t possesses a long stalk, in which nerve-fibres are developed. Further, it is carried through
erture in the cranial wall, and consequently lies close to the surface on the dorsum of the
between the parietal bones.

Trigonum Habenulæ.—The small, triangular, depressed area which receives this
e is placed immediately in front of the superior quadrigeminal body in the
val between the peduncle of the pineal body and the hinder end of the thalamus
. 438, p. 543). It marks the position of an important collection of nerve-cells,
h constitute the **ganglion habenulæ**. The axons of these cells are collected on
ventral aspect of the ganglion into a bundle, called the **fasciculus retroflexus**,
h takes a curved course downwards and forwards in the tegmentum of the

mesencephalon. The fasciculus retroflexus lies close to the inner side of red nucleus, and finally comes to an end in a group of cells termed the **ganglion interpedunculare**, situated in the lower part of the locus perforatus post (see p. 539).

The ganglion habenulæ is likewise intimately connected with the stria me laris and the dorsal part of the stalk of the pineal body.

As previously stated, the **stria medullaris**—a very evident band of w matter—lies on the optic thalamus, subjacent to the ependymal ridge termed tænia thalami. When traced backwards, many of the fibres of the stria medull are observed to end amongst the cells of the ganglion habenulæ, whilst others continued past the ganglion to enter the peduncle of the pineal body, and, thro it, to reach the ganglion habenulæ of the opposite side, in connexion with the of which they terminate. The stria medullaris, therefore, ends partly in ganglion habenulæ of its own side and partly in the corresponding ganglion of opposite side. The decussation of fibres across the middle line forms the d part of the pineal stalk or peduncle, and is frequently termed the **commis habenularum**.

When the stria medullaris is traced in the opposite direction, it is notice split into a dorsal and ventral part near the anterior pillar of the fornix. *dorsal part* turns abruptly upwards, and, joining the fornix, is carried in it t hippocampus major or cornu ammonis from cells in which its fibres take o The *ventral part* turns downwards and appears to spring from a collection of in the gray matter on the base of the brain close to the optic chiasma. The medullaris is believed to form a part of the olfactory apparatus.

Commissura Posterior.—The posterior commissure is a slender band of matter, which crosses the middle line under cover of the stalk of the pineal and overlies the entrance of the aqueduct of Sylvius into the third ventricle. fibres which enter into the formation of the posterior commissure are believ arise in a special nucleus, which is placed in the central gray matter immedi above the oculo-motor nucleus. They decussate with each other across the plane and thus the commissure is formed. The other connexions of this band are not satisfactorily established, but Held believes that some of its v fibres pass downwards into the posterior longitudinal bundle.

Locus Perforatus Posticus (substantia perforata posterior).—This has al been described on p. 475. Some delicate bands of white matter, termed the **pontis**, may frequently be seen emerging from the gray matter of this region; then curve round the crura cerebri in close relation to the upper border o pons, into which they ultimately sink (Fig. 390, p. 484).

Corpora Mammillaria.—The corpora mammillaria are two round white b each about the size of a pea, which lie side by side in the interpeduncular spa the base of the brain, immediately in front of the locus perforatus posticus.

Each corpus mammillare is coated on the outside by white matter de from the anterior pillar of the fornix, and contains, in its interior, a composite nucleus with numerous nerve-cells. Several important strands of fibres are nected with the corpus mammillare: (1) The **anterior pillar of the fornix** c downwards in the lateral wall of the third ventricle to reach the corpus mammi and its fibres end amidst the cells of that body. (2) A bundle of fibres, the **bundle of Vicq d'Azyr**, which at first sight appears to be continuous wit anterior pillar of the fornix, takes origin in its midst and extends upward the optic thalamus, to end in fine arborisations around the large cells in the an thalamic nucleus. (3) Another bundle of fibres, the **pedunculus corporis mammi** takes form within the corpus mammillare and extends downwards in the matter of the floor of the third ventricle, to reach the tegmentum of the m cephalon. The ultimate destination of these fibres is doubtful.

Tuber Cinereum and Infundibulum.—The tuber cinereum is a small, sli prominent field of gray matter, which occupies the anterior part of the peduncular space between the corpora mammillaria behind and the optic ch in front. From its fore-part the **infundibulum**, or stalk of the pituitary projects downwards and connects that body with the base of the brain.

the infundibulum is hollow, a small, funnel-shaped diverticulum of the he third ventricle being prolonged downwards into it.

ıry Body (hypophysis). a small oval structure, rom above downwards, its long axis directed ly, which occupies the ossa in the floor of the It is composed of two ırge anterior lobe and a sterior lobe, which are lied the one to the other. dibulum, which extends s from the tuber cin- ttached to the posterior

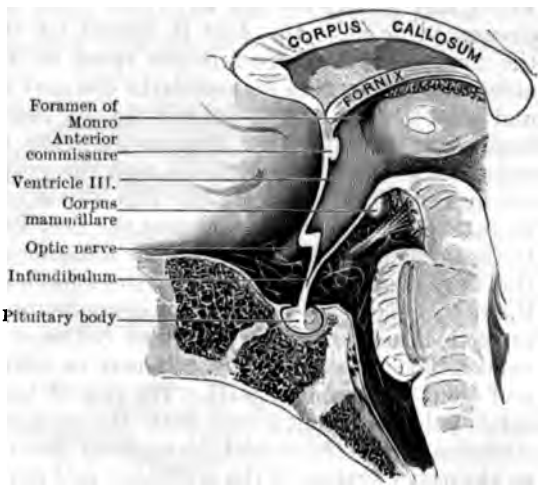


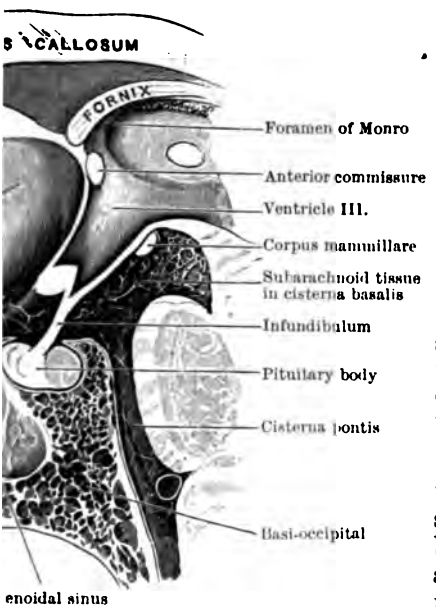
FIG. 441.—MESIAL SECTION THROUGH THE PITUITARY REGION IN A CHILD OF TWELVE MONTHS OLD.

In this section, as well as in the section figured in Fig. 442, the infundibulum has the appearance of being attached to the anterior lobe. This is due to the way in which the larger anterior lobe grows backwards so as to embrace the smaller posterior lobe. The latter is, as it were, accommodated in a hollow in the hinder aspect of the anterior lobe.

From a photograph by Professor Symington.

undibulum and posterior e pituitary body are de- the form of a hollow diver- ich grows downwards from that part of the embryonic h afterwards forms the icle. The original cavity rticulum becomes obliter- t in the upper part of the ım. In structure, the pos- of the pituitary body shows of its origin from the brain-tube. It is chiefly composed of connective tissue and blood-vessels, with lls scattered throughout it.

erior lobe has quite a different origin, and may be regarded as the functional part of the pituitary body. It is derived from a tubular diverticulum, which grows upwards from the primitive buccal cavity or stomodæum. Its connexion with the latter (canalis cranio-pharyngeus) is in the course of time cut off, and the diverticulum becomes encased within the cranial cavity in intimate association with the cerebral portion of the organ. Structurally, it consists of tubules or alveoli, lined by epithelial cells and surrounded by capillary vessels. Its structure is in some respects not unlike that of the parathyroid bodies. In giants, and in cases of acromegaly, the pituitary body is usually greatly enlarged.



SIAL SECTION THROUGH THE PITUITARY REGION IN THE ADULT.

Lamina Cinerea.—This is a thin, delicate lamina which may be seen on the basal aspect of the brain, stretching from the upper aspect of the optic chiasma in an upward direction to become connected with the rostrum of the corpus callosum.

ɔr Commissure of the Cerebrum.—In the anterior part of the cleft, e two optic thalami and immediately in front of the anterior pillars of a round bundle of fibres crosses the mesial plane. This is the anterior . It is much larger than the posterior commissure.

Third Ventricle (ventriculus tertius). — This is the narrow cleft wh separates the two optic thalami. Its depth rapidly increases from behind f wards, and it may be said to extend from the pineal body behind to the lam cinerea in front. Its *floor* is formed by the structures already studied wit the area of the interpeduncular space on the base of the brain, viz. the tu cinereum, the corpora mammillaria, the gray matter of the locus perforatus postic and also to some extent behind this by the tegmenta of the crura cerebri. It interesting to note that the central gray matter which surrounds the Sylv aqueduct is directly continuous with the gray matter of the locus perforatus pos cus and tuber cinereum, and in this way it comes to the surface in the base of t brain. The optic chiasma crosses the floor in front and marks the place where latter becomes continuous with the anterior wall of the cavity. The *front wall* the third ventricle is formed by the lamina cinerea, which extends upwards fr the optic chiasma. The anterior commissure, as it crosses from one side to the oth projects into the ventricle, but of course it is excluded from the cavity by ventricular epithelial lining. It may be taken as indicating the place where roof joins the anterior wall. The *roof* of the third ventricle is formed by a t epithelial layer, continuous with the thin epithelial lining of the cavity, wh stretches across the mesial plane from one tænia thalami to the other. App to the upper surface of the epithelial roof is the fold of pia mater, termed the ve interpositum, and the roof is invaginated into the cavity along its whole length two delicate choroid plexuses, which hang down from the under surface of fold. When the velum interpositum is removed the thin epithelial roof is t away with it, leaving only the lines of attachment in the shape of the ta thalami.

The *lateral wall* of the third ventricle is formed for the greater part of extent by the inner surface of the optic thalamus, covered by a thick laye

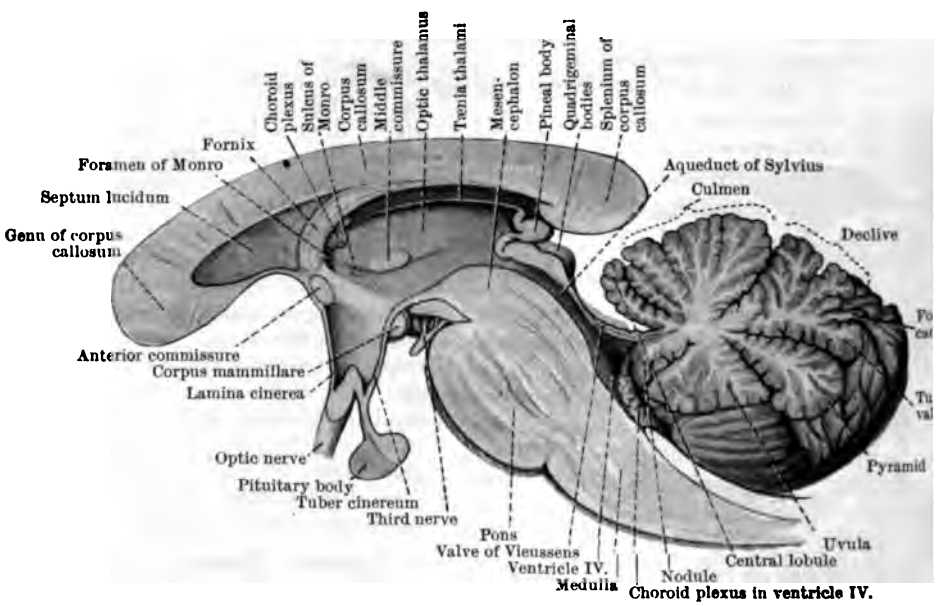


FIG. 443. — MESIAL SECTION THROUGH THE CORPUS CALLOSUM, DIENCEPHALON, ETC.
Shows the third and fourth ventricles connected by the aqueduct of Sylvius.

central gray matter continuous with the Sylvian gray matter of the mesencepha A little in front of the middle of the ventricle the cavity is crossed by the mi or **soft commissure**, which connects the thalami with each other, and in front of the anterior pillar of the fornix is seen curving downwards and backwards in lateral wall. At first the bulging which it forms is distinctly prominent, bu gradually subsides as the strand, on its way to end in the corpus mammil becomes more and more sunk in the gray matter on the side of the ventricle.

The third ventricle communicates with both of the lateral ventricles, and also with the fourth ventricle. The **aqueduct of Sylvius**, the narrow channel which tunnels the mesencephalon, brings it into communication with the fourth ventricle. The opening of this aqueduct is placed at the posterior part of the floor of the third ventricle, immediately below the posterior commissure. The **foramina of Monro**

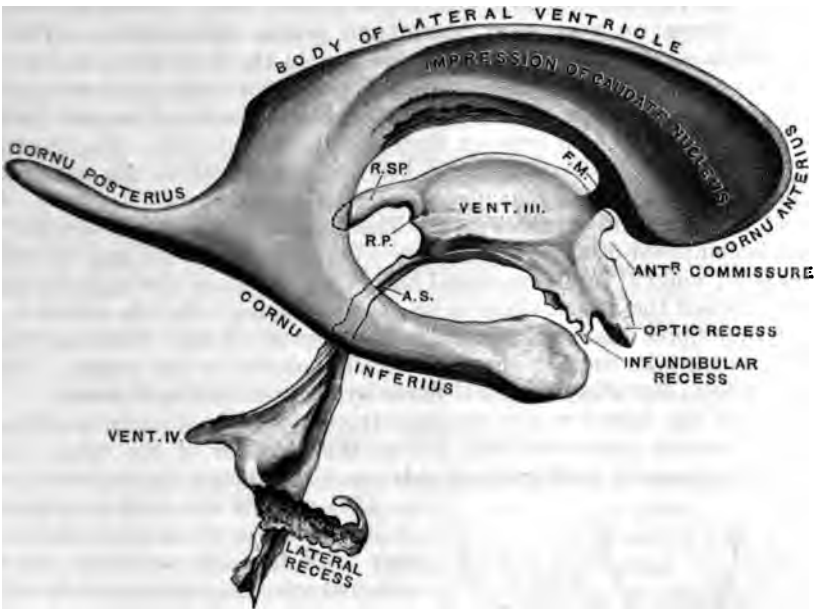


FIG. 444.—PROFILE VIEW OF A CAST OF THE VENTRICLES OF THE BRAIN (from Retzius).

R.SP. Recessus suprapinealis. A.S. Aqueduct of Sylvius.
R.P. Recessus pinealis. F.M. Foramen of Monro.

bring it into communication with the lateral ventricles. These apertures are placed at the upper and fore parts of the lateral walls, and lead outwards and slightly upwards between the most prominent parts of the anterior pillars of the fornix and the anterior tubercles of the optic thalami. They are just large enough to admit a crow-quill, and through these passages the epithelial lining of the three ventricles becomes continuous. From the foramen of Monro a distinct groove on the lateral wall of the ventricle leads backwards towards the mouth of the Sylvian aqueduct. It is termed the **sulcus of Monro**, and is of interest, inasmuch as it is considered by His to represent in the adult brain the furrow which divides the lateral wall of the embryonic brain-tube into an alar and a basal lamina.

The outline of the third ventricle, when viewed from the side in a mesial section through the brain, or as it is exhibited in a plaster cast of the ventricular system of the brain, is seen to be very irregular (Fig 444). It presents several diverticula or recesses. Thus, in the fore-part of the floor there is a funnel-shaped pit or recess, leading down through the tuber cinereum into the infundibulum of the pituitary body. Another recess, the *recessus opticus*, leads forwards immediately in front of this, above the optic chiasma. Posteriorly two diverticula are present. One, the *recessus pinealis*, passes backwards above the posterior commissure and the mouth of the Sylvian aqueduct for a short distance into the stalk of the pineal body. The second is placed above this and is carried backwards for a greater distance. It is a diverticulum of the epithelial roof, and, therefore, is difficult to demonstrate. It is termed the *recessus suprapinealis*.

CEREBRAL CONNEXIONS OF THE OPTIC TRACT.

One nerve, the optic nerve or the nerve of sight, is connected with this section of the brain. At the optic chiasma the optic nerves of the two sides are joined together and a partial decussation of fibres takes place. The fibres which arise in the mesial half of each retina cross the mesial plane and join the optic tract of the

opposite side. The optic tract proceeds backwards round the crus cerebri, the neighbourhood of the corpora geniculata divides into two roots, viz. a and a mesial (p. 532).

Mesial Root of the Optic Tract—Commissure of Gudden.—The mes of the optic tract disappears under cover of the corpus geniculatum internum large proportion of its fibres arise or end in this nuclear body. As to the com of the other fibres, we possess at present no precise information. The root, although it is composed of fibres which run in the optic tract, has abs nothing to do with the optic nerve. These fibres, when traced forwards, cr mesial plane in the posterior angle of the optic chiasma and are carried bac in the opposite optic tract, to form on that side its mesial root. The fibres fore, are commissural, and constitute a bond of union, called the commis Gudden, between the internal geniculate bodies.

Lateral Root of the Optic Tract.—The lateral or true visual root optic tract is composed of fibres which come—(1) from the lateral half of the of its own side; and (2) from the mesial half of the retina of the opposite si which have crossed the mesial plane in the optic chiasma. But in addition afferent retinal fibres there are a certain number of efferent fibres in th tract, fibres which take their origin in the brain and end in the retina. Th distinguished from the afferent retinal fibres by their exceeding fineness.

The fibres of the lateral root of the optic tract end in the superior quadri body, in the external geniculate body, and in the pulvinar of the optic th The fibres to the **superior quadrigeminal body** reach it through the superior br (p. 435), and for the most part spr on its surface in the stratum zonal they sink into its substance, to terminal arborisations around its ce **corpus geniculatum externum** recei largest contribution of fibres fr lateral root of the optic tract. Thes sink into its interior and partly sp over its surface. The former en the construction of the curved of white matter which traverse this mass, and to a large extent end gray matter which intervenes these lamellæ. The deep fibres wh not exhausted in this way proceed through the external geniculate b enter the pulvinar. Of the superfici which spread over the surface of the geniculate body some dip into its su and end there, but the majority ar over it and enter the stratum z the pulvinar. The fibres of the root of the optic tract, which en **pulvinar**, therefore reach their des by passing either over or thro external geniculate body.

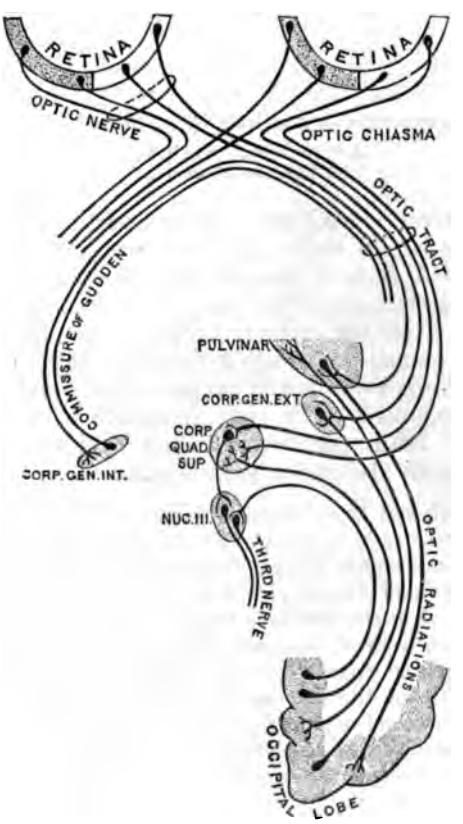


FIG. 445.—DIAGRAM OF THE CENTRAL CONNEXIONS OF THE OPTIC NERVE AND OPTIC TRACT.

Cortical Connexions of th Nerve.—The superior quadrigemin the external geniculate body, and vinar constitute the lower visual or terminal nuclei of the visu of the optic tract. The highe centre is placed in the cortex occipital lobe of the cerebral hemisphere, and the connexions between t the lower centres are established by a large strand of fibres which run central white matter of the hinder part of the cerebral hemisphere, an

s the optic radiation. The optic radiation is composed both of corticipetal cifugal fibres. The former arise as the axons of the cells in the external e body and the pulvinar, around which the retinal fibres end, and they in the cortex of the occipital lobe. The corticifugal fibres take origin rtex of the occipital lobe and end in the pulvinar and superior quadri- body (Ferrier and Turner). Thus constituted, the optic radiation forms uous strand (Figs. 462, p. 576; 465, p. 579; 473, p. 592), which, reaching lenticular part of the internal capsule, sweeps backwards into the occipital he cerebral hemisphere on the outer side of the posterior horn of the ntricle. Its connexions will be studied more fully at a later stage.

g does not believe that the pulvinar is an internode interposed in the path of the optic proceeds towards the visual area of the cerebral cortex. He states that he has not o convince himself that any fibres of the optic tract end in the optic thalamus.

Connexions of the Lower Group of Visual Centres.—(1) The nuclei of the nerves ply the muscles which move the eyeball would appear to stand in intimate connexion ower group of visual centres. Most probably this connexion is established through or longitudinal bundle. As previously stated, Held believes that axons of certain of f the superior quadrigeminal body enter this tract. (2) Through the mesial fillet, the uadrigeminal body is connected with the medulla and cord.

THE PARTS DERIVED FROM THE TELENCEPHALON.

Cerebral Hemispheres.

erebral hemispheres form the largest part of the fully-developed brain. ewed from above they form an ovoid mass, the broadest end of which is backwards, and the longest transverse diameter of which will be found in ıity of the parts which lie subjacent to the parietal eminences of the

The massive rounded character of the anterior or frontal end of each hemisphere constitutes a leading human characteristic; but the hinder or end is narrow and pointed, and is directed somewhat downwards. The bral hemispheres are separated from each other by a deep mesial cleft, he great longitudinal fissure.

t Longitudinal Fissure (fissura longitudinalis cerebri).—In front and he great longitudinal fissure passes from the dorsal to the ventral aspect of ral hemispheres, so as to separate them completely from each other. In lle part, however, the fissure is interrupted and floored by the corpus , a white commissural band, which passes between the hemispheres and them together. The upper surface of the corpus callosum can be l by gently drawing asunder the contiguous mesial surfaces of the hemispheres. The great longitudinal fissure is occupied by a mesial lura mater, termed the falx cerebri, which partially subdivides the part anial cavity allotted to the cerebrum into a right and left chamber.

rnal Configuration of each Cerebral Hemisphere.—Each cerebral hemi- resents an external, an internal, and an inferior surface. The *external* s convex and is adapted accurately to the deep surface of the cranial The *internal* or *mesial surface* is flat and perpendicular, and bounds the gitudinal fissure. In great part it is in contact with the falx cerebri; and at partition is deficient, it is applied to the corresponding portion of the surface of the opposite hemisphere. The *inferior surface* is irregular and d to the anterior and middle cranial fossæ of the cranial floor and, behind the upper surface of the tentorium cerebelli. Traversing this surface in a e direction, nearer the anterior end of the hemisphere than the posterior ıe stem of the Sylvian fissure. This deep cleft divides the inferior surface nterior or *orbital area*, which rests on the orbital plate of the frontal bone, nsequently concave from side to side, and a more extensive posterior or *area*, which lies on the floor of the lateral part of the middle cranial fossa n the upper surface of the tentorium cerebelli. This surface is arched ore backwards, and looks inwards as well as downwards. In its hinder ls it lies above the cerebellum, from which it is separated by the tentorium

The borders which intervene between these surfaces are the supero-mesia superciliary, the infero-lateral, and the internal occipital. The *supero-m border*, convex from before backwards, intervenes between the convex ext surface and the flat internal surface of the hemisphere. The *superciliary bor* highly arched and separates the orbital surface from the external surface. *infero-lateral border* marks off the tentorial surface from the external surface. *internal occipital border* can only be seen in cases where the brain has been hard *in situ* and faithfully retains the natural form. It extends from the posterio of the hemisphere towards the hinder extremity of the corpus callosum, and i venes between the mesial and tentorial surfaces. It is the border which lies the straight blood sinus, and it therefore occupies the angle which is formed b attachment of the posterior part of the falx cerebri to the upper surface o tentorium cerebelli.

The most projecting part of the anterior end of the cerebral hemisphere is the **frontal pole**, whilst the most projecting part of the hinder end is terme **occipital pole**. On the under surface of the hemisphere the prominent poi cerebral substance which extends forwards below the Sylvian fissure receive name of the **temporal pole**. In a well-hardened brain a broad groove is us present on the inner and lower aspect of the occipital pole of the right hemis This corresponds to the commencement of the right lateral venous sinus. distinct groove on the occipital pole of the left hemisphere frequently indicat commencement of the left lateral sinus. On the tentorial surface, a short dis behind the temporal pole, a well-marked depression is always visible. This sponds to the elevation on the anterior surface of the petrous portion o temporal bone over the superior semicircular canal.

Cerebral Gyri and Sulci.—The surface of the cerebral hemispheres is rem highly irregular by the presence of convolutions or gyri, separated from each by intervening furrows of very varying depth, termed sulci or fissures. The s pattern which is presented by these gyri and sulci is, in its general featur same in all normal human brains; but when the comparison is pushed into many differences become manifest, not only in the brains of different indivi but also in the two cerebral hemispheres of the same individual.

There are two varieties of furrows, viz. complete and incomplete. The co **fissures** are few in number, and are formed by inwardly-directed info involving the entire thickness of the cerebral wall. They consequently in the interior of the cerebral cavity or lateral ventricle in the form of in elevations on its wall. The complete fissures are the following: (1) the dent hippocampal fissure; (2) the anterior part of the calcarine fissure; and portion of the collateral fissure. The **incomplete fissures** are merely surface fu of varying depth, which do not produce any effect on the inner surface o ventricular wall.

General Structure of the Cerebral Hemispheres.—Each cerebral hemis is composed of an outside coating of gray matter, spread in a continuous an interrupted layer over its surface, and an internal mass of white matter, which a considerable part of the immediate wall of the ventricular cavity. The coating is termed the **cerebral cortex**, and the internal white matter is calle **medullary centre**. Each convolution shows a corresponding structure. On verse section it is seen to present an external covering of gray cortex, support a central core of white matter.

But, in addition to the gray matter on the outside, there are certain deposits of gray matter embedded in the basal part of each cerebral hemis These cerebral nuclei constitute the **corpus striatum**, and, although to some e isolated from the gray matter on the surface, it can be easily shown that at c points they are directly continuous with it.

By means of the convolutions and sulci, the gray matter on the surface hemisphere is enormously increased in quantity without unduly adding to the of the organ; and, further, the vascular pia mater, which dips into every fiss increased in extent to a like degree. Opportunity is, therefore, afforded t cortical vessels of breaking up into twigs of exceeding fineness before they ent

stance of the hemisphere. The distribution of blood to the gray cortex is, in way, equalised and rendered uniform.

Cerebral Lobes and Interlobar Fissures.—Certain of the fissures which verse the surface of the cerebrum are more or less arbitrarily chosen for subiding the surface into districts or areas, which are termed lobes. These fissures termed **interlobar**, and are the following: (1) the fissure of Sylvius; (2) the ure of Rolando; (3) the parieto-occipital; (4) the calloso-marginal; (5) the lateral; and (6) the limiting sulcus of Reil.

The lobes which are mapped out by these fissures are: (1) the frontal; (2) the rietal; (3) the occipital; (4) the temporal; (5) the insula, or the island of Reil; the limbic. To these may be added a seventh lobe, in no way related to the terlobar fissures, viz. the olfactory lobe. With the exception of the occipital and factory lobes and the insula, this subdivision of the hemisphere possesses little rphological value, and is chiefly adopted for topographical purposes.

Fissure of Sylvius (fissura cerebri lateralis).—This is the most conspicuous

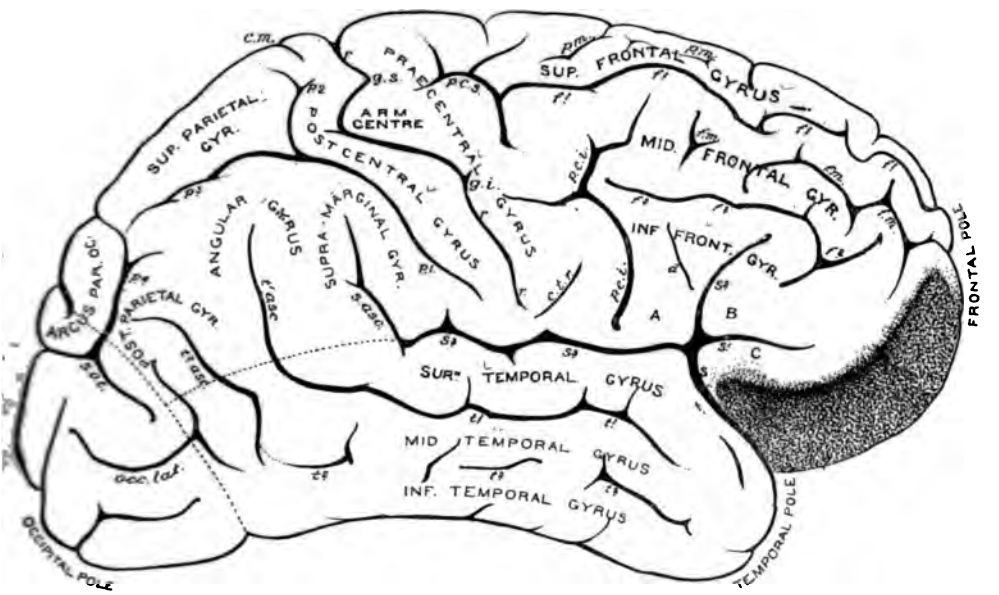


FIG. 446.—GYRI AND SULCI, on the outer surface of the cerebral hemisphere.

f^1.	Sulcus frontalis superior.	r.	Fissure of Rolando.
f^2.	Sulcus frontalis inferior.	g.s.	Superior genu.
f.m.	Sulcus frontalis medius.	g.i.	Inferior genu.
p.m.	Sulcus paramedialis.	d.	Sulcus diagonalis.
A.	Pars basilaris.	t^1.	Superior temporal sulcus (parallel sulcus).
B.	Pars triangularis.	t^2.	Inferior temporal sulcus.
C.	Pars orbitalis.	p^1.	Inferior postcentral sulcus.
S.	Sylvian fissure.	p^2.	Superior postcentral sulcus.
s^1.	Anterior horizontal limb (Sylvian fissure).	p^3.	Ramus horizontalis.
s^2.	Ascending limb (Sylvian fissure).	p^4.	Ramus occipitalis.
s^3.	Posterior horizontal limb (Sylvian fissure).	s.o.t.	Sulcus occipitalis transversus.
s.asc.	Ascending terminal part of the posterior horizontal limb of the Sylvian fissure.	occ. lat.	Sulcus occipitalis lateralis (the sulcus lunatus of Elliot Smith).
p.c.i.	Inferior præcentral sulcus.	c.m.	Calloso-marginal sulcus.
p.c.s.	Superior præcentral sulcus.	c.t.i.	Inferior transverse furrow.

fissure on the surface of the cerebral hemisphere. It is composed of a short main stem, from the outer extremity of which three branches or limbs radiate. The stem of the Sylvian fissure is placed on the inferior surface of the hemisphere. It begins at the locus perforatus anticus in a depression termed the **vallecula Sylvii**. From this it passes horizontally outwards, forming a deep cleft between the temporal pole and the orbital surface of the frontal lobe. Appearing on the outer surface of the hemisphere at a point called the **Sylvian point**, the Sylvian fissure immediately divides into three radiating branches. These are: (1) the

ramus horizontalis posterior; (2) the ramus horizontalis anterior; (3) the ra anterior ascendens.

The **posterior horizontal limb** is the longest and best marked of the three li It extends backwards, with a slight inclination upwards on the outer surface of hemisphere for a distance which may vary from about two to three inches intervenes between the frontal and parietal lobes which lie above it and temporal lobe which lies below it, and it finally ends in the region subjacent to parietal eminence of the cranial wall by turning upwards into the parietal lob the form of an *ascending terminal piece.*

The **anterior horizontal limb** extends horizontally forwards in the frontal lob a distance of about three-quarters of an inch immediately above and parallel to posterior part of the superciliary margin of the hemisphere.

The **ascending limb** proceeds upwards, with a slight inclination forwards, into lower part of the outer surface of the frontal lobe for a distance of about an i In many cases the two anterior limbs spring from a common stem of greate less length, and not infrequently both are replaced by a single anterior limb.

Limiting Sulcus of Reil (sulcus circularis Reilii).—If the lips of the post horizontal limb of the Sylvian fissure be widely pulled asunder from each other insula or island of Reil will be seen at the bottom. The insular district of cortex is completely hidden from view when the Sylvian fissure is closed by lapping portions of the cerebral hemisphere, and, when brought into view in manner indicated, it is observed to present a triangular outline and to be surrou by a limiting sulcus, of which three parts may be recognised, viz.: an *upper* bounding it above and separating it from the parietal and frontal lobes; a *part,* marking it off below from the temporal lobe; and an *anterior part,* separ it in front from the frontal lobe.

Opercula Insulæ.—The overlapping portions of the cerebral substance v cover over the insula are termed the insular opercula, and they form, by the ap tion of their margins, the three limbs of the Sylvian fissure. The opercula are in number and are named: (1) temporal; (2) fronto-parietal; (3) frontal; an orbital. The limbs of the Sylvian fissure cut right through between the diff opercula and extend from the exposed surface of the hemisphere to the subm surface of the insula, and, in this manner, separate the opercula from each oth

The **temporal operculum** extends upwards over the insula from the temporal and its upper margin forms the lower lip of the posterior horizontal limb o Sylvian fissure.

The **fronto-parietal operculum** is carried downwards from the parietal and fr regions over the insula, and its lower margin, meeting the temporal operc forms the upper lip of the posterior limb of the Sylvian fissure.

The **frontal operculum** is the small triangular piece of cerebral substance v intervenes between the ascending and anterior horizontal limbs of the Sy fissure. It covers over a small part of the anterior portion of the insula, a sometimes termed the **pars triangularis.**

The **orbital operculum** is, for the most part, on the under surface of the sphere. It lies below and to the inner side of the anterior horizontal limb o Sylvian fissure, and proceeds backwards from the orbital aspect of the fronta over the fore-part of the insula.

Development of the Sylvian Fissure and of the Insular District of the Cerebral sphere.—It is only during the latter half of the intrauterine period of development th opercula take shape and grow over the insula, so as to shut it out from the surface. In it condition the insula presents the form of a depressed area on the side of the cerebral hemis surrounded by a distinct boundary wall formed by the surrounding more elevated surface hemisphere (Fig. 447, A). After a time this depressed area, which is called the Sylvian assumes a triangular outline, and then the bounding wall is observed to be composed of distinct parts, viz.: an upper or fronto-parietal, a lower or temporal, and an anterior or part (Fig. 447, B). The rounded angle, formed by the meeting of the upper and anterior p of the boundary, now becomes flattened, and a short oblique part of the limiting wall, term frontal portion, assumes shape in this position. Each of these four portions of the bou wall of the Sylvian fossa becomes a line of growth, from which an operculum takes origi by the approximation of these opercula, as they grow over the surface of the Sylvian fos insula becomes closed in and the limbs of the Sylvian fissure are formed (Fig. 448).

he temporal and fronto-parietal opercula make their appearance somewhere about the end e fifth month of fœtal development, long before the other two opercula show any indication owth. The temporal operculum grows more rapidly than the fronto-parietal; so that, when nargins of these two opercula come together to form the posterior limb of the Sylvian fissure, is a greater extent of the Sylvian fossa covered by the temporal operculum than by the fronto-tal operculum. This accounts for the more oblique direction of the Sylvian fissure in the fœtal . But at this stage a growth-antagonism between the two opercula takes place, and in this fronto-parietal culum proves the r. The contiguous lips of the two cula become, in the instance, tightly ed together, and , as the upper operum proves the ger and the more rous in its growth, posterior limb of Sylvian fissure bees gradually deed until it assumes inclination characristic of the adult. would appear that opercular growthgonism which pros this effect in the an brain does not r to the same ex, if indeed it occurs l, in the ape. This ident from the obe direction of the posterior limb of the Sylvian fissure in the simian brain. The greater rth-energy of the fronto-parietal operculum in the human brain is not confined to the l stage of development, but is carried into the earlier stages of infantile growth, and it is able that it is due to an extension of that district of the cortex in which the centres the skilled movements of the upper limbs reside, and also to an extension of Flechsig's eto-occipital association area.

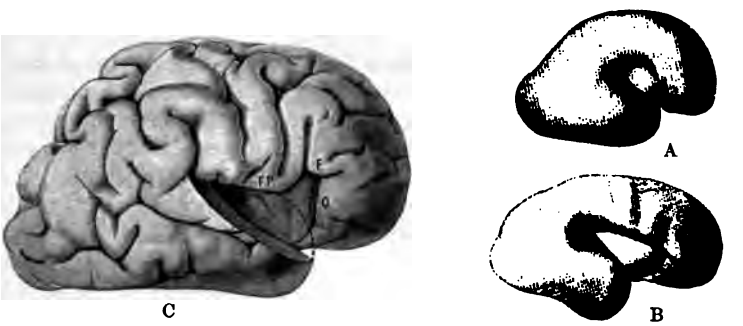


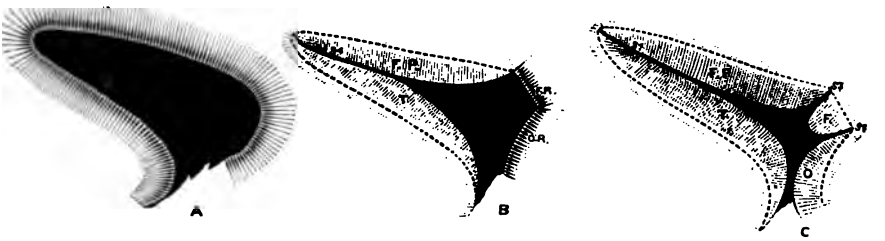
FIG. 447.—THREE STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSULA AND THE INSULAR OPERCULA.

A, Right cerebral hemisphere from a fœtus in the latter part of the fourth month of development; B, Right cerebral hemisphere from a fœtus in the fifth month of development; C, Right cerebral hemisphere from a fœtus in the latter part of the eighth month of development.

In C the temporal operculum has been removed, and thus a large part of the insula is exposed. The outline of the temporal operculum is indicated by a dotted line.

F.P. Fronto-parietal operculum. F, Frontal operculum. O, Orbital operculum.

The orbital and frontal opercula are late in appearing and very tardy in their growth. eed, it is only during the course of the first year of infantile life that they come into apposition



G. 448.—DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE OPERCULA WHICH COVER THE INSULA.

, Sylvian fossa before opercula begin to form; B, Fronto-parietal and temporal opercula well advanced; C, All the four opercula developed but not in apposition.

. Fronto-parietal operculum.	O.R. Orbital wall of fossa.	s^2. Anterior horizontal limb of Sylvian fissure.
Temporal operculum.	F. Frontal operculum.	s^3. Ascending limb.
. Frontal wall of fossa.	O. Orbital operculum.	s^4. Posterior horizontal limb.

h each other and with the other two opercula, so as to close in the fore-part of the Sylvian fossa form the anterior limbs of the Sylvian fissure. They do not begin to take shape until more n half of the Sylvian fossa has already been closed by the fronto-parietal and the temporal rcula. The orbital operculum appears first and is much more constant in its growth than frontal operculum, which indeed frequently fails altogether, and, even when present, shows greatest amount of variability in the degree to which it is developed.

Variations in the degree of development of the frontal operculum influence greatly the form sented by the two anterior limbs of the Sylvian fissure, between which it lies. When strongly eloped, it separates the two Sylvian limbs from each other to such an extent that they assume appearance of the letter U; when the frontal operculum is less strongly marked, the anterior vian limbs may assume a V form or a Y form. In the latter case, the orbital and the fronto-ietal opercula meet below the frontal operculum to form the stem of the Y. In those cases

where the frontal operculum is absent altogether, a single anterior limb of the Sylvian
the result.

The late appearance, the slow growth, the variability of these two opercula, and
tendency to abortive growth or complete suppression of the frontal operculum, all bes
fact that, from a phylogenetic point of view, the frontal and orbital opercula are, comp
speaking, recent productions in the evolution of the human brain. In the anthropoid
are absent, and, consequently, the fore-part of the island of Reil is exposed on the surfa
simian brain. The same condition is not at all an uncommon occurrence in the brai
microcephalic idiot.

Fissure of Rolando (sulcus centralis).—The fissure of Rolando takes an
course across the outer convex surface of the cerebral hemisphere, and inte
between the frontal and parietal lobes it forms the immediate posterior bo
of the motor area of the cortex. Its upper end cuts the supero-mesial bo
the hemisphere a short distance behind the mid-point between the fron
occipital poles, whilst its lower end terminates above the middle of the p
horizontal limb of the fissure of Sylvius. Its superior extremity, as a rul
round the supero-mesial border
hemisphere, and is then continued
wards for a short distance on the
surface. Although, in its general
tion, the fissure is oblique, it is
from being straight. It takes a
course across the hemisphere.
largely due to the area of cortex
represents the motor centre for t
and which lies in front of the
growing backwards in the cours
development so as to produce a
the fissure within which this po
the cortex is accommodated. Th
in the fissure which indicate th
and lower limits of the arm centre
baum and Sherrington) are
respectively the *superior* and
genua. The angle which the
direction of the fissure of Roland
with the mesial plane is tern
Rolandic angle. In the adult b
average Rolandic angle is 71° 7′, and the limits of variation would appear t
and 74°.

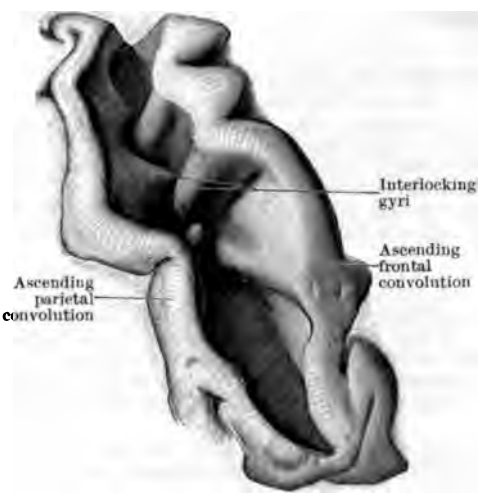


FIG. 449.—FISSURE OF ROLANDO FULLY OPENED UP, so as to exhibit the interlocking gyri and deep annectant gyrus within it.

When the fissure of Rolando is widely opened up, so that its bottom and its opposed
be fully inspected, it will be seen that, between the two genua, the two bounding convol
dovetailed into each other by a number of interlocking gyri, which do not appear on th
(Fig. 449). Further, two of these, placed on opposite sides of the fissure, are frequent
across the bottom of the sulcus in the form of a sunken bridge of connexion, which c
what is termed a *deep annectant gyrus*. The continuity of the fissure is thus, to som
interrupted. This condition is rendered interesting when considered in connexion
development of the sulcus. The deep interlocking gyri indicate a great exuberance o
growth in this situation in the early stages of the development of the fissure; and the p
the deep annectant gyrus is explained by the fact that the fissure of Rolando generally de
two pieces, which run into each other to form the continuous sulcus of the adult, viz. a
responding to the lower two-thirds, and an upper part, which represents the upper t
which appears at a slightly later date. In certain very rare cases the fissure of Rolando is
remain double throughout life, through a failure of its two pieces to unite. In such cases
annectant gyrus, which is frequently seen at the bottom of the furrow, remains on th
Heschl, who examined 2174 cerebral hemispheres, only found this anomaly six times; E
met with it twice in 200 brains.

Parieto-occipital Fissure.—A small part of this fissure appears on t
face of the cerebral hemisphere. For the most part it is situated on the
surface. It is customary, therefore, to describe an external parieto-occip
an internal parieto-occipital fissure. It must be clearly understood, howe
they are directly continuous with each other round the supero-mesial borde

re. The parieto-occipital fissure intervenes between the parietal and lobes.

xternal parieto-occipital fissure cuts the supero-mesial border of the hemi- a transverse direction at a of from one and a half to two t front of the occipital pole. a rule, not more than about a inch long, and it is brought upt termination by an arching ion, which winds round its y and receives the name of **ieto-occipitalis.**

nternal parieto-occipital fissure d downwards on the inner f the hemisphere in a nearly lirection as a conspicuous and t. A short distance behind er end of the corpus callosum r extremity runs into the fissure.

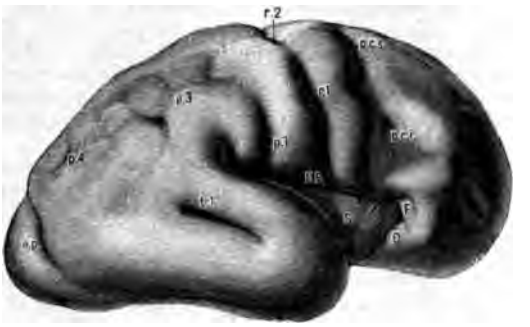
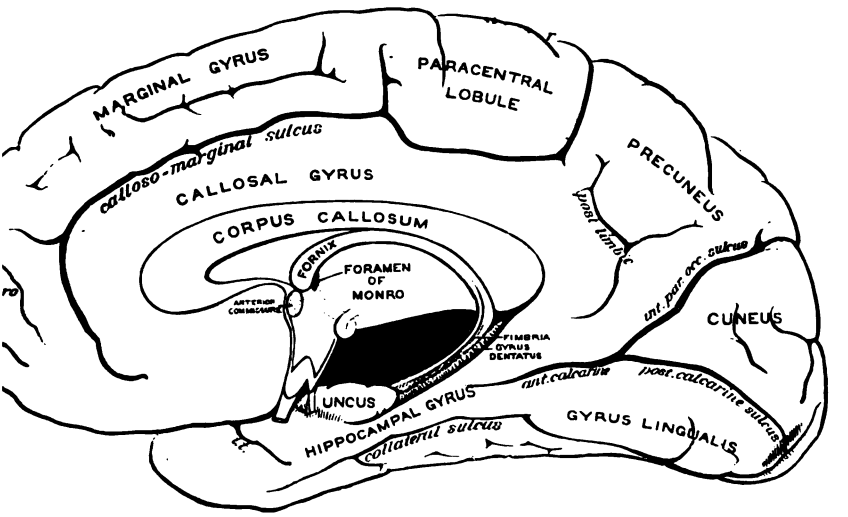


FIG. 450.—LEFT CEREBRAL HEMISPHERE, from a fœtus in the early part of the seventh month of development.

p.c.s.	Sulcus præcentralis superior.	
p.c.i.	Sulcus præcentralis inferior.	
r^1.	Lower part of Rolandic fissure.	
r^2.	Upper part of Rolandic fissure.	
p^1.	Inferior postcentral sulcus	Intraparietal fissure.
p^3.	Ramus horizontalis	
p^4.	Ramus occipitalis	
e.p.	External perpendicular fissure of Bischoff.	
t^1.	Parallel sulcus.	
S.	Sylvian fossa.	
F.P.	Fronto-parietal wall.	
F.	Frontal wall.	
O.	Orbital wall.	

rieto-occipital fissure is developed, after the manner of a complete n the fœtal brain it forms a very ıfolding of the cerebral wall. In brain, however, it does not form ence on the inner wall of the because it does not extend down- ar as the cavity. The wall of the during the growth of the hemi- thickened to such an extent that the part corresponding to the fissure has become solid.

teral Fissure (fissura collateralis).—The collateral sulcus is a strongly- fissure on the tentorial face of the cerebral hemisphere. It begins near ital pole and extends forwards towards the temporal pole. In its posterior placed below, and parallel to, the calcarine fissure, whilst in front it is



. 451.—THE GYRI AND SULCI ON THE MESIAL ASPECT OF THE CEREBRAL HEMISPHERE.
r. Fissure of Rolando. *r.o.* Rostral sulcus. *i.t.* Incisura temporalis.

l from the hippocampal or dentate fissure by the hippocampal gyrus, which nermost convolution on the tentorial surface of the hemisphere.

ont of the anterior extremity of the collateral fissure a shallow sulcus turns e anterior end of the temporal lobe, so as to intervene between the temporal

pole and the uncinate or hook-like extremity of the hippocampal convol... This is the **incisura temporalis**, or **ecto-rhinal fissure**. The collateral fissure an... incisura temporalis intervene between the limbic and temporal lobes.

The collateral fissure is developed, as a rule, in three portions—a hinder or occipit... intermediate, and an anterior or temporal part. These ultimately run into each other and ... the continuous fissure. The middle part is usually a complete fissure and responsible f... production of the *eminentia collateralis posterior* in the floor of the trigonum of the l... ventricle; the temporal part is sometimes a complete fissure, forming when it is so the em... *collateralis anterior*; the occipital part is always incomplete.

Calloso-marginal Fissure.—This fissure is a strongly-marked sulcus on ... fore-part of the mesial surface of the hemisphere. It divides the front portio... the mesial surface into an upper marginal and a lower callosal convolution, ... intervenes between the frontal and limbic lobes. Beginning below the fore-en... the corpus callosum, close to the locus perforatus anticus, the calloso-marg... fissure curves round in front of the genu of the corpus callosum, and then ext... backwards to a point a short distance behind the middle of the mesial surface. ... then turns upwards and cuts the supero-mesial border of the hemisphere, imm... iately behind the upper end of the fissure of Rolando. The relation presented ... the two extremities of these fissures is such that they can both be readily recogni... either when examined on the outer or mesial aspect of the cerebrum.

The calloso-marginal sulcus is developed in two or three separate pieces, which, as gro... proceeds, run into each other and form the continuous fissure. The numerous cases of irregu... arrangement met with in connexion with this fissure can generally be explained by this int... rupted mode of development.

FRONTAL LOBE.—The frontal lobe is the largest of the cerebral lobes. On t... outer surface of the hemisphere, it is bounded behind by the fissure of Rolan... and below by the posterior horizontal limb of the fissure of Sylvius. On the mes... face it is limited by the calloso-marginal fissure, whilst on the inferior surface o... the hemisphere the stem of the Sylvian fissure forms its posterior boundary. It ... presents an outer surface, a mesial surface, and an inferior or orbital surface.

On the *outer surface of the frontal lobe* the following sulci and gyri may b... recognised:—

- Sulci
  - Sulcus præcentralis inferior.
  - Sulcus præcentralis superior.
  - Sulcus paramedialis.
  - Sulcus frontalis superior.
  - Sulcus frontalis medius.
  - Sulcus frontalis inferior.
  - Sulcus diagonalis.
  - Sulcus fronto-marginalis.
- Gyri
  - Gyrus frontalis ascendens or gyrus centralis anterior.
  - Gyrus frontalis superior
    - pars superior.
    - pars inferior.
  - Gyrus frontalis medius
    - pars superior.
    - pars inferior.
  - Gyrus frontalis inferior
    - pars basilaris.
    - pars triangularis.
    - pars orbitalis.

The **inferior præcentral sulcus** consists of a vertical and a horizontal part, and ... when developed in a typical manner, it presents a figure like the letter T or F. ... The *vertical portion* lies in front of the lower part of the fissure of Rolando, while ... the *horizontal part* extends obliquely forwards and upwards into the middle fronta... convolution.

The **superior præcentral sulcus** is a short vertical sulcus which lies at a higher ... level than the inferior præcentral furrow, in front of the upper part of the fissu... of Rolando. It is almost invariably connected with the hinder end of the superi... frontal sulcus.

The **anterior central convolution** (ascending frontal gyrus) is a long continuo... gyrus, which is limited in front by the two præcentral furrows and behind b... the fissure of Rolando. It extends obliquely across the hemisphere from t... supero-mesial margin above to the posterior horizontal limb of the Sylvian fissu... below.

The **superior frontal sulcus** extends forwards in a more or less horizontal dire... tion from the sulcus præcentralis superior.

The **gyrus frontalis superior** is the narrow convolution between the supero-mesi...

f the hemisphere and the superior frontal sulcus. It takes a horizontal
the frontal pole.

inferior frontal sulcus occupies a lower level than the superior frontal furrow. er end is placed in the angle between the vertical and horizontal parts of ior præcentral sulcus, and is not infrequently confluent with one or other . It proceeds forwards towards the superciliary margin of the hemisphere s a short distance from this in a terminal bifurcation.

gyrus frontalis medius is the name given to the broad convolution which veen the superior and inferior frontal sulci.

gyrus frontalis inferior is that portion of the outer surface of the frontal ich is placed in front of the inferior præcentral sulcus and below the inferior sulcus. The inferior frontal convolution is cut into three pieces by two limbs of the Sylvian fissure. These are termed the pars basilaris, the pars laris, and the pars orbitalis.

pars basilaris is that part which lies between the vertical limb of the inferior ral sulcus and the ascending limb of the Sylvian fissure. It forms the anterior the fronto-parietal operculum, and it is traversed in an oblique direction by w but constant furrow, termed the **sulcus diagonalis**. The **pars triangularis** is another name for the frontal operculum. It is triangular in form, and lies the anterior ascending and the anterior horizontal limbs of the Sylvian The **pars orbitalis** is placed below the anterior horizontal limb of the fissure.

inferior frontal convolution possesses a special interest on account of the localisation , on the left side, of the speech centre. From it, also, the front part of the fronto-parietal whole of the frontal operculum are developed. This opercular development in connexion inferior frontal gyrus constitutes a leading point of difference between the brain of man of the ape. Even in the highest ape the inferior frontal convolution is not opercular. tal operculum is not present and the anterior part of the insula is exposed on the surface. the excess of growth which determines the formation of the frontal operculum in man connexion with the development of the speech centre.

sulcus paramedialis is the term applied to a series of short irregular depres- furrows, arranged longitudinally, close to the supero-mesial border of the here. These rudimentary sulci partially subdivide the superior frontal con- into an upper and a lower part, and they are of interest in so far that they as a rule developed in the higher apes, and are deeper and better marked in her than the lower types of human brain.

sulcus frontalis medius (Eberstaller) proceeds horizontally forwards in the of the middle frontal convolution, so as to subdivide it into an upper and a art. When the furrow reaches the superciliary margin of the hemisphere cates, and its terminal branches spread out widely and constitute a trans- rrow, called the *fronto-marginal sulcus*. The sulcus frontalis medius is only n man and the anthropoid apes. It is not present in any of the lower apes. ng to the subdivision of the superior and middle frontal convolutions in the indicated, the typical arrangement of the convolutions in the anterior part outer surface of the frontal lobe is in five horizontal tiers, and not in three formerly described.

rule, the sulci on the outer surface of the frontal lobe during the process of development in the following order: (1) sulcus præcentralis inferior; (2) sulcus frontalis inferior; is præcentralis superior and sulcus frontalis superior; (4) sulcus frontalis medius; s paramedialis. This gives some indication of the relative morphological importance of ci, although it should be borne in mind that the period at which sulci appear on the ain cannot in every case be taken as affording an infallible guide in our attempts to them their relative morphological value.

the *mesial aspect of the frontal lobe* there is an elongated more or less ous convolution, called the **gyrus marginalis**. It lies between the supero- margin of the hemisphere and the calloso-marginal fissure. In the fore-part gyrus one or two curved sulci are usually present. They are termed the **strales**. The posterior part of the marginal convolution is more or less tely cut off from the portion which lies in front. This part is called the

paracentral lobule, and into it the upper end of the fissure of Rolando is pr as it turns over the supero-mesial border of the hemisphere.

On the *orbital aspect of the frontal lobe* there are two sulci, viz. the o and the orbital.

The **olfactory sulcus** is a straight furrow which runs parallel to the mesia of the hemisphere. It is occupied by the olfactory tract and bulb, and it c narrow strip of the orbital surface close to the mesial border, which recei name of **gyrus rectus**.

The **orbital sulcus** is a composite furrow which assumes many different As a general rule it presents a shape similar to that of the letter H, and composed of three parts, viz. an external limb, an internal limb, and a tra limb. The **external limb** orbitalis externus) curve the orbital part of the frontal convolution, so limit it on this aspect brain. The **internal limb** orbitalis internus) is fre broken up into two pie marks off a convolution l itself and the olfactory called the **gyrus orbit ternus**. The **transver** (sulcus orbitalis tran takes a curved course the internal and externa The district in front is the **gyrus orbitalis ante** that behind the **gyrus posterior**. The latter, outer part, corresponds v orbital operculum.

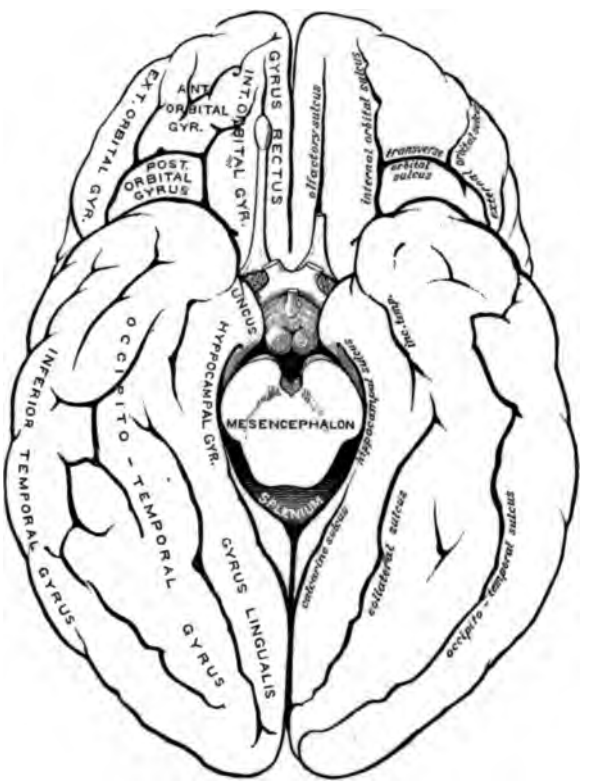


FIG. 452.—GYRI AND SULCI on the tentorial and orbital aspects of the cerebral hemispheres.

PARIETAL LOBE. parietal lobe forms a c able part of the external of the cerebral hemisph it also appears on th surface in the form of t cuneus or the quadrate *In front*, it is bounded fissure of Rolando, whic ates it from the front *Below*, it is limited in its fore-part by the posterior horizontal limb of the fi Sylvius. Behind the upturned end of this fissure the surface of the parie is continuous inferiorly with that of the temporal lobe, and an arbitrary lin backwards on the surface of the brain, in continuation of the horizontal par posterior limb of the Sylvian fissure, is taken as its inferior limit. *Poster* is separated from the occipital lobe at the supero-mesial border of the hem by the external parieto-occipital fissure. Below this fissure the surface parietal lobe is continuous with that of the occipital lobe; and an arbitr drawn across the outer surface of the hemisphere, from the extremity of the parieto-occipital fissure to an indentation on the infero-lateral border of th sphere, termed the **præoccipital notch**, may be regarded as furnishing a p limitation.

The præoccipital notch is, as a rule, only visible in brains that have been hardened in is placed on the infero-lateral border of the hemisphere, about an inch and a half in fro occipital pole, and is produced by a vertical fold or wrinkle of the dura mater on the de of the parieto-mastoid suture, and immediately above the highest part of the lateral blo There is great variability in the degree to which this fold of dura mater projects in

iduals. In the child it is always very salient, and often produces a deep cleft in the brain, s the full size of the cranium is gradually attained it becomes much less projecting. In the g skull two or three such folds in this locality are frequently apparent. Related to the præ- tal notch there are likewise some cerebral veins which turn round the infero-lateral margin e hemisphere to join the lateral blood-sinus.

)n the *mesial surface of the hemisphere* the parietal lobe is represented by **præcuneus** or **quadrate lobule.** This district, which is somewhat quadrilateral in ., lies between the upturned end of the calloso-marginal sulcus and the internal ɛto-occipital fissure. It is imperfectly separated below from the limbic lobe by newhat variable furrow called the **post-limbic sulcus.**

The gyri and sulci, on the *outer surface of the parietal lobe,* are the following:—

- Sulci
  - Sulcus intraparietalis (of Turner).
    - Sulcus postcentralis inferior.
    - Sulcus postcentralis superior.
    - Ramus horizontalis.
    - Ramus occipitalis.
  - Upturned ends of—
    - (*a*) Sylvian fissure.
    - (*b*) Parallel fissure.
    - (*c*) Second temporal fissure.
- Gyri
  - Gyrus ascendens parietalis or gyrus postcentralis.
  - Gyrus parietalis superior.
  - Gyrus parietalis inferior
    - Gyrus supramarginalis.
    - Gyrus angularis.
    - Gyrus postparietalis.

The **intraparietal sulcus** (of Turner) is a composite furrow, and is built up ɔur originally distinct factors. Two of these, termed the sulcus postcentralis rior and the sulcus postcentralis superior, take a more or less oblique course ɛs the hemisphere, and are most frequently united into one continuous fissure. other two factors are placed horizontally, one behind the other, and are termed ramus horizontalis and the ramus occipitalis.

The **sulcus postcentralis inferior** lies behind the lower part of the fissure of ando, whilst the **sulcus postcentralis superior** occupies a similar position in tion to the upper part of that fissure. When confluent they form a long, con- ıous fissure, which stretches across the hemisphere behind the fissure of Rolando parallel to it.

The **ramus horizontalis** is continuous, as a rule, with the upper end of the sulcus tcentralis inferior, and extends backwards, with a slight inclination upwards ween the superior parietal gyrus, which lies above it, and the inferior parietal us, which is placed below it. With the two confluent postcentral sulci it ɜents a figure like the letter ⊣ placed on its side.

The **ramus occipitalis** is a curved sulcus which bounds externally the arcus ieto-occipitalis, or, in other words, the arching convolution which surrounds the ernal parieto-occipital fissure. The ramus occipitalis lies behind the ramus izontalis, and is generally linked on to it; less frequently it is separate. The terior end of the ramus occipitalis enters the occipital lobe, and, behind the arcus ieto-occipitalis, bifurcates into two widely spread-out branches. These form a rt transverse fissure in the occipital lobe, termed the **sulcus occipitalis transversus.**

In the human brain the intraparietal sulcus is usually developed in four separate pieces, esponding to the four portions of the fissure which have been described as being present in adult brain. The sulcus postcentralis inferior appears first (somewhere about the end of the h month), then the ramus occipitalis and the ramus horizontalis; last of all the sulcus post- ralis superior comes into view. The further development of the sulcus consists in the ning together of these early pieces. This takes place in different ways, and not infrequently ɔn fails at one or more points, and thus a great variety of combinations may be noted ifferent individuals; indeed, it may be said that every possible kind of combination may be with. The most common form which the fissure assumes, however, is that in which all its ors have become confluent and one continuous furrow results. When such an intraparietal ow is widely opened up, certain deep annectant gyri, which cross the bottom of the sulcus, e into view. These interrupt the sulcus at the points of union between its several pieces and cate its original multiple formation.

There is reason to believe that three of the elements of the human intraparietal sulcus, viz. sulcus postcentralis inferior, the ramus horizontalis, and the ramus occipitalis, are disrupted ions of the primitive single continuous fissure which is seen in certain of the lower apes ɔus), whilst one, the sulcus postcentralis superior, is a superadded element.

There is a strong analogy between the postcentral sulcus, the fissure of Rolando, and the

præcentral sulcus. They form a group of radial sulci on the outer surface of the fœtal cereb above the Sylvian region. The fissure of Rolando makes its appearance first, then the præce sulcus, and, lastly, the postcentral sulcus. Each assumes shape in the first instance in two pi viz. an upper and lower. The two pieces of the fissure of Rolando join early, and only in rare instances remain separate; the two pieces of the postcentral furrow usually join, but i per cent of cerebral hemispheres they remain separate; the two pieces of the præcentral fur as a rule, remain separate and distinct.

The **sulcus transversus occipitalis**, or bifurcated extremity of the ramus occipitalis, has

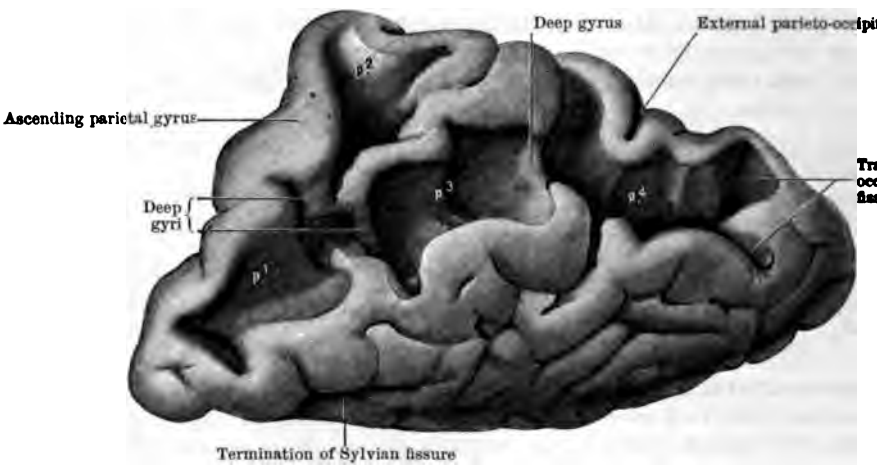


FIG. 453.—THE INTRAPARIETAL SULCUS FULLY OPENED UP, so as to show its several parts and th deep annectant gyri intervening between them.

p^1. Sulcus postcentralis inferior.
p^2. Sulcus postcentralis superior.
p^3. Ramus horizontalis.
p^4. Ramus occipitalis.

until lately generally believed to be the representative in the human brain of the conspi "Affenspalte," in the cerebrum of the ape. The accuracy of this view was challenged in (*Cunningham Memoir*, No. vii. Roy. Irish Acad.), and recently Elliot Smith has brought fo evidence of a very convincing kind which seems to show that in the human brain the ". spalte" is represented by the sulcus occipitalis lateralis of Eberstaller.

The intraparietal sulcus maps out three districts or gyri on the external su of the parietal lobe, viz. the posterior central convolution, the superior pa gyrus, and the inferior parietal gyrus.

The upturned ends of the fissure of Sylvius, of the first temporal or pa sulcus, and of the second temporal sulcus ascend for a short distance, one be the other, into the inferior parietal gyrus.

The posterior central convolution (ascending parietal convolution) is a long g which extends obliquely across the hemisphere from the supero-mesial border a to the Sylvian fissure below. It is bounded in front by the fissure of Rolando behind by the superior and inferior postcentral sulci.

The **superior parietal gyrus** is the area of cerebral cortex which lies betwee supero-mesial border of the hemisphere above and the ramus horizontalis below. front it is bounded by the superior postcentral sulcus, whilst behind it is conn with the occipital lobe by the arcus parieto-occipitalis. It is continuous roun supero-mesial border with the præcuneus.

The **inferior parietal gyrus** lies below the ramus horizontalis and the ramus pitalis and behind the inferior præcentral sulcus. It is more or less directly tinuous with the occipital lobe behind and the temporal lobe below. From b backwards it presents three arching convolutions, viz. the supra-marginal angular, and the postparietal. The **supramarginal convolution** is bent roun upturned end of the posterior limb of the Sylvian fissure, and stands in conti behind and below this, with the first temporal gyrus. The **angular convol** arches over the upturned end of the parallel sulcus and becomes continuous the second temporal convolution. The **postparietal convolution** winds roun upturned end of the second temporal sulcus and runs into the third temporal g

OCCIPITAL LOBE.—The occipital lobe forms the hinder pyramidal part o

ebral hemisphere; and although very imperfectly mapped off from the temporal . parietal lobes, which lie in front of it, it is nevertheless one of the most natural divisions of the cerebral hemisphere. It is not developed in the brain of the druped. Man and the ape alone possess a well-marked occipital lobe, and it y be defined as being that part of the hemisphere which encloses the posterior n of the lateral ventricle. Being pyramidal in form, it presents three surfaces l an apex or occipital pole. On the mesial aspect of the hemisphere it is arated from the parietal lobe (*i.e.* the præcuneus) by the internal parieto-occi- al fissure. On the tentorial or inferior surface it is not marked off in any way m the temporal lobe and the limbic lobe, which lie in front of it. It is necessary, refore, on this aspect to employ an arbitrary line of demarcation; one which ends from the præoccipital notch on the infero-lateral border of the hemisphere the isthmus of the limbic lobe (*i.e.* the narrow part of the limbic lobe immedi- ly below the hinder end of the corpus callosum) will serve the purpose. On the ternal surface the external parieto-occipital fissure, and an arbitrary line from s to the præoccipital notch, may be regarded as separating the occipital from the rietal and temporal lobes. The upturned end of the second temporal sulcus may in the course of this line.

On the *mesial aspect of the occipital lobe* we find: (1) the calcarine fissure,) the cuneus, and (3) the gyrus lingualis.

The **calcarine fissure** begins on the occipital pole by a bifurcated extremity, hich lies in the groove which is formed on this part of the brain by the lateral ius. From this it pursues a slightly arched course forwards, and ends by cutting to the limbic lobe immediately below the splenium or thickened hinder margin of e corpus callosum. The calcarine fissure is joined by the internal parieto-occipital sure at a point somewhat nearer its anterior than its posterior extremity. gether, the two fissures present a ≺-shaped figure. Between the two limbs of e Y is placed the cuneus.

If the calcarine and internal parieto-occipital fissures are opened up so as to expose the ttom in each case, three well-marked deep or submerged annectant gyri will usually be dis- ayed. One of these, the best marked, called the **gyrus cunei**, marks off the parieto-occipital from

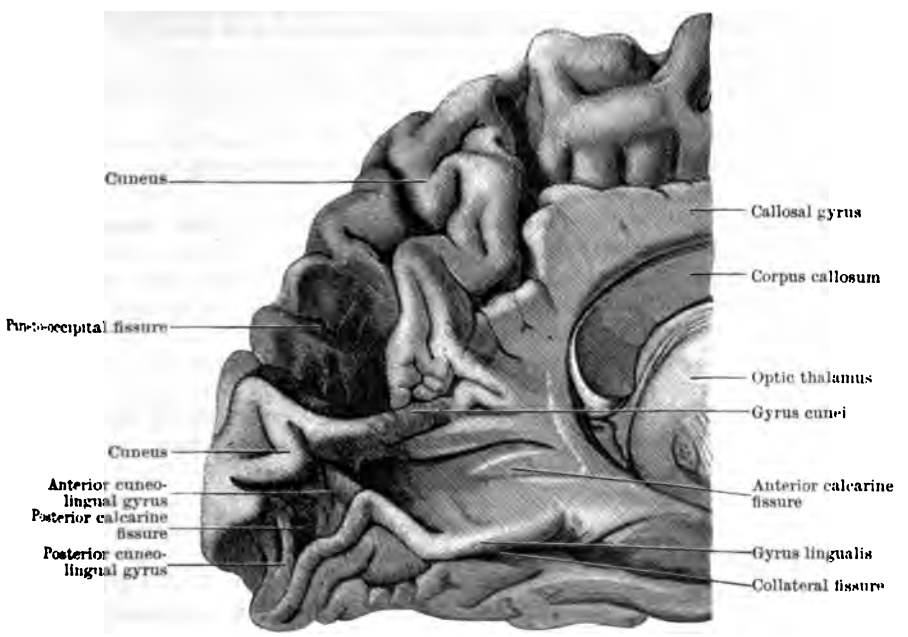


FIG. 454.—INTERNAL PARIETO-OCCIPITAL AND THE CALCARINE FISSURES FULLY OPENED UP, so as to show the deep annectant gyri marking off the several elements of the ≺-shaped system.

the calcarine fissure and joins the cuneus with the limbic lobe. In the chimpanzee and in the lower apes the gyrus cunei is on the surface, and there is no communication between the two fissures; in the orang, gibbon, and microcephalic idiot, it may either be submerged or on the

surface. The second deep annectant gyrus, termed the **anterior cuneo-lingual**, crosses the h of the calcarine fissure a short distance behind the point where it is joined by the pariet pital fissure, and divides it into an anterior and a posterior part. The **anterior calcarine fis** slightly longer and much deeper than the posterior part. It includes the whole of the s the Y-shaped fissural arrangement and extends backwards for a short distance into the c It is the complete part of the fissure and gives rise to an elevation on the inner wall posterior horn of the lateral ventricle, to which the name of calcar avis or **hippocampus m** given. The **posterior calcarine fissure** is shallower and is usually interrupted by the thi annectant gyrus, viz. the **posterior cuneo-lingual**; this divides it into two **parts**, of whi

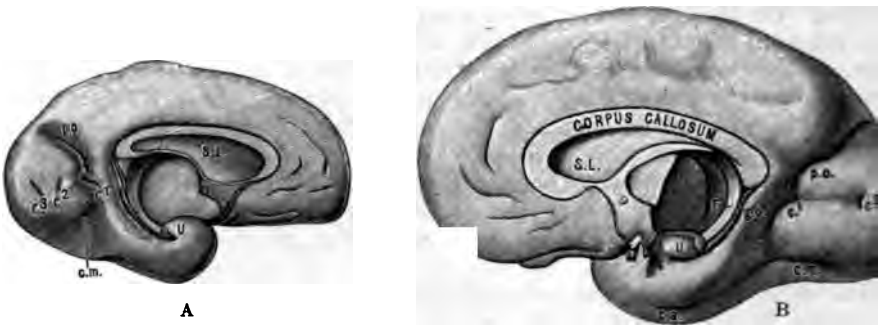


FIG. 455.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE PARIETO-OCCIPITAL AND THE CALCARINE FISSURES.

A, Mesial aspect of a left cerebral hemisphere of a fœtus approaching the end of the fifth month of ment; B, Mesial aspect of a right cerebral hemisphere of a fœtus in the beginning of the mouth of development.

S.L. Septum lucidum.
f. Fornix.
U. Uncus.
g.d. Gyrus dentatus.
p.o. Parieto-occipital fissure.
c^1. Anterior calcarine fissure.
c^2. c^3. Two parts of posterior calcarine fissu
c.a. Anterior collateral fissure.
c.m. Mid-collateral fissure.

hinder is little more than the bifurcated extremity of the fissure. Very frequently th gyrus reaches the surface, and then the hinder end of the sulcus is completely cut of posterior calcarine fissure is not a complete fissure.

When the manner in which the calcarine fissure is developed is studied, the various ances which come into view when the bottom of the adult fissure is inspected receive the explanation. The anterior calcarine fissure is formed very early as an infolding of the the cerebral hemisphere. The posterior calcarine fissure is a secondary formation. It much later, and usually in two pieces, which run together and then join the anterior ca fissure. The points of union are indicated in the adult by the two cuneo-lingual deep gyr

The **cuneus** is the wedge-shaped or triangular district, on the mesial asp the occipital lobe, which lies between the internal parieto-occipital and cal fissures.

The **gyrus lingualis** is a well-marked convolution between the calcarine above and the posterior part of the collateral fissure below, which str forwards from the occipital pole. Anteriorly, it becomes very narrow and the hippocampal part of the limbic lobe. It lies partly on the mesial surfa partly on the tentorial surface of the occipital lobe.

On the *tentorial surface of the occipital lobe* there is only one convol viz. the posterior part of the **occipito-temporal gyrus**. It proceeds contin forwards into the temporal lobe on the outer side of the collateral fissure, bounded externally by the **occipito-temporal sulcus**, a furrow which is rarel tinuous, but is usually represented by a series of detached pieces.

There are two well-marked sulci on the *external surface of the occipita* viz. the sulcus occipitalis transversus and the sulcus occipitalis lateralis. The **occipitalis transversus** extends transversely across the upper part of the lobe, t the arcus parieto-occipitalis. As already explained, it is the terminal bifurca the ramus occipitalis of the intraparietal sulcus. The **sulcus occipitalis later** a short horizontal, often sharply-curved, furrow, which divides the outer surf the lobe into an upper and a lower area of very nearly equal extent. These are connected by superficial annectant gyri with the parietal and temporal lo

Elliot Smith has brought forward very convincing proof in favour of regardi sulcus occipitalis lateralis as the representative of the "Affenspalte" in the brain

calls it the **sulcus lunatus occipitalis**, and shows that in the brains of Egyptian it not infrequently possesses an operculum, and presents an appearance which rresponds with the condition distinctive of the gorilla. The same may occasion- en in the brain of the aboriginal Australian.

ORAL LOBE.—The temporal lobe lies behind the stem and below the horizontal limb of the Sylvian fissure. It is somewhat pyramidal in form, ents an upper, an outer, and a tentorial surface, with a free projecting apex Above, it is bounded by the posterior horizontal limb of the fissure of together with the artificial line which is drawn backwards from this. On rial face it is separated from the hippocampal part of the limbic lobe by teral fissure, whilst behind it is marked off from the occipital lobe by the lines already described. The temporal pole projects forwards on the under f the brain beyond the stem of the Sylvian fissure. It should be noticed recurved end of the hippocampal part of the limbic lobe (uncus), which lies ner side of the temporal pole, does not extend so far forwards as the latter, parated from the pole by the incisura temporalis or ecto-rhinal fissure.

upper or opercular surface of the temporal lobe is turned towards the f Reil and the fronto-parietal operculum. The fissure of Sylvius must, , be widely opened up to expose it. For the most part the surface is but towards the back part there are a few transverse furrows, which two or three weakly-expressed gyri.

terior transverse gyrus is much more strongly expressed in the fœtal than in the adult appears in the early part of the seventh month, and is only subsequently completely thin the Sylvian fissure. The fact of the auditory centre being localised in this region poral lobe makes this fact of interest.

he deep surface of the temporal pole there are also a few feeble furrows.

he *outer surface of the temporal lobe* there are two horizontal sulci, called ely the first temporal or parallel and the second temporal sulcus.

parallel sulcus is a long, continuous, and deep fissure, which begins near the l pole and proceeds backwards below the posterior limb of the Sylvian Its hinder end turns upwards into the parietal lobe and is surrounded by lar gyrus. The **second temporal sulcus** is placed midway between the sulcus and the infero-lateral border of the hemisphere. It is very rare to in the form of a continuous cleft; usually it is broken up into several pieces, one behind the other. Its hinder part, which turns upwards into tal lobe, lies close to the artificial line of demarcation between the occipital etal lobes, and is surrounded by the postparietal gyrus.

he two temporal sulci the outer surface of the temporal lobe is mapped out e tiers of horizontal convolutions, which are termed the **first**, **second**, and **poral gyri**.

he *tentorial surface of the temporal lobe* there is one fissure, termed the temporal sulcus. The **occipito-temporal sulcus** lies to the outer side of the l fissure and close to the infero-lateral margin of the hemisphere. It runs tero-posterior direction, and is not confined to the temporal lobe, but backwards towards the occipital pole. It is usually broken up into two separate pieces.

occipito-temporal convolution is situated between the collateral fissure and pito-temporal sulcus. It extends from the occipital pole behind to the l pole in front.

narrow strip of surface on the outer side of the occipito-temporal sulcus is us, round the infero-lateral margin of the hemisphere, with the third l convolution on the outer surface of the cerebrum, and may be reckoned of it.

three temporal convolutions and the occipito-temporal convolutions run other at the temporal pole.

ND OF REIL OR INSULA.—The insula is a triangular and somewhat bulging erebral cortex, which lies on a deeper plane than the general surface of the ere and is hidden from view by the four opercula which overlap it. It is ribed by a limiting sulcus (sulcus circularis), already described, and its

dependent apical part, which is directed downwards, is in close relation to the anterior perforated spot and the Sylvian vallecula. Here the limiting sulcus is absent and the gray matter on the surface of the insula passes continuously into the anterior perforated spot. The place of transition is called the **limen insulæ**.

The insula is divided into several diverging convolutions by a series of radial sulci. Of the latter, one, which presents the same direction and lies in the same plane as the fissure of Rolando, receives the name of the **sulcus centralis insulæ** (Fig. 447, C, p. 557). It divides the insula into an anterior *frontal part* and a posterior *parieto-limbic part.*

LIMBIC LOBE.—This lobe is seen on the mesial surface of the hemisphere in the form of an elongated ring-like convolution, the extremities of which approach closely to each other at the locus perforatus anticus. These extremities are connected by the roots of the olfactory tract, and in this manner the limbic ring may be considered to be closed. The upper part of the limbic lobe is placed in intimate relation to the extremities and upper surface of the corpus callosum, and receives the name of callosal convolution or gyrus fornicatus. The lower portion of the lobe is termed the hippocampal convolution and forms the inner part of the tentorial surface of the hemisphere. The continuity between the hippocampal gyrus and the callosal convolution is established below the hinder end of the corpus callosum by a narrow portion of the limbic lobe, called the **isthmus**. From this point the hippocampal convolution extends forwards towards the temporal pole. Finally, on the side of the crus cerebri, the hippocampal gyrus is folded back on itself and ends in a recurved hook-like extremity called the **uncus**. The uncus does not reach so far forwards as the temporal pole.

The **callosal convolution** begins below the anterior end of the corpus callosum at the locus perforatus anticus, and, winding round the genu of the corpus callosum, it is continued backwards on its upper surface to its hinder thickened extremity or splenium. Curving round this, it becomes greatly narrowed through the calcarine fissure cutting into it. This narrow part is termed the **isthmus**, and constitutes the link of connexion between the callosal gyrus and the hippocampal gyrus. The callosal gyrus is separated from the marginal convolution by the calloso-marginal fissure, and behind this it is imperfectly marked off from the præcuneus by the post-limbic sulcus. The furrow which separates it from the corpus callosum is termed the **callosal sulcus.**

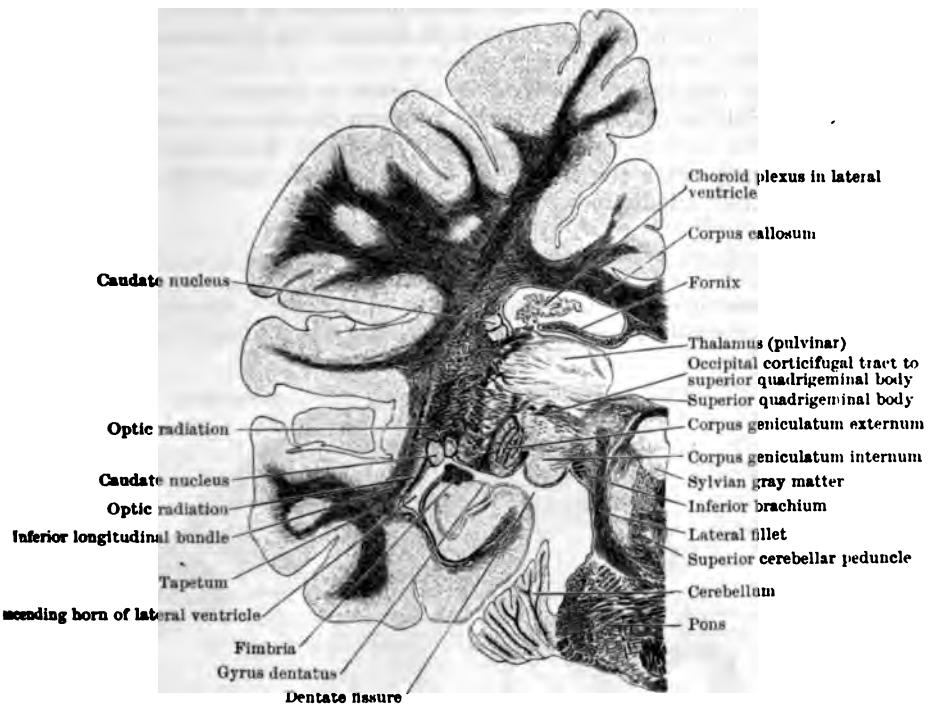
The **hippocampal convolution** is bounded on the outer side by the anterior part of the collateral fissure, and in front of this by the incisura temporalis, which separates its hooked extremity, or **uncus**, from the temporal pole. On the inner side it is limited by the hippocampal or dentate fissure, whilst posteriorly it is divided into two parts by the anterior extremity of the calcarine fissure. Of these, the upper is the isthmus, which connects it with the callosal gyrus, whilst the lower portion brings it into continuity with the gyrus lingualis. The surface of the hippocampal convolution is covered by a white reticular stratum of fibres, termed the *substantia reticularis alba.*

Although the hippocampal convolution and uncus in descriptive anatomy are classed together there is a marked morphological distinction between them. The uncus is the feeble representative in man of the important pyriform lobe in certain of the lower mammals, and consequently it belongs to the *rhinencephalon*; the hippocampal convolution, on the other hand, is to be regarded as forming a part of the *neo-pallium* of Elliot Smith. The unimportant incisura temporalis of the human brain in lower types of brain in which the rhinencephalon bulks largely is represented by the conspicuous *ecto-rhinal fissure.*

Gyrus Dentatus and the Fimbria.—If the dentate fissure, which lies along the inner side of the hippocampal convolution, be opened up, the gyrus dentatus and the fimbria, lying side by side, will be brought into view (Fig. 451, p. 559).

The **fimbria** is simply a portion of the posterior pillar of the fornix prolonged into this region. It is a conspicuous band of white matter, which presents a prominent free border. In front it runs into the recurved extremity of the uncus, whilst, if traced backwards, it will be seen to curve upwards behind the posterior end of the optic thalamus and become continuous with the posterior pillar of the fornix below the hinder part of the corpus callosum.

The gyrus dentatus is the free edge of gray matter which is placed between the **bria** and the deep part of the upper surface of the hippocampal convolution. **e** groove between it and the fimbria is termed the **fimbrio-dentate sulcus**, whilst **furrow** between it and the hippocampal convolution forms the bottom of the **tate fissure.** The dentate gyrus is notched along the margin, whilst its surface **scored** by numerous parallel and closely-placed transverse grooves. It begins **and** in the region of the splenium or thickened posterior margin of the corpus



g. 456.—Coronal Section through the Left Side of the Cerebrum, Mesencephalon, and Pons, in the Region of the Pulvinar of the Thalamus and the Corpora Geniculata (Chimpanzee; Weigert-Pal specimen).

llosum, and is carried forwards into the cleft of the uncus. From this it emerges the form of a delicate band, which crosses the surface of the recurved part of the ncus in a transverse direction, thereby constituting the *frenulum Giacomini*.

The **dentate fissure** is a complete fissure, and the elevation on the ventricular all which corresponds to it is called the hippocampus major. It begins behind e splenium of the corpus callosum, where it is continuous with a shallow part of e callosal fissure, and it proceeds forwards between the gyrus dentatus and the ippocampal convolution. Its anterior end is enclosed within the uncus.

When coronal sections are made through the callosal part of the limbic lobe and the subjacent rpus callosum, the cortical gray matter is seen to be reflected from the bottom of the callosal sure in the form of an exceedingly fine layer, which forms a thin coating for the upper surface the corpus callosum. In the midst of this certain delicate strands of longitudinal fibres, the **ra longitudinales**, are embedded, and, with the gray matter associated with them, they re-esent an aborted or vestigial convolution, termed the **gyrus supracallosus**. This gyrus is con-nuous with the gyrus dentatus round the hinder margin of the corpus callosum.

Olfactory Lobe.—The olfactory lobe is small and rudimentary in the human ain, and the description which is given here does not include all the parts which, om the morphological point of view, belong to this portion of the cerebral hemi-here (see p. 584). Under this heading we shall study merely: (1) the olfactory lb and tract, with the two roots of the latter; (2) the trigonum olfactorium.

The **olfactory tract** is a narrow, white, prismatic band, which expands anteriorly to a swollen bulbous extremity, termed the **olfactory bulb.** Both the tract and e bulb lie upon the olfactory sulcus on the orbital surface of the frontal lobe,

whilst the inferior surface of the bulb rests on the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone, and receives the numerous olfactory nerves which reach it through the foramina in that part of the cranial floor.

Posteriorly, the olfactory tract divides into two diverging roots. The **mesial root** curves abruptly inwards and is continued into the callosal and sub-callosal gyri. The **lateral root** runs outwards and backwards over the outer part of the locus perforatus anticus, and gradually disappears from view. In animals, in which the olfactory apparatus is better developed than in man, it may be traced into what corresponds to the uncinate extremity of the hippocampal convolution in man (Fig. 380, p. 474).

The **trigonum olfactorium** or olfactory tubercle is the small triangular field of gray matter which occupies the interval between the roots of the olfactory tract at the point where they begin to diverge. Some fibres from the posterior end of the olfactory tract enter the trigonum, and, in certain cases, these constitute a more or less distinct **middle root.**

Corpus Callosum, Septum Lucidum, and Fornix.

Corpus Callosum.—The corpus callosum is the great transverse commissure which passes between the two cerebral hemispheres. It is placed nearer the anterior

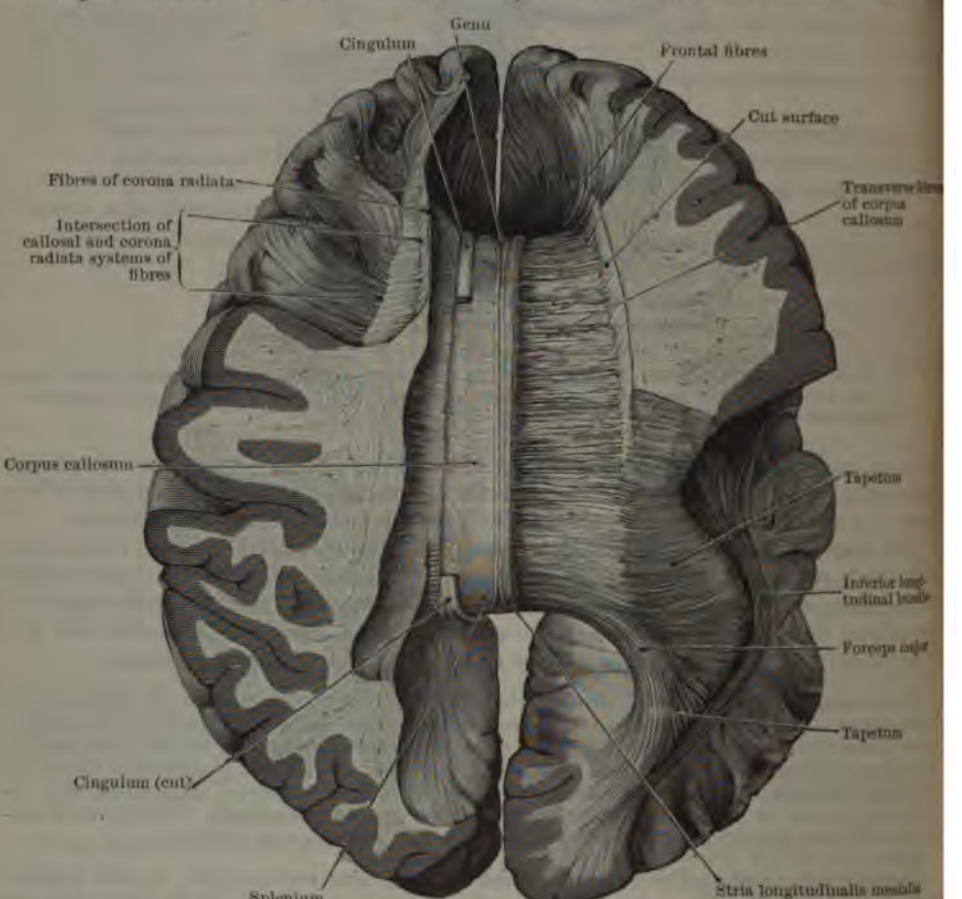


FIG. 457.—THE CORPUS CALLOSUM, exposed from above and the right half dissected, to show the course taken by its fibres.

than the posterior aspect of the brain, and it unites the inner surfaces of the hemispheres throughout very nearly a half of their antero-posterior length. The corpus callosum is highly arched from before backwards, and presents a convex upper surface and a concave lower surface.

The *upper surface* of the corpus callosum forms the bottom of the great longitudinal fissure, and on each side of this it is covered by the callosal gyrus. Only its posterior part is it touched by the falx cerebri; in front, this process of dura mater falls considerably short of it. The upper surface of the callosum is covered by a thin layer of gray matter continuous at the bottom of the callosal sulcus with the gray cortex on the surface of the hemisphere. In this there are embedded on either side of the mesial plane two delicate longitudinal bands of fibres, called respectively the stria longitudinalis medialis and lateralis. The **stria longitudinalis medialis** is the more strongly marked of the two, and it is separated from its neighbour of the opposite side by a faint mesial furrow. The **stria longitudinalis lateralis** is placed farther out, under cover of the callosal gyrus. The thin coating of gray matter, with the two striæ, represents an aborted convolution, termed the **gyrus supracallosus**. So thin is the gray coating supplied by this gyrus that the transverse direction pursued by the callosal fibres proper can be easily perceived through it.

The two extremities of the corpus callosum are much thickened, whilst the intermediate part or **body** is considerably thinner. The massive *posterior end*, which is full and rounded, lies over the mesencephalon and extends backwards as far as the highest point of the cerebellum. It is called the **splenium**, and it consists of an upper and a lower part. The latter is bent forwards under the upper part, to the inferior surface of which it is closely applied. The *anterior end* of the corpus callosum is not quite so massive and is folded downwards and backwards on itself. It is termed the **genu**. The recurved lower part of the genu is separated from the part of the corpus callosum, which lies above, by an interval. It rapidly thins as it passes backwards and receives the name of the **rostrum**. The fine terminal edge of the rostrum becomes connected with the lamina cinerea.

The gyrus supracallosus, with its contained medial and lateral longitudinal striæ, when traced backwards, is seen to turn round the splenium and become continuous with the gyrus dentatus. In front the mesial striæ, with the associated gray matter, are carried round the genu and then backwards on the under surface of the rostrum. As they turn round the anterior extremity of the corpus callosum, each stria runs into the corresponding **gyrus subcallosus**—a narrow cortical strip which lies on the mesial surface of the hemisphere immediately below the genu of the corpus callosum. The gyrus subcallosus is often called the peduncle of the corpus callosum, and the fibres of the stria which it contains, emerging from its substance, proceed backwards and outwards along the posterior limit of the anterior perforated spot towards the anterior extremity of the temporal lobe. Elliot Smith has shown that these parts have an important morphological significance.

The *under surface* of the corpus callosum on either side of the mesial plane is for the most part free, and, lined by ependyma, it forms the roof of the anterior horn and body of the lateral ventricle. In the mesial plane, however, it is attached to subjacent parts, viz. to the septum lucidum in front and to the body of the fornix behind.

The transverse fibres of the corpus callosum, as they enter the white medullary centre of the cerebral hemisphere, radiate from each other so as to reach every part of the cerebral cortex. This radiation is termed the **radiatio corporis callosi** and the fibres which compose it intersect the fibres which form the corona radiata, or, in other words, the fibres which extend between the internal capsule and the cerebral cortex (Figs. 440, p. 547; and 468, p. 582). The more anterior of the fibres which compose the genu of the corpus callosum sweep forwards in a series of curves into the prefrontal region of the hemisphere. A large part of the splenium, forming a solid bundle termed the **forceps major**, bends suddenly and abruptly backwards into the occipital lobe (Fig. 463, p. 577). Fibres from the body and upper part of the splenium, curving round the lateral ventricle, form a very definite stratum, called the **tapetum**. This is a thin layer in the medullary centre of the hemisphere, which constitutes the immediate roof and outer wall of the posterior horn and the outer wall of the hinder part of the descending horn of the lateral ventricle. In coronal sections through the occipital and hinder temporal regions the tapetum stands out very distinctly (Figs. 456, p. 569; 462, p. 576; and 465, p. 579).

Fornix.—The fornix is an arched bilateral structure composed, for the most part, of longitudinally-directed fibres. In its intermediate part its two lateral

halves are joined together in the mesial plane, and form what is called the body of the fornix; but in front and behind they are quite separate, and constitute the anterior and posterior pillars of the fornix.

The **body of the fornix** is triangular in form. In front, where it is continuous with the anterior pillars, it is narrow; whilst behind it broadens out, becomes flattened, and is finally prolonged into the posterior pillars. The upper surface of the body of the fornix is in contact with the under surface of the hinder part of the body of the corpus callosum, and posteriorly is adherent to it. In front of this adhesion, and in the mesial plane, it is attached to the septum lucidum. Beyond these attachments, on each side, the upper surface of the body of the fornix forms a part of the floor of the lateral ventricle and is clothed by the lining ependyma. It presents a sharp lateral edge or margin, from under which the choroid plexus projects into the cavity of the lateral ventricle and with which the epithelial layer which covers that plexus is continuous. The lower surface of the body of the fornix rests upon the velum interpositum, which separates it from the roof of the third ventricle and the upper surface of the optic thalamus. It is not at all an uncommon occurrence to find the two lateral portions of the body of the fornix of unequal size (Fig. 461, p. 575).

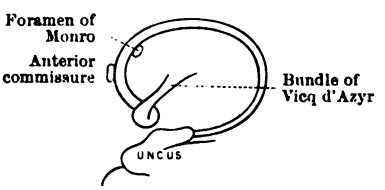


FIG. 458.—DIAGRAMMATIC PROFILE VIEW OF THE FORNIX.

The **anterior pillars of the fornix** (columnæ fornicis) are two rounded strands which emerge from the anterior part of the body of the fornix, and then diverge very slightly from each other as they curve downwards in front of the foramina of Monro. Sinking into the gray matter on the lateral wall of the third ventricle each anterior pillar proceeds downwards to the base of the brain, and in the interpeduncular space protrudes, to take part in the formation of the corpus mammillare. When the corpus mammillare is dissected it appears to be largely formed of a twisted loop of the anterior pillar of the fornix, in which the pillar bends upon itself, and is then continued upwards and backwards into the optic thalamus. This appearance, however, is misleading. The fibres of the anterior pillar end in the gray nucleus of the corpus mammillare, and the strand which passes from this to the thalamus is the **bundle of Vicq d'Azyr** (p. 548).

The **posterior pillars of the fornix** (crura fornicis) are flattened bands which diverge widely from each other. At first they are adherent to the under surface of the corpus callosum, but soon they sweep downwards round the posterior ends of the optic thalami and enter the descending horns of the lateral ventricles. Here each pillar comes into relation with the corresponding hippocampus major, and a portion of its fibres are spread out on the surface of this prominence, thereby giving it a white coating termed the **alveus**, whilst the remainder of the fibres constitute the **fimbria** or **tænia fornicis**—a narrow but very distinct band of white matter, which is attached by its outer margin along the inner border of the hippocampus major and ends in front by joining the uncus (p. 568).

A certain number of transverse fibres enter into the formation of the fornix. The diverging posterior pillars enclose between them a small triangular space on the under surface of the hinder part of the corpus callosum. This area is crossed by transverse fibres, which form a thin lamina called the **psalterium** or **lyra**. Sometimes the psalterium is not completely fused to the under surface of the corpus callosum, and in these cases a narrow space is left between them, which receives the name of **Verga's ventricle.**

The fornix is intimately connected with the olfactory apparatus. Its fibres for the most part arise from the pyramidal cells in the cornu ammonis or hippocampus major and ascend in the fimbria and posterior pillar. In the region of the psalterium numerous fibres cross the mesial plane, enter the opposite posterior pillar, and in it proceed to the opposite cornu ammonis. These fibres constitute a commissure between the two cornua ammonis. The remainder of the fibres proceed forwards in the body of the fornix, and by means of the anterior pillar the majority of the fibres are carried downwards, behind the anterior commissure, to the corpus mammillare. Some, however, curve backwards into the stria medullaris (p. 548); whilst others forming the **olfactory bundle of the cornu ammonis**, pass in front of the anterior commissure an

the septum lucidum, through which they reach the subcallosal gyrus and the locus perus anticus. Finally, this bundle divides into two parts, of which one joins the inner root of olfactory tract, whilst the other goes to the uncus.

The greater number of the longitudinal fibres of the fornix must, therefore, be regarded as ablishing a connexion between the cornu ammonis and the optic thalamus. The inner portion e composite nucleus of the corpus mammillare is an internode interposed in the path of this ecting tract. The bundle of Vicq d'Azyr, formed by the relay of fibres which takes origin his internode, forms the second link in the chain.

The striæ longitudinales in the gyrus supracallosus on the upper surface of the corpus sum are to be regarded, from a morphological point of view, as forming an outlying part of fornix system.

There can be little doubt that the gyrus supracallosus represents a wasted portion of the pocampus formation. In monotremes and marsupials the hippocampus occupies a esponding position, but, with the greater development of the corpus callosum in higher mmals, atrophy and stretching occur and the structure is reduced to a vestigial condition iot Smith). That fornix fibres therefore should be found in connexion with the supracallosal s is not surprising.

Septum Lucidum (septum pellucidum).—The septum lucidum is a thin vertical tition which intervenes between the anterior cornua and foreparts of the bodies the two lateral ventricles. It is triangular in shape, and posteriorly it is longed backwards for a variable distance between the body of the corpus callosum l the fornix, to both of which it is attached by its upper and lower edges. In nt it occupies the gap behind the genu of the corpus callosum, whilst below, in narrow interval between the posterior edge of the rostrum of the corpus callosum l the fornix, it is prolonged downwards towards the base of the brain in the rus subcallosus. The septum lucidum is composed of two thin laminæ in appoion with each other in the mesial plane (Fig. 461, p. 575).

Fifth Ventricle (cavum septi pellucidi).—This name is applied to the mesial ft between the two laminæ of the septum lucidum. It varies greatly in size in ferent brains and contains a little fluid. It is completely isolated and presents communication with the other ventricles of the brain. Indeed, the term "ventricle," applied to it, is quite inappropriate, seeing that at no period in the development the brain has it any connexion with the general ventricular system.

Lateral Ventricle.

The cavity in the interior of the cerebral hemisphere is called the lateral ntricle. It is lined throughout by ependyma continuous with the ependymal ing of the third ventricle. In many places the walls of the cavity are in appoion, whilst in other localities spaces of varying capacity, and containing cerebronal fluid, are left between the bounding walls.

The **lateral ventricle** (ventriculus lateralis) communicates with the third ventricle he brain by means of a small foramen, just large enough to admit a crow-quill, ich is termed the **foramen of Monro**. This aperture is placed in front of the fore l of the optic thalamus and behind the anterior pillar of the fornix.

The highly-irregular shape of the lateral ventricle can be best understood by the dy of a cast of its interior (Figs. 459; and 444, p. 551). It is usual to describe s being composed of a body and three horns, viz. an anterior, a posterior, and a cending horn. The **anterior horn** is that part of the cavity which lies in front of foramen of Monro. The **body** is the portion of the ventricle which extends m the foramen of Monro to the splenium of the corpus callosum. At this point posterior and descending horns diverge from the hinder part of the body. The **terior horn** curves backwards and inwards into the occipital lobe. It is very iable in its length and capacity. The **descending horn** proceeds with a bold sweep nd the hinder end of the optic thalamus, and then tunnels in a forward and ward direction through the temporal lobe towards the temporal pole. The early tal lateral ventricle is very capacious and presents an arched or semilunar form. is composed of parts which correspond to the anterior horn, the body, and the scending horn, and there is little or no demarcation between them. The sterior horn is a later production. It comes into existence with the occipital be and is produced as a diverticulum or elongated pouch, which grows backwards m the upper and hinder part (*i.e.* the convexity) of the primitive cavity.

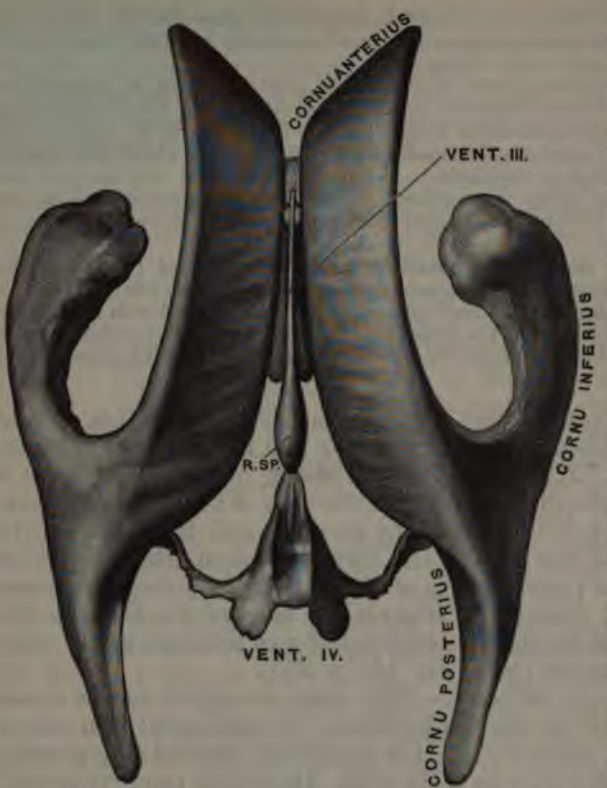


FIG. 459.—DRAWING TAKEN FROM A CAST OF THE VENTRICULAR SYSTEM OF THE BRAIN, as seen from above (after Retzius).

Vent. III. Third ventricle. Vent. IV. Fourth ventricle.
R.SP. Recessus suprapinealis.

Anterior Horn Lateral Ventricle (cor terius). — The anterio forms the foremost part cavity, and extends in ward and outward dire the frontal lobe. Wh in coronal section (Fig presents a triangular the floor sloping upwa outwards to meet the an acute angle. It is l *in front* by the poster face of the genu of the callosum; the *roof* is als by the corpus callosu *inner wall*, which is is formed by the lucidum; whilst the *floor* presents a marke tion or bulging, viz. the rounded, and promin tremity of the pear caudate nucleus.

Body of the Later tricle (pars centrali body of the cavity is *roofed* by the corpus c On the *inner* or *mesia* is bounded by the atta of the fornix to the un face of the corpus callos by the hinder part

septum lucidum. On the *outer side* it is closed, as in the case of the anteri by the meeting of the floor and the roof of the cavity. On the *floor* a of important objects may be recognised. From without inwards these are met in the following order: (1) the caudate nucleus; (2) a groove which extends obliquely from before backwards and outwards between the caudate nucleus and the optic thalamus, and in which are placed the vein of the corpus striatum and a white band called the tænia semicircularis; (3) a portion of the upper surface of

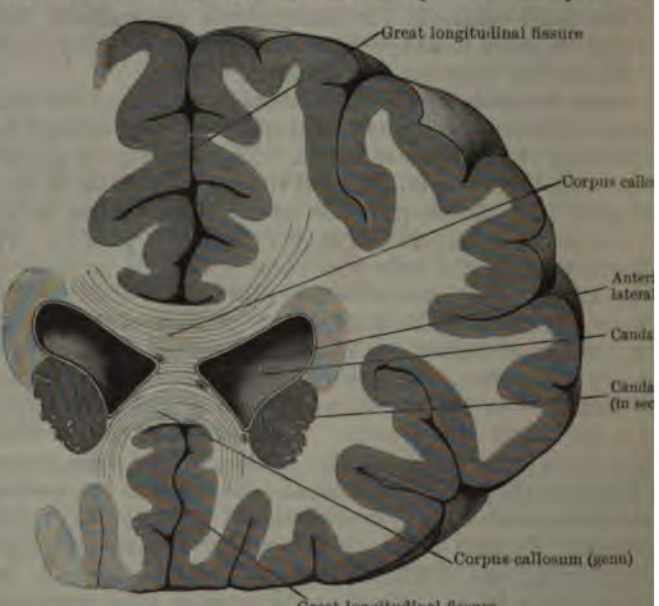


FIG. 460.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE FRONTAL LOBES AND ANTERIOR HORNS OF THE LATERAL VENTRICLES.

optic thalamus; (4) the choroid plexus; (5) the thin, sharp lateral edge of fornix.

The **caudate nucleus** narrows rapidly as it proceeds backwards on the outer part e floor of the body of the lateral ventricle. The **vein of the corpus striatum** is red over by ependyma. It joins the vein of Galen close to the foramen of ro. The connexions of the **tænia semicircularis** will be dealt with later. The ion of the upper surface of the **optic thalamus** which appears in the floor of the

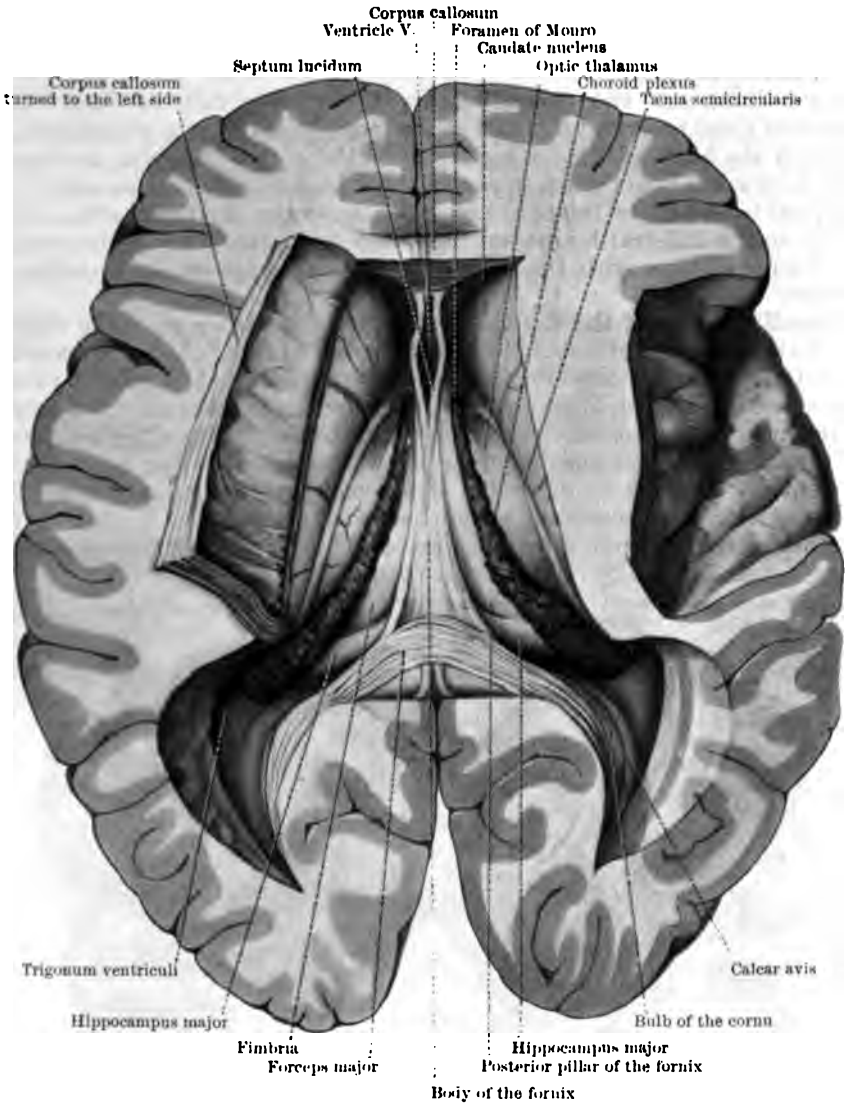


FIG. 161.—DISSECTION, to show the fornix and lateral ventricles; the body of the corpus callosum has been turned over to the left.

ventricle is in great part hidden by the choroid plexus, which lies upon it. The **roid plexus** is a rich vascular fringe which appears from under cover of the sharp eral edge of the fornix. In front it is continuous, behind the foramen of Monro, h the corresponding choroid plexus of the opposite side, whilst behind, it is ried into the descending horn of the ventricle. Although the choroid plexus s all the appearance of lying free within the ventricle, it must be borne in mind t it is invested by an epithelial layer which represents a portion of the hemi- here wall and excludes it from the cavity. This thin layer is continuous on the

one hand with the sharp edge of the fornix, and on the other it is attached to upper surface of the optic thalamus.

Posterior Horn of the Lateral Ventricle (cornu posterius).—The poste horn is an elongated diverticulum carried backwards into the occipital lobe from hinder end of the body of the ventricle. It tapers to a point and describes a ge curve, the convexity of which is directed outwards. The *roof* and *outer wall* of portion of the ventricular cavity are formed by the tapetum of the corpus callos In coronal sections through the occipital lobe this is seen as a thin but disti layer of white fibres, which lies immediately outside the ependyma and to the in side of a much larger strand of fibres in the medullary substance of the occip lobe, viz. the optic radiation.

On the *inner wall* two elongated curved elevations may be observed. T uppermost of these is termed the **bulb of the cornu** (bulbus cornu posterioris), an produced by the fibres of the forceps major of the corpus callosum as they cu abruptly backwards from the lower part of the splenium of the corpus callosum i the occipital lobe. Below this is the elevation known as the **calcar avis**. It va greatly in size in different brains, and is caused by an infolding of the ventric wall in correspondence with the anterior calcarine fissure on the exterior of hemisphere.

Descending Horn of the Lateral Ventricle (cornu inferius).—The descen horn is the continuation of the cavity into the temporal lobe. At first directed b wards and outwards the descending horn suddenly sinks downwards behind the thalamus into the temporal lobe, in the centre of which it takes a curved cours wards and inwards to a point about an inch behind the extremity of the temporal

In the angle between the diverging posterior and descending horns the ca of the ventricle presents an expansion of a somewhat triangular shape. To the name of **trigonum ventriculi** is sometimes given.

The *roof* of the descending horn is formed for the most part by the tapetu

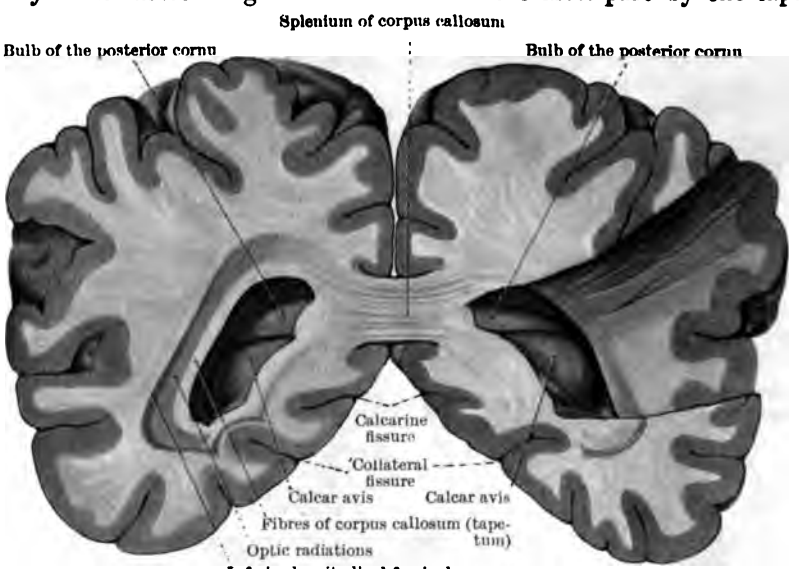


FIG. 462.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE POSTERIOR HORNS OF THE LATERAL VENTRICLES.

the corpus callosum. At the extremity of the horn the roof presents a bul into the cavity. This is the **amygdaloid tubercle**, and it is produced by a su jacent collection of gray matter termed the amygdaloid nucleus. The **tænia s circularis** and the attenuated **tail of the caudate nucleus** are both prolonged int descending horn and are carried forwards, in its roof, to the amygdaloid nucle

On *the floor* of the descending horn the following structures are seen: hippocampus major, or the cornu ammonis; (2) the choroid plexus; (3) the fim and (4) the eminentia collateralis.

The **hippocampus major** (hippocampus) is for the most part covered by

plexus. It is a prominent elevation on the floor of the descending horn of ıral ventricle and is strongly curved, in conformity with the course taken ıorn in which it lies. It therefore presents an internal concave margin and ırnal convex border. Narrow behind, it enlarges as it is traced forwards, ends below the amygdaloid tubercle in a thickened extremity, which s some faint grooves or notches on its surface. In consequence of this, the end of the hippocampus major receives the name of the **pes hippocampi.** ›pocampus major is the internal elevation which corresponds to the dentate on the exterior of the hemisphere (Fig. 464).

incision be made along the outer convex edge of the hippocampus major, and the surface be raised, the central core will be seen to present the curious appearance of two ed layers dove-tailed into each other (M'Carthy).

fimbria (fimbria hippocampi) is the narrow band of white matter which is d by its outer margin along the inner concave border of the hippocampus The white matter composing it is continuous with the thin white layer veus) which is spread over the surface of the hippocampus major, and it s two free surfaces and a sharp free inner border. The fimbria has already tamined in connexion with the hippocampal fissure and the gyrus dentatus

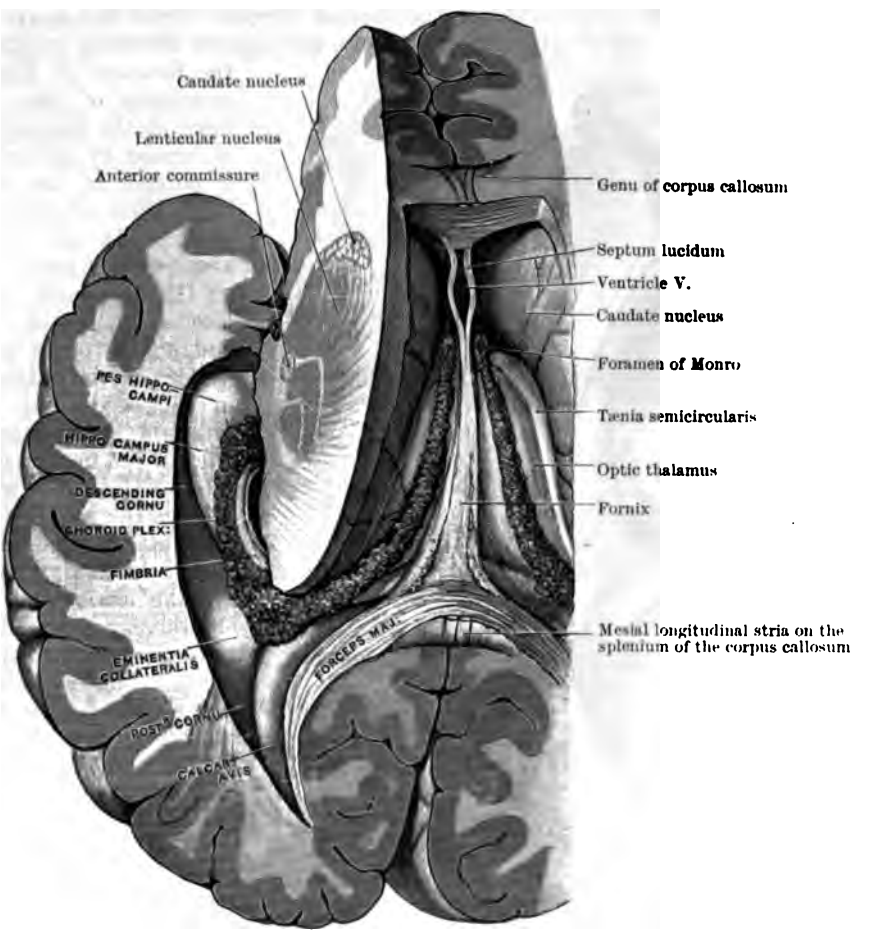


FIG. 463. —DISSECTION, to show the fornix and the posterior and descending cornua of the lateral ventricle of the left side.

3), and the relations which it presents to the fornix and the uncus have been d out.

hen the pia mater in the region of the hippocampal fissure is removed from rface of the brain, the choroid plexus in the interior of the descending horn

of the lateral ventricle is usually withdrawn with it, and a fissure appears be the fimbria and the roof of the ventricular horn. This is the choroid fissu appears at a very early date in the development of the cerebral hemispher takes an arcuate course upwards and forwards round the hinder end of the thalamus. In the region of the body of the lateral ventricle it extends forwards as the foramen of Monro, and is formed by the involution of an epi part of the wall of the ventricle over the choroid plexus (p. 575). In the re the descending horn, when the choroid plexus with the involuted epithelial which covers it is withdrawn, the choroid fissure is converted into an artifici which leads directly into this part of the ventricular cavity.

The **choroid plexus** is a convoluted system of blood-vessels in connexion fold of pia mater, which is prolonged into the descending horn of the l ventricle. It lies on the surface of the hippocampus major and is conti behind the posterior part of the optic thalamus, with the choroid plexus in the of the lateral ventricle. But it must not be supposed that the choroid plex free in the ventricular cavity. It is clothed in the most intimate manner epithelial layer, which represents the inner or mesial wall of the descending involuted into the cavity over the choroid plexus. The ventricle, therefore opens on the surface through the choroid fissure when this thin epithelial l torn away by the withdrawal of the choroid plexus. From the above, it w understood that the arcuate choroid fissure, throughout its whole length (viz the foramen of Monro extremity of the desce horn of the lateral vent is formed by the involut a portion of the wall hemisphere which remai thelial. In the body ventricle this layer is att on the one hand, to the lateral margin of the and on the other to the surface of the optic tha in the descending horn attached, in like manner, edge of the fimbria or po pillar of the fornix, whils it joins the roof of this of the ventricle alon line of the tænia semicir

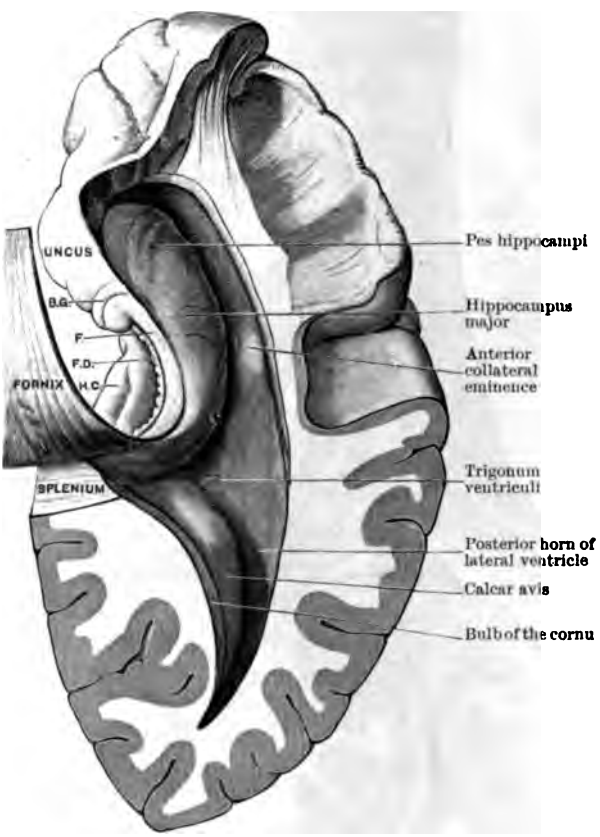


FIG. 464.—DISSECTION from above, to show the posterior and descending cornua of the lateral ventricle.

B.G. Giacomini's band. F.D. Gyrus dentatus.
F. Fimbria. H.C. Hippocampal convolution.

The **eminentia coll** shows very great differe its degree of developme it may present two d forms, which may be guished from each other eminentia collateralis po and the eminentia coll anterior.

The *posterior co eminence* is a smooth tion in the floor of t gonum ventriculi, in t terval which is left b the calcar avis and the campus major as they from each other. In the fœtal brain this is always a very strongly-m elevation, which corresponds with the mid-collateral fissure, but in the co growth it is apt to lose much of its prominence.

ıe *anterior collateral eminence* is only occasionally present. It appears as an ıted elevation of varying length and prominence, on the floor of the descend- ɔrn of the lateral ventricle, on the outer side of the hippocampus major. It ned by the anterior portion of the fœtal collateral sulcus, when this develops omplete fissure.

Basal Ganglia of the Cerebral Hemisphere.

nder this heading are included certain masses of gray matter more or less letely embedded in the white medullary substance of the hemisphere, and ı are developed in its wall. They compose the caudate and lenticular nuclei, ı together form the corpus striatum, the claustrum, and the amygdaloid us.

ıe **caudate eus** bulges the lateral icle. It is a rm, highly- l mass of ıatter, which ıts a thick, n head, or or extremity, long, attenu- il. The head ts into the ɔr horn of the ventricle, its narrower s prolonged ards and ards in the ɔf the body e ventricle, it is separ- om the optic ıus by the semicircul- Finally, its ırves down- with a bold and enters lescending ɔf the lateral cle. In the ɔf this horn prolonged ds to the daloid nu- the lower of which it The caudate ıs thus pre-

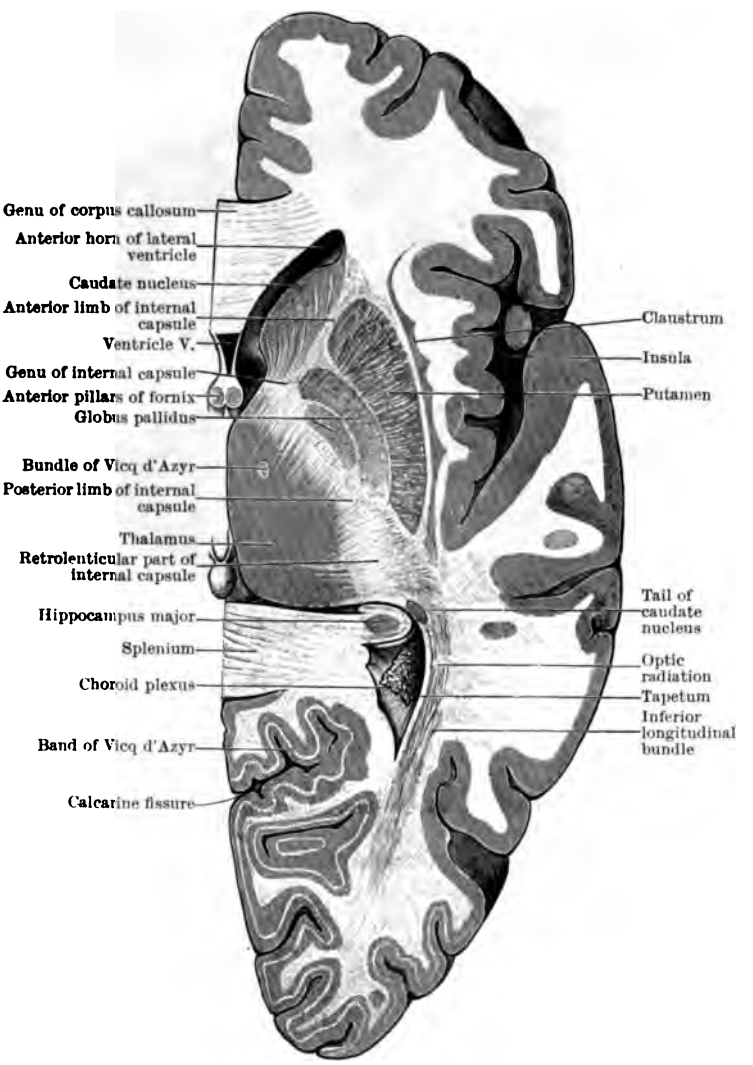


Fig. 465.—Horizontal Section through the Right Cerebral Hemisphere at the Level of the Widest Part of the Lenticular Nucleus.

a free ventricular surface, covered with ependyma, and a deep surface lded in the white substance of the cerebral hemisphere, and for the most part ı to the internal capsule.

wing to its arched form it follows that, in horizontal sections through the al hemisphere below a particular level, it is cut at two points, and both the ınd the tail appear on the field of the section (Fig. 465). In coronal sections ı the amygdaloid nucleus, it is also divided at two places (Fig. 440, p. 547).

The anterior extremity of the head of the caudate nucleus coincides very n with that of the anterior horn of the lateral ventricle. In the region of the l perforatus anticus, the head of the caudate nucleus gains the surface and its matter becomes continuous with that of the cerebral cortex.

The **lenticular nucleus** lies on the outer side of the caudate nucleus and thalamus, and is for the most part embedded within the white medullary subst of the cerebral hemisphere. It does not extend either so far forwards or s backwards as the caudate nucleus. Indeed, it presents a very close correspond in point of extent with the insula or island of Reil on the surface. When see horizontal section, it presents a shape similar to that of a biconvex lens. inner surface bulges more than the outer surface, and its point of highest conv is placed opposite the tænia semicircularis or the interval between the cau nucleus and the optic thalamus. In coronal section the appearance presente the lenticular nucleus differs very much in different planes of section. Fig. represents a tion through anterior por Here it is s lunar or cresc in outline a directly con ous below the head of caudate nuc above, also, intimately nected with caudate nu by bands of matter, w pass betwee two nuclei break up the matter of the part of the i vening int capsule. I due to the ri or barred ap ance, which i sented by su

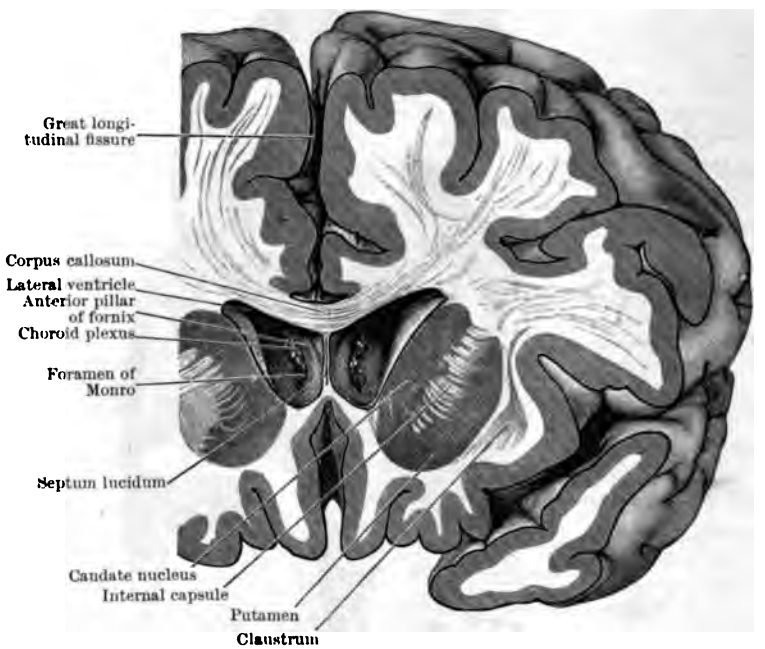


FIG. 466.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE CEREBRAL HEMISPHERES so as to cut through the anterior part (putamen) of the lenticular nucleus in front of the globus pallidus.

section as this, that the term **corpus striatum** is applied to the two nuclei. the region of the locus perforatus anticus both nuclei reach the surface and be continuous with the cortex.

When a section is made in a plane further back (*e.g.* immediately posteri the anterior commissure, as in Fig. 467) the divided lenticular nucleus assume altogether different shape, and is seen to be completely cut off from the cau nucleus by the internal capsule. It is now triangular or wedge-shaped. Its is turned towards the island of Reil and is in direct relation to a thin lamin white matter, termed the external capsule. Its *internal surface* is oblique a applied to the internal capsule, whilst its *inferior surface* is horizontal a directed downwards towards the base of the brain. But, further, two white lam the **external** and **internal medullary laminæ**, are now evident, which traver substance in a vertical direction and divide it into three zones. The outer, and larger zone is termed the **putamen**; the two inner portions together const the **globus pallidus**.

The **putamen** forms much the largest part of the lenticular nucleus. darker in colour than the globus pallidus, and in this respect resembles the ca nucleus. It is traversed by fine radiating bundles of fibres, which enter it fro

ternal medullary lamina. Both in point of structure and in mode of development **is closely associated with the caudate nucleus, and it is the only part of the len-ticular nucleus which is connected by intervening bands of gray matter with the caudate nucleus.** The antero-posterior length, as well as the vertical depth of the **putamen**, is much greater than in the case of the globus pallidus; consequently, in

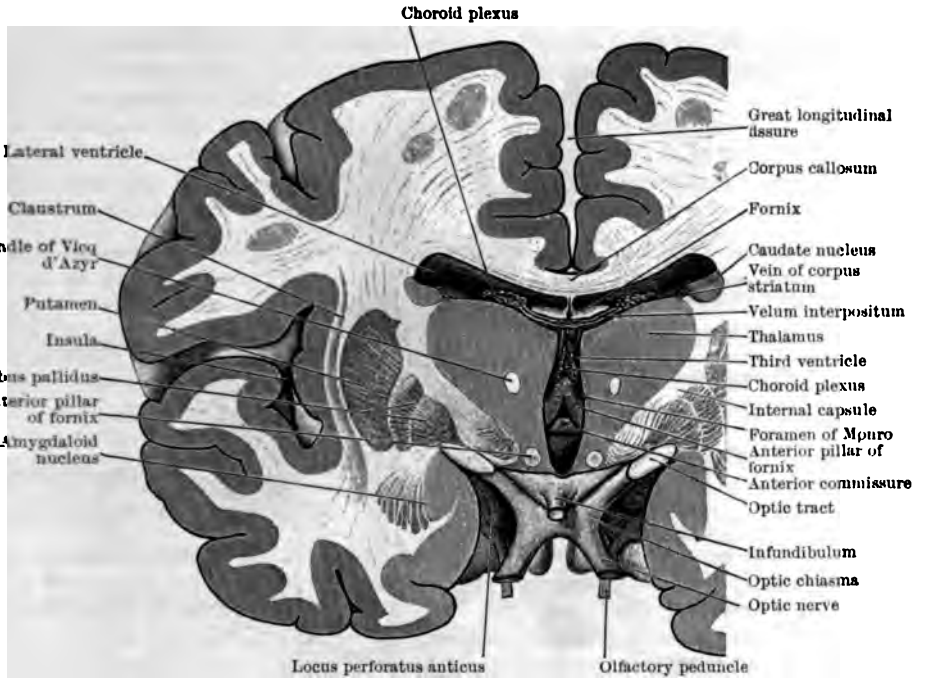


FIG. 467.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE CEREBRUM so as to cut through the three divisions of the lenticular nucleus; posterior surface of the section depicted.

both coronal and horizontal sections through the cerebrum it is encountered before the plane of the globus pallidus is reached.

The external capsule is loosely connected with the outer surface of the putamen, and it can be readily stripped off. This accounts for the tendency, exhibited in hæmorrhages in this locality, for the effused blood to spread out in the interval between these structures.

The **globus pallidus** is composed of the two smaller and inner zones of the lenticular nucleus. They present a faint yellowish tint, and are paler and more abundantly traversed by fibres than the putamen. The zone next the putamen (*i.e.* the intermediate zone) is much larger than the innermost subdivision. It extends forwards to a point a little in front of the plane of the anterior commissure. When the lenticular nucleus is cut in a coronal direction, and in its widest part, the innermost zone shows an indication of a separation into two parts, so that here the globus pallidus appears to consist of three subdivisions. The morphology of the globus pallidus is by no means clear.

Connexions of the Corpus Striatum.—(1) Numerous fibres pass from the optic thalamus to the corpus striatum, and in the reverse direction from the corpus striatum into the thalamus through the anterior limb of the internal capsule. These may be termed the **thalamo-striate** and the **strio-thalamic fibres.** (2) Edinger describes a connexion between the caudate nucleus and the substantia nigra. The connecting fibres pass through the subthalamic region and constitute a tract in the mesencephalon, in close apposition with the substantia nigra, called the **stratum intermedium.** (3) The **ansa lenticularis** has previously been mentioned. It is composed of fibres which come from the inferior part of the fore portion of the thalamus and curve outwards under the lenticular nucleus. They stream upwards into this and through its medullary laminæ. Many of them apparently proceed onwards to the cerebral cortex. (4) Fibres from the posterior

limb of the internal capsule (thalamic fibres chiefly) enter the lenticular nucleus; stream through it, and its medullary laminæ, on their way to the cerebral cortex.

Claustrum.—This is a thin plate of gray substance embedded in the w matter, which intervenes between the lenticular nucleus and the gray cortex of insula or island of Reil. Followed in an upward direction, it becomes gradu thinner and ultimately disappears. As it is traced downwards, however

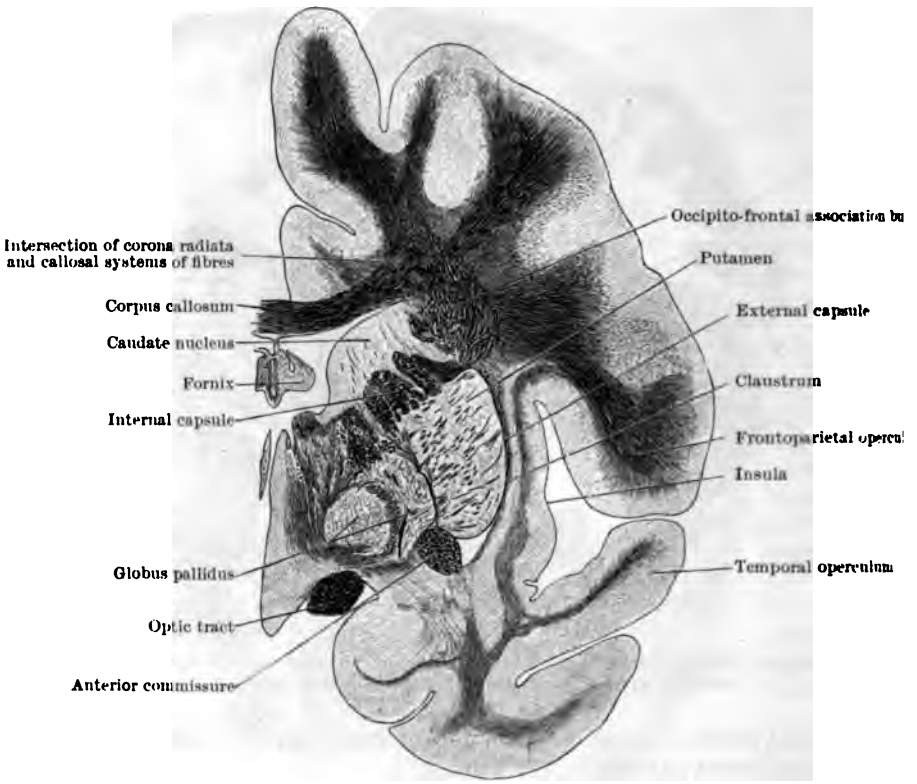


FIG. 468.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE LEFT SIDE OF THE CEREBRUM OF AN ORANG (Weigert-Pal specimen).

The section passes through the middle of the lenticular nucleus.

thickens considerably, and at the base of the brain it comes to the surface at anterior perforated spot and becomes continuous with the gray matter of the co Its extent corresponds very closely with the area occupied by the insula, and surface towards this portion of the cerebral cortex shows ridges and depres corresponding to the insular gyri and sulci.

Amygdaloid Nucleus.—In the forepart of the temporal lobe, in front of, to some extent above the extremity of the descending horn of the lateral ventr there is a round mass of gray matter, called the amygdaloid nucleus. The ta the caudate nucleus joins its lower part, whilst above it is carried up into the men. In front it is continuous with the gray cortex of the cerebrum.

Tænia Semicircularis.—This is a band of fibres which, for the most part, in the amygdaloid nucleus. From this it runs backwards in the roof of th scending horn of the lateral ventricle, and then arches upwards and forwards, to gain the floor of the body of the lateral ventricle. In both situations it close to the inner side of the nucleus caudatus, and finally, at the foramen Monro, it bends downwards towards the anterior commissure. Some of its pass in front and others behind the commissure, and ultimately they end in locus perforatus anticus (Kölliker).

Internal Capsule.—This term is applied to the broad band of white m which intervenes between the lenticular nucleus, on the outside, and the

tænia semicircularis, and caudate nucleus on the inner side. It presents
:rent appearances, according to the plane in which the brain is cut. In
of the mesencephalon, a coronal section through the brain shows that in
the internal capsule is directly continuous with the crusta of the crus
ig. 440, p. 547). In horizontal section the internal capsule is observed to
pon itself opposite the tænia semicircularis, or the interval between the
ıcleus and the thalamus. This bend, which points inwards, is called the
out one-third of the internal capsule lies in front of the genu, and is
e anterior limb; the remaining two-thirds, which lie behind the genu,
the posterior limb.

nterior limb of the internal capsule intervenes between the lenticular
ıd the caudate nucleus. In its lower and forepart it is much broken up
ınecting bands of gray matter which pass between the forepart of the
ınd the lenticular nucleus.

ıterior limb of the internal capsule is largely composed of corticipetal fibres
to the thalamic radiation. It likewise contains corticifugal fibres. The
fibres are of two kinds, viz. thalamo-frontal and thalamo-striate. The
ich arise in the optic thalamus, go through the anterior limb of the internal
reach the cortex of the frontal lobe. The thalamo-striate fibres likewise arise
ımus and enter the anterior limb, to reach the caudate and lenticular nuclei.
:ticifugal fibres are represented by the fronto-thalamic, the strio-thalamic, and
pontine tracts.

ınto-pontine tract arises in the cortex of the prefrontal region, traverses the
nb of the internal capsule, forms the inner fifth of the crusta of the crus cerebri,
ends in the nucleus pontis.

ısterior limb of the internal capsule is placed between the optic thalamus
:nticular nucleus, and it extends backwards for a short distance beyond
:r end of the putamen on the outer side of the posterior part of the
and of the tail of the caudate nucleus. The posterior limb, therefore, is
as consisting of a lenticular and a retrolenticular part.

ıticular part of the posterior limb is composed of both corticipetal and cortici-
s. The *corticipetal fibres* enter the internal capsule from the outer aspect of
halamus, and are composed of fibres which arise within the thalamus, and proceed
› the cerebral cortex.

:ticifugal fibres consist of the pyramidal tract and the cortico-thalamic fibres.
eat **motor** or **pyramidal tract**, descending from the Rolandic area of the cortex,
ıe anterior half of the lenticular part of the internal capsule. The fibres, which
nucleus of the facial nerve, lie close to the genu, and behind these are the
h go to the hypoglossal nucleus; still further back are pyramidal fibres which
ıpinal cord and end around the motor cells of the anterior horn of gray matter.
nidal tract has been observed occupying the middle part of the crusta of the
:i, into which it passes directly from the internal capsule.

:trolenticular part of the posterior limb contains: (1) the fibres of the optic
ıs they pass to establish their connexions with the thalamus, superior quadri-
ıdy, and corpus geniculatum externum; (2) the fibres of the auditory radiation,
:hich connect the auditory cortical field in the temporal lobe with the corpus
m internum (Figs. 418, p. 520, and Fig. 439, p. 546); (3) the temporo-pontine
h is composed of fibres which take origin in the two upper convolutions of the
obe and pass through this section of the internal capsule to reach the outer
: crusta of the crus cerebri. Through this they reach the ventral part of the
:e gray matter of which they end.

the fibres of the internal capsule are traced upwards they are found to
t widely from each other in a radiating or fan-shaped manner, so as to
various convolutions of the cerebral hemisphere. This arrangement is
ıe **corona radiata**. The callosal system of fibres, as they proceed into the
:e, also radiate, and they intersect the fibres of the corona radiata (Fig.
2).

nal Capsule.—The thin lamina of white matter between the outer aspect
amen and the claustrum is called the external capsule. This joins with

the internal capsule in front of and behind the putamen, and in this manner the lenticular nucleus is encapsulated by white matter.

Morphological Subdivision of the Cerebral Hemisphere.—In many respects the descriptive anatomy of the human cerebral hemisphere is not in accord with the facts which have been acquired regarding its morphological evolution; and of recent years this discrepancy has been more marked through the important researches of Elliot Smith.

From the morphological point of view the cerebral hemisphere may be regarded as being composed of three parts, viz. the rhinencephalon, the corpus striatum, and the neo-pallium.

The **rhinencephalon** is the most archaic part of the hemisphere, and in the brains of the lower vertebrates (fishes, amphibians, reptiles) it constitutes its chief bulk. In the human brain it is represented by the olfactory bulb, olfactory tract and its roots, the anterior perforated space, the uncus, the gyrus subcallosus, the septum lucidum, the hippocampus, fornix, gyrus dentatus, and the gyrus supracallosus.

The uncus, with the aborted lateral stria of the olfactory peduncle, is all that remains in the human brain of the relatively huge pyriform lobe of many of the lower mammals. The hippocampal convolution which lies to the outer side of the dentate fissure, although it runs continuously into the uncus, is not a part of the rhinencephalon. It belongs to the neo-pallium. The feeble furrow, termed the incisura temporalis which separates the uncus from the temporal pole, is one of the most primitive of the cerebral fissures. It represents the rhinal or ecto-rhinal fissure—the bounding fissure of the rhinencephalon.

The **neo-pallium** is represented by the rest of the hemisphere, exclusive of the corpus striatum. It therefore comprises almost the whole of the convoluted cortex on the surface together with its associated white matter. The great development of the neo-pallium in man is one of the most distinctive characters of the human brain.

In their phylogenetic evolution the rhinencephalon and the neo-pallium appear to develop more or less independently of each other. In certain cases the former atrophies, whilst the neo-pallium attains a high degree of development (*e.g.* man, monkey, whale, etc.), in others the reverse development occurs (*e.g.* hedgehog and many other mammals), in which the rhinencephalon forms a large part of the hemisphere and the neo-pallium is relatively small.

Intimate Structure of the Cerebral Hemisphere.

The cerebral hemisphere is composed of an external coating of gray matter, termed the **cortex**, spread over an internal mass of white matter, which is called the **medullary centre**. The cortex is of peculiar interest, seeing that there is good reason for believing that in it the higher functions of the brain, or those which may be classed under the general designation of the intellectual functions, take place. It is within the same layer of gray matter that the influence of those external impressions, which gain access to the cerebro-spinal axis through the senses, finally take shape as consciousness; and in it also are placed the centres which carry on the psycho-motor functions. The white medullary centre is composed of nerve-fibres which constitute the paths along which the influence of impressions is carried to and from the cortex, and from one part of the cortex to another.

The Cerebral Cortex.

The gray cortex is spread over the entire surface of the cerebral hemisphere, but it does not form a layer of equal thickness in all localities. At the summit of a convolution it is always thicker than at the bottom of a furrow. The maximum thickness of cortex (about 6 mm.) is attained in the upper parts of the two central convolutions, whilst the minimum (about 2·5 mm.) may be observed in the region of the occipital pole. The amount of gray cortex differs considerably in different individuals, and appreciably diminishes in old age. It is also stated, but upon imperfect evidence, that it is relatively more abundant in the male than in the female.

In structure, likewise, marked differences may be noted in the gray cortex of different regions, and excellent work has been recently done in the direction of connecting these structural peculiarities with the functional characteristics of particular areas and applying them to the determination of morphological problems connected with the cerebral surface (Campbell and Bolton). In certain localities this structural difference is quite apparent to the naked eye when sections are made through the cortex. There are, however, no sharp transitions in structure. One form of cortex passes, as a rule gradually and almost insensibly, into the variety of cortex which is distinctive of an adjoining region, and throughout the whole

a general ground type may be recognised. It is only to those general tural features which more or less characterise the entire cortical layer that we be able to refer.

Then sections are made through the fresh brain, and the cut surface is closely cted, it will usually be apparent that the cortex is indistinctly stratified. On utside there is a thin, whitish layer, and beneath this the gray matter presents strata of very nearly equal thickness, viz. a middle, gray-coloured stratum and ıner, yellowish-red stratum. Between the two latter layers a narrow white is, in many places, visible. This is termed the **outer band of Baillarger**. When ayers indicated above are present, four strata superimposed on each other are ;nised; but in certain regions, as, for instance, in the anterior central convolu- a second white streak traverses the deep or inner gray layer and divides it into This is termed the **inner white band of Baillarger**, and, when it is present, the cortex becomes divided obscurely into six alternating white and gray layers.

'he outer band of Baillarger is strongly marked in the region of the calcarine re and gives a characteristic appearance to this portion of the cortex. In this ity it receives the name of the **band of Vicq d'Azyr** or the **stria of Gennari** 465, p. 579).

ıccording to Henschen the visual centre is strictly limited to the region in h the stria of Gennari is present. Elliot Smith applies the name of "striated " to this cortical district, and considers that it affords a means of identifying ›logous sulci in the brains of man and the apes.

o obtain a full understanding of the minute structure of the cerebral cortex many ent methods must be employed, and it is only by combining the several separate res which are thus afforded that the end in view is, in some measure, reached.

he stratification indicated above has little bearing upon the more essential points of ntimate structure of the cortex. The three white layers are brought about by ;gations of fibres running in a tangential direction, or, in other words, in a direction lel to the surface of the convolution.

Nerve-cells.—According to the arrangement and the characters presented by the ›-cells which are met with at different depths, it is now usual to recognise four layers e cortex. These are: (1) the stratum zonale; (2) the layer of small pyramidal cells; he layer of large pyramidal cells; and (4) the layer of polymorphic cells.

ıs the pyramidal cells are specially characteristic of the cerebral cortex, we shall, in irst instance, describe the two layers which contain them. The difference between ; two layers largely depends upon the difference in the size of the constituent cells. :n together, the second and third layers constitute the chief part of the cortex; they ;e insensibly into each other, and, in the parietal and frontal lobes, the layer of large ımidal cells is the thickest of all the layers. In both of these strata the pyramidal present the same form, and apparently also similar connexions.

A **pyramidal cell** has a triangular outline. Its apex is directed towards the surface ıe convolution and is drawn out into a long, tapering, apical, dendritic process; its is turned towards the medullary centre of the gyrus, and from this (usually from the re) a slender axon proceeds. Numerous lateral dendrites are given off from both sides ıe cell-body, and particularly from the two basal corners. The apical dendrite varies ngth, according to the depth at which the cell is placed in the cortex. In every case asses straight towards the surface of the convolution. Every here and there fine al branches come off from it, and ultimately it enters the stratum zonale, where, ; to the surface, it ends by breaking up into a large number of fine terminal filaments, :h spread out horizontally in every direction and interlace closely with the corre- ıding filaments of other pyramidal cells and with the other elements of this layer.

The axon of the cell descends, gives off collaterals, assumes a medullary sheath, and rs the central white core of the gyrus as a nerve fibre.

The **stratum zonale** is chiefly composed of fibres which run in a tangential direction, or, ther words, parallel to the surface. These form an interlacement of considerable density extreme complexity. The elements which for the most part enter into the formation his feltwork are: (1) the terminal filaments of the apical dendrites of the pyramidal s; (2) the terminal filaments of certain corticipetal fibres, which enter the cortex from white centre of the gyrus; (3) the axons of certain small cells peculiar to this stratum; the axons of the cells of Martinotti. Spread over the surface of this tangential inter- ›ment of fibres, which constitutes the most important part of the stratum zonale, there

is a thin layer of neuroglia which intervenes between it and the pia mater, whic the convolution. The stratum zonale is not devoid of nerve-cells, although t small and somewhat indefinite in their connexions. The most characteristic f small fusiform cell described by Cajal, which sends out from either end a lon and which lies in tl part of the lay long filamentous of this cell thread t between the other a tangential direc give off minute which pass tow surface.

The deepest la cortex contains t morphic cells. Tl are not large, a present many d forms. Numerous proceed from the this group, but these reach the zonale, and in thi the polymorphic c a marked contra pyramidal cells. T of the polymorp however, like tho pyramidal cells, c white centre of t in the shape of ne

In addition to characteristic of th layers, there are t may be found am pyramidal or amo polymorphic cells are: (1) the cells (2) the cells of Ma

A cell of Golg peculiarity—that close to its origi to divide, and v loses its individ breaking up into maze of branches, which pass far f neighbourhood of body and none enter the stratum

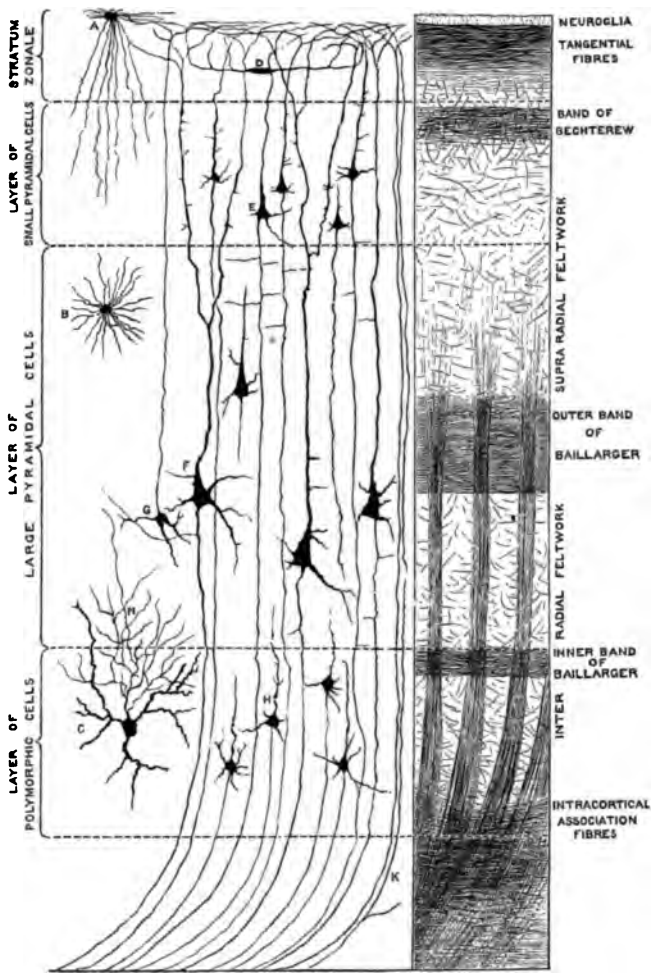


FIG. 469.—DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE MINUTE STRUCTURE OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX.

A. } Neuroglia cells.
B. }
C. Cell with short axon (N) which breaks up in a free arborisation.
D. Spindle-shaped cell in stratum zonale.
E. Small pyramidal cell.
F. Large pyramidal cell.
G. Cell of Martinotti.
H. Polymorphic cell.
K. Corticipetal fibres.

The **cell of Martinotti** is small and is chiefly found in the deeper part of th Its leading peculiarity is, that its slender axon runs in a contrary direction to the the pyramidal cells and of the polymorphic cells. In other words, it proceeds to surface, and, entering into the stratum zonale, divides into terminal filaments, whi out in the tangential interlacement characteristic of this layer.

Nerve-Fibres.—The arrangement of the nerve-fibres can best be studied i sections through the gray cortex, which have been specially treated with thi view. In such preparations bundles of nerve-fibres are seen to radiate into cortex from the surface of the white centre of the gyrus. As these proceed thr polymorphic layer into the layer of large pyramidal cells, they gradually be distinct, and, finally, they disperse and are lost to view before they reach the small pyramidal cells. In the intervals between the radiating bundles the pol and large pyramidal cells are arranged in columns, and in the same intervals

intercrossing fibres is evident. After the radiating fibre-bundles have dis- ıe same feltwork of fibres is visible in the gray matter, and consequently it is to distinguish, with Edinger, an **inter-radial feltwork** and a **supra-radial felt- res in the cortex.** The fibres which enter into the composition of the different lles vary in number from ten to twenty, and they gradually diminish in number ceed onwards. This diminution is due to their joining the various cells that both polymorphic and pyramidal) as their axons. The fibres in a given bundle ıuch in size, and it may be noticed that the largest fibres disappear in the the large pyramidal cells, which shows clearly that it is with these that they ted. But, in addition to cell-axons, the radial bundles contain fibres of an different type, viz. corticipetal fibres, which pass through all the layers of the end in fine terminal filaments in the tangential interlacement of the stratum

ter-radial and supra-radial feltwork is largely formed of the collaterals which the axons. By a condensation of this feltwork the two bands of Baillarger are 'he outer band, which is the broader and better marked, occurs in the deeper layer of the large pyramidal cells. The inner band, when present, is formed rficial part of the layer of polymorphic cells.

r condensation of the fibre-feltwork in the superficial part of the supra-radial be noted in certain localities. This is termed the **band of Bechterew.**

)een noted that up to a certain point the tangential fibres increase in quantity ınces, and there is reason to believe that upon the richness with which the . is supplied with fibres—more especially of the tangential variety—depends to t the intellectual capacity of an individual.

the general mass of the cortex for the most part conforms more or less closely und-type described above, showing merely deviations characteristic of the gions, there is one part of the cortex, viz. the cornu ammonis and the fascia which the structural arrangement of the elements is very markedly different. tent this is due to the complicated manner in which, in this region, the cortex)on itself.

Olfactory Tract and Bulb.

ıctory tract and bulb arise as a hollow outgrowth from the primitive cerebral ı many animals with a well-developed olfactory apparatus, the tract and bulb low; but in man the central cavity becomes although traces of the original hollow persist e of ependymal remains, visible in the centre act and bulb. Outside these ependymal a coating of white matter, upon which is ray matter. The gray matter, however, is ans uniformly distributed over the surface. t, except along the dorsal edge, it is so thinly t it is hardly appreciable. In the bulb, on ıand, there is very little gray matter on the ıt a considerable quantity on the ventral ıd it is into this that the delicate nerves which ranium through the cribriform plate of the ne sink. A brief description of the structure abulbar mass of gray matter, as well as of ions established by its elements, now becomes

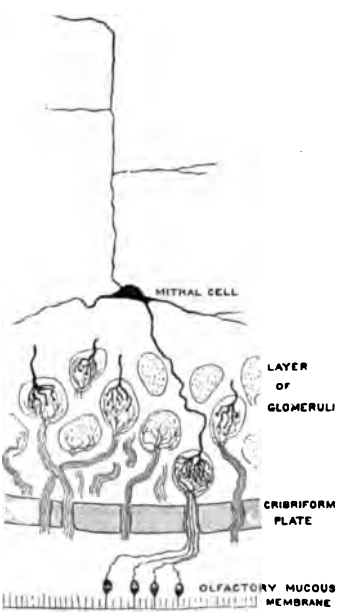


Fig. 470.—Diagram of the Minute Structure of the Olfactory Bulb.

res of the delicate olfactory nerves are to d as the axons of the olfactory cells of the ıucous membrane. They enter the ventral he olfactory bulb, and there each breaks up escent fashion into a tuft of terminal filaments. ndrite from a mitral cell of the bulb passes rds this terminal tuft, and, coming into con- it, breaks up and terminates in a similar n this way a large number of globular bodies, the arborescent terminations of a mitral ıd of certain olfactory nerve-fibres, are formed. These are the **olfactory** of the bulb. The mitral cells lie deeper in the olfactory bulb. Each gives

off several dendrites and one axon. Only one dendrite enters into the formation of a glomerulus, but several nerve-fibres may be connected with such a body. It thus happens that, through its dendrite, a mitral cell may stand in connexion with several olfactory nerve-fibres. The axon of the mitral cell passes upwards to the white matter of the bulb, enters this, and is conducted through the tract towards the cerebral cortex.

White Medullary Centre of the Cerebral Hemisphere.

The white matter of the hemisphere which lies subjacent to the gray cortex is composed of medullated nerve-fibres, arranged in a very intricate manner. According to the connexions which they establish these fibres may be classified into three distinct groups, viz. (1) commissural fibres; (2) association fibres; and (3) projection fibres.

Commissural Fibres.—These are fibres which link together portions of the gray cortex of opposite cerebral hemispheres. They are arranged in three groups forming three definite structures, viz. the corpus callosum, the anterior commissure and the psalterium or the hippocampal commissure.

The **corpus callosum** has in a great measure been already studied (p. 570). As it enters each hemisphere, its fibres spread out in an extensive radiation (the radiation of the corpus callosum). It thus comes about that every part of the cerebral cortex, with the exception of the bulbus olfactorii and the under and fore part of the temporal lobe, is reached by the callosal fibres. But it should be clearly understood that all the regions of the cortex do not receive an equal proportion of fibres; in other words, some cortical areas would appear to be more plentifully supplied than others. Another point of some importance consists in the fact that the callosal fibres do not, as a rule, connect together symmetrical portions of the gray cortex. As the fibres cross the mesial plane they become greatly scattered, so that most dissimilar parts of the cortex of opposite hemispheres come to be associated with each other.

Each callosal fibre arises in one hemisphere and ends by fine terminal arborisations in the cortex of the opposite hemisphere. It may arise in any one of three ways, viz. (1) as the axon of one of the cortical cells, either pyramidal or polymorphic; (2) as the collateral of a fibre of association; (3) as the collateral of a fibre of projection.

Many cases have been recorded in which, through congenital defect, the corpus callosum has not been developed. In the description of this structure on p. 570 attention has been called to a layer of callosal fibres which sweep over the posterior and descending horns of the lateral ventricle, so as to form the immediate outer wall of the cavity. This layer is called the **tapetum**, and it has been stated that when the corpus callosum is absent the tapetum is found in a well-developed condition. Further, it has been asserted that in cases where the corpus callosum has been experimentally destroyed the tapetum suffered no degeneration (Muratoff). Certain anatomists are, therefore, inclined to argue that the tapetum has little or no connexion with the corpus callosum. This assertion, however, cannot by any means be regarded as being proved. There is a large amount of evidence on the other side. Thus, Mingazzini has seen a case of failure of the corpus callosum which was accompanied by a corresponding defect in the tapetum, whilst softening of the splenium and the forceps major has been observed by Anton to be accompanied by a secondary degeneration of the tapetum. Further, the recent experimental evidence of Ferrier and Turner would appear to support the older view that the tapetum is associated in the closest manner with the corpus callosum.

The **anterior commissure** (commissura anterior) is a structure supplemental to the corpus callosum. It connects together the two olfactory lobes, and also portions of opposite temporal lobes. It presents a cord-like appearance and is arranged in the form of a horse-shoe, the concavity of which looks backwards. The middle free portion is placed immediately in front of the anterior pillars of the fornix as they curve downwards, and also in intimate relation to the anterior end of the third ventricle. Posteriorly, the small portion of the anterior commissure which appears in the ventricle between the two pillars of the fornix is clothed with the ventricular ependyma; anteriorly, the commissure is connected with the lamina cinerea as it stretches from the optic chiasma upwards towards the rostrum of the corpus callosum.

The **lateral part** of the anterior commissure penetrates the cerebral hemisphere, gaining the lower part of the anterior end of the internal capsule, divides into portions, viz. a small lower olfactory part and a much larger temporal part.

The **olfactory portion** of the anterior commissure is an exceedingly small fasci- s. It passes downwards and forwards, and finally enters the olfactory tract. composed (1) of true commissural fibres, which bind one olfactory bulb to the :; and (2) of other fibres, which connect the olfactory bulb of one side with emporal lobe of the other side.

The **temporal portion** is formed of almost the whole of the fibres of the com- ure. It is carried transversely outwards, under the lenticular nucleus, until it the interval between the globus pallidus and the putamen. At this point it

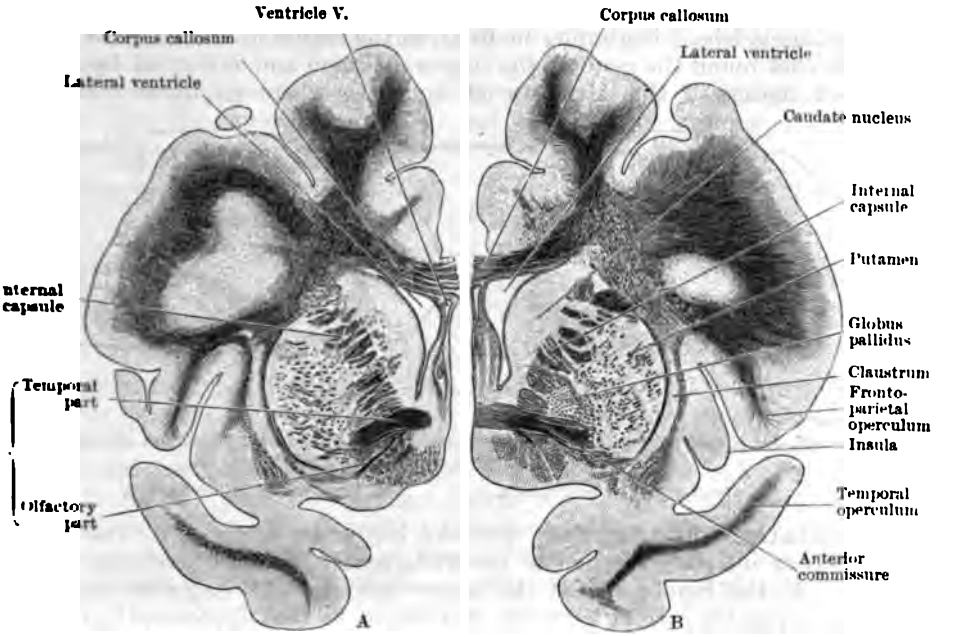


FIG. 471.—TWO CORONAL SECTIONS THROUGH THE CEREBRAL HEMISPHERES OF AN ORANG, IN THE PLANE OF THE ANTERIOR COMMISSURE.

A. Section through the left hemisphere in a plane a short distance behind B, which is a section through the right hemisphere.

nges its direction and sweeps backwards. In coronal sections through the n, behind this bend, the temporal portion of the anterior commissure appears as oval bundle of fibres cut transversely and placed in close contact with the under ace of the lenticular nucleus (Fig. 468, p. 582). Finally, it turns sharply downds on the outer aspect of the amygdaloid nucleus, and its fibres are lost in the white lullary centre of the temporal lobe. The precise part of the cerebral cortex with ch these fibres stand in connexion is not known. When the lateral part of the erior commissure is displayed by dissection, it is seen to be twisted like a rope.

The **psalterium**, or the **hippocampal commissure**, is composed of fibres which con- t the cornu ammonis of one side with the corresponding structure of the opposite . It is described on p. 572.

Association Fibres.—The association fibres bind together different portions of cortex of the same hemisphere. They are grouped into long and short associa- n bundles.

The greater number of the **short association fibres** pass between adjacent volutions. They curve round the bottom of the sulci in U-shaped loops. Some these occupy the deepest part of the gray cortex itself, and are termed *intracortical sociation fibres* (Fig. 469, p. 586): others lie immediately subjacent to the gray tter—between it and the general mass of the white matter—and receive the me of *subcortical fibres*. Many groups of short association fibres, instead of linking ether contiguous convolutions, pass between gyri more or less remote. It is only

after birth, when intellectual effort and education have stimulated different po of the cortex to act in harmony and in conjunction with each other, that t association fibres assume their sheaths of medulla and become functional.

The **long association fibres** are arranged in bundles which run for consider distances within the white medullary centre of the cerebral hemisphere, and districts of gray cortex which may be far removed from each other. The b known of these fasciculi are the following: (1) the uncinate; (2) the cingu (3) the superior longitudinal; (4) the inferior longitudinal; (5) the occipito-fro

The **fasciculus uncinatus** is composed of fibres which arch over the stem of Sylvian fissure and connect the frontal pole, and the orbital convolutions of frontal lobe, with the front portion of the temporal lobe.

The **cingulum** is a very well-marked and distinct band, which is closely associ with the limbic lobe. Beginning in front, in the region of the anterior perfora spot, it arches round the genu of the corpus callosum and is carried backwards the upper surface of this structure at the place where its fibres pass into t

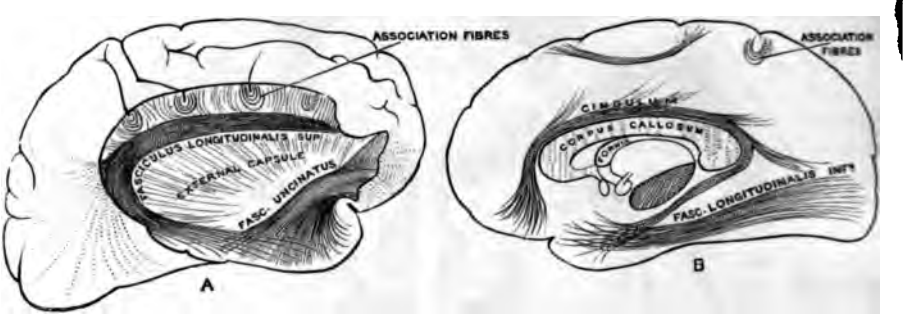


FIG. 472.—DIAGRAM OF THE LEADING ASSOCIATION BUNDLES OF THE CEREBRAL HEMISPHERE. (Founded on the drawings of Déjerine.)

A. Outer aspect of hemisphere. B. Inner aspect of hemisphere.

callosal radiation. The cingulum, therefore, lies under cover of the callosal gyr and stands in intimate relation to the white centre of this convolution (Fig. 45 p. 570). At the hinder end of the corpus callosum the cingulum turns roun the splenium and is carried forwards, in relation to the hippocampal gyrus, to th uncus and the temporal pole. The cingulum is composed of several systems o fibres which only run for short distances within it.

The **fasciculus longitudinalis superior** is an arcuate bundle which is placed on th outer aspect of the foot or basal part of the corona radiata and connects the frontal, occipital, and temporal regions of the hemisphere. It lies in the base of the fronto-parietal operculum and sweeps backwards over the insular region to the posterio end of the Sylvian fissure. Here it bends downwards round the hinder end of th putamen and proceeds forwards in the temporal lobe, to reach its anterior extremity. As it turns downwards to reach the temporal lobe numerous fibres radiate from it into the occipital lobe.

The **fasciculus longitudinalis inferior** is a very conspicuous bundle which extend along the whole length of the occipital and temporal lobes (Fig. 457, p. 570). In th occipital lobe it is placed on the outer aspect of the optic radiation, which takes a simila direction and from which it is distinguished by the greater coarseness of its fibre (Figs. 462, p. 576; 465, p. 578; 473, p. 592). It is not present in the macaqu monkey (Ferrier and Turner), but is well developed in the orang and the chimpanze

The **fasciculus occipito-frontalis** is a bundle of fibres which runs in a sagittal directio in intimate relation to the lateral ventricle (Fig. 468, p. 582). It has been pointed o (Forel, Onufrowicz, and others) that, in cases where the corpus callosum fails to develo the tapetum remains apparently unaffected, and Déjerine has endeavoured to prove th the fibres of this layer really belong to the fasciculus occipito-frontalis. According Déjerine, the fasciculus occipito-frontalis lies on the inner aspect of the corona radiata intimate relation to the caudate nucleus, and posteriorly it spreads out over the upp and outer aspect of the lateral ventricle, immediately outside the ependyma, whe it constitutes the tapetum (see p. 588). There is a considerable amount of literatu

ling with this subject, and the most probable explanation of the difficulty would ear to be that the tapetum is composed of fibres derived from both the corpus osum and the fasciculus occipito-frontalis of Déjerine.

Projection Fibres.—The projection fibres are those which connect the cerebral tex with nuclear masses placed at a lower level. The great bulk of these fibres found in the corona radiata. This has already been seen to be formed by the tinuation upwards of the internal capsule (p. 583). In the corona radiata the es which, lower down, are gathered together in the compact mass which con- utes the internal capsule, radiate in every direction, intersect the radiation of corpus callosum, and finally reach every region of the cortex. Although the es of the corona radiata represent the chief bulk of the projection fibres, it should o be borne in mind that a certain number gain the cortex by a different route, tably through and under the lenticular nucleus and by the path offered by the ternal capsule.

The projection fibres of the cerebral hemisphere may be classified into (1) rticipetal, and (2) corticifugal groups; and under these headings the following reat strands may be arranged:—

Corticipetal Projection Strands.	Corticifugal Projection Strands.
1. Thalamo-cortical.	1. The pyramidal or great motor tract.
2. Corticipetal fibres of the optic radiation.	2. The cortico-thalamic.
3. The auditory radiation.	3. The fronto-pontine strand.
	4. The temporo-pontine strand.
	5. The corticifugal fibres of the optic radiation.

The **great motor** or **pyramidal tract** is composed of fibres which arise from pyramidal cells in that portion of the cortex which is spread over the Rolandic area, or, in other words, in the district immediately in front of the fissure of Rolando. The fibres descend through the corona radiata into the posterior limb of the internal capsule. From this point the further course of the pyramidal tract has been traced, viz. through the central part of the crusta of the crus cerebri, the ventral part of the pons, and the pyramid of the medulla oblongata. At the level of the foramen magnum it decussates in the manner already described, and enters the spinal cord as the crossed and direct pyramidal tracts. The fibres composing these end in connexion with the ventral or motor column of cells, from which the fibres of the anterior roots of the spinal nerves arise.

The **fronto-pontine strand** is composed of fibres which arise as the axons of the cells in the cortex which covers the portion of the frontal lobe, which lies in front of the præcentral furrows. It descends in the anterior limb of the internal capsule, enters the mesial part of the crusta of the crus cerebri, through which it gains the ventral part of the pons. In this its fibres end, by forming arborisations around the cells of the nucleus pontis.

The **temporo-pontine tract** consists of fibres which spring from the cells of that part of the cortex which covers the middle portions of the two upper temporal convolutions. It probably represents a corticifugal tract belonging to the auditory system, seeing that it springs to some extent from the auditory cortical area. The temporo-pontine tract passes inwards under the nucleus lenticularis, enters the retrolenticular part of the hinder limb of the internal capsule, and thus gains the outer part of the crusta of the crus cerebri. From this it descends into the ventral part of the pons, in which it ends in the nucleus pontis (Fig. 439, p. 546).

The **optic radiation** forms a very definite and easily demonstrated tract of longitudinally-directed fibres in the white medullary centre of the occipital lobe. It lies on the outer side of the ventricular cavity, from which it is separated by the fibres of the tapetum and the ependyma of the ventricle (Figs. 462, p. 576; and 465, p. 579). To the outer side of, and applied closely to, the optic radiation is another longitudinal tract of fibres in this part of the medullary centre of the cerebral hemisphere, viz. the inferior longitudinal association bundle; but the fibres of the latter fasciculus are coarser and are stained more deeply by the Pal-Weigert method, and thus they can, as a rule, be easily distinguished from the optic radiation. Traced

in a backward direction, the fibres of the optic radiation disperse and pas
cortex of the occipital lobe on both its mesial and outer aspects. This is s
interest, seeing that the visual centre is placed in this cortical district, a
particularly on the mesial aspect in the immediate neighbourhood of the c
fissure (Flechsig and Henschen). When the optic radiation is followed in a
direction it is seen to enter the retrolenticular part of the posterior lim
internal capsule, from whence its fibres pass to the pulvinar of the optic tl
to the corpus geniculatum externum and the superior quadrigeminal body.

As we have noted, the optic radiation is composed partly of corticifu
partly of corticipetal fibres (p. 552). The former arise from cells in the
cortex and end in the pulvinar and the superior quadrigeminal body; the
petal fibres arise in the pulvinar and in the corpus geniculatum extern
end in the occipital cortex (Ferrier and Turner).

The system of fibres which belong to the **mesial fillet** and the **superior c**

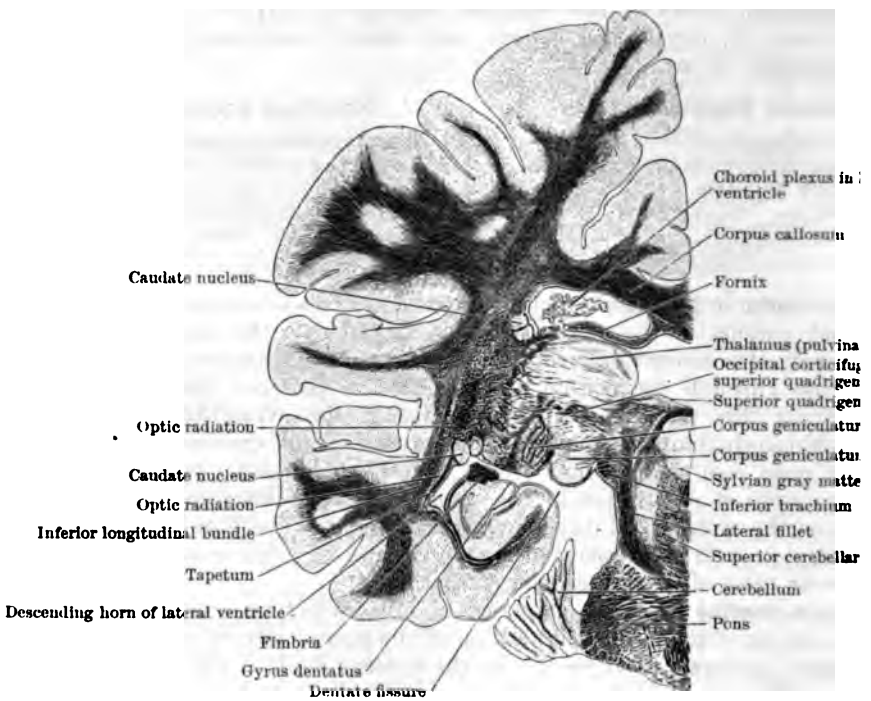


FIG. 473. — CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE LEFT SIDE OF THE CEREBRUM, MESENCEPHALON, IN THE REGION OF THE PULVINAR OF THE THALAMUS, AND THE CORPORA GENICULATA (C Weigert-Pal specimen).

peduncle have been already more or less fully dealt with (pp. 535 and 539).
system represents the continuation upwards of the posterior columns of t
The first nuclear internodes in the system are met with in the medulla in the
the cuneate and gracile nuclei. It is here that the fillet first takes definite sh
as it passes upwards through the tegmental part of the medulla and pons, it
many additions to its strength in the form of fibres from the nuclei of ter
of the afferent cranial nerves. Finally, passing through the tegmentur
mesencephalon, it reaches the subthalamic region and enters the ventral
the thalamus. This may be looked upon as being the second internode la
the path of the fillet, and its fibres end in arborisations around the thalam

The **fibres of the superior cerebellar peduncle** encounter two nuclear inte
they pass towards the cerebral cortex, viz. the red tegmental nucleus and
thalamus (p. 536).

The **fibres of the auditory radiation** arise as the axons of cells situate
internal geniculate body. They enter the retrolenticular part of the poste
of the internal capsule and proceed under the lenticular nucleus tow

poral lobe. Here they end in the area of cortex which constitutes the auditor **re.** This corresponds to the middle portion of the superior temporal convolu **i, and** also to the rudimentary transverse gyri of Heschl, which are present on **insular** surface of the temporal operculum.

The thalamo-cortical cortico-thalamic systems include the fibres which constitute **louble** bond of connexion between the thalamus and all parts of the cortex. **ey are** sufficiently described at p. 545.

The remarkable researches of Flechsig have added greatly to our knowledge of the different **cts of** fibres in the cerebral hemisphere. By studying the periods at which these tracts **elinate** he has been able to note the manner in which the different areas of the cortex are **ind** together and also linked on to subjacent centres. He has arrived at a highly important **ception** regarding the functional value of different districts of the cortex, founded upon their **tomical** connexions. He recognises four sense-areas in the cortex, viz. the somæsthetic area, **visual area,** the auditory area, and the olfactory area.

The somæsthetic area is the field of general sensibility and is the most extensive of all. It **ludes** the two central convolutions, the posterior portions of the three frontal convolutions, the **ıacentral** convolution, and the adjoining part of the callosal convolution.

The visual area is placed on the inner aspect of the occipital lobe, and more particularly in **e** immediate neighbourhood of the calcarine fissure.

The auditory area corresponds to the middle third of the superior temporal convolution **d** to the transverse gyri of Heschl.

The olfactory area includes the locus perforatus anticus, the trigonum olfactorium, the **terior** part of the callosal convolution, and the uncus.

These sense-areas are peculiarly rich in their supply of projection fibres, and each is provided th an extensive system of both corticifugal and corticipetal fibres. Thus the somæsthetic area

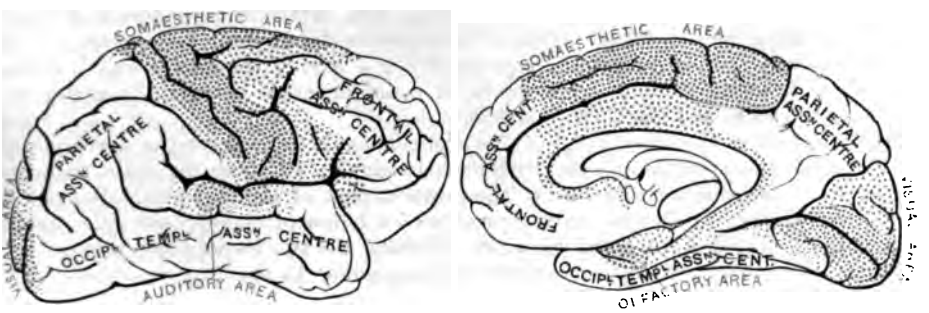


FIG. 474. —DIAGRAMS to show Flechsig's sensory and association areas on the surface of the cerebral hemisphere.

e the field where the motor pyramidal tract takes origin and within which the tracts of general ensibility end. The visual area has the corticipetal and corticifugal fibres of the optic radiation. The auditory area has the corticipetal auditory radiation and also the corticifugal temporo-ontine tract. In man the olfactory area is feebly developed, and Flechsig has not been able o establish, with certainty, its corticipetal and corticifugal projection tracts.

The sense-areas differ greatly from each other in the extent of cerebral surface which they over. The size in each case is in strict conformity with the peripheral area with which each is n connexion. It can easily be understood, therefore, how the somæsthetic area, representing as t does on the cortex all the parts of the body outside the special organs of sense, from which ensory nerves proceed, should be so large. Further, it is manifest why the visual sensorial area, which in the cortex is the corresponding part to the retina, should be of greater extent than the uditory field, which represents the cochlea, and the olfactory area, which represents a small mount of olfactory mucous membrane in the nasal chamber.

The four sensorial areas, taken together, only form about one-third of the entire cerebral surface. The remaining two-thirds of the cortex constitute what Flechsig has termed the **ssociation centres.** The great extent of these in man must be regarded as a special human haracteristic. These centres differ from the sensorial areas in being poorly provided with projection fibres. They have little direct connexion with the centres which lie at a lower level. Indeed, the only direct bond of union over a very large extent of these association areas with lower centres consists of the thalamo-cortical fibres, which pass to them from the thalamus. But, on the other hand, they are rich in association fibres, and are linked in the most complete and perfect manner by these fibres to the sensorial areas.

Flechsig regards these association areas as constituting the portions of cortex in which the higher intellectual activities are carried on, and he further believes that they exercise an important controlling influence over the sense-areas. More particularly is this control exhibited in the case of the great somæsthetic area, within which the influence of all bodily impressions is received and transformed into consciousness, and within which the impulses which are thereby

excited take definite form. These impulses, according to Flechsig, are, in a measure, i properly-balanced minds, held in subjection by the higher feelings, which assume shape i association centres.

In his study of the fœtal and infantile brain Flechsig has shown that the fibres of the s paths become medullated in the first instance; then the corticifugal fibres which go out fro sense-areas assume their sheaths of myelin; and, further, that it is not until a month after and after the projection fibres in connexion with the sense-areas are myelinated, that the a tion areas become linked on by medullated association fibres with the sense-areas.

Development of the Parts derived from the Fore-brain.

It has been previously noted that the fore-brain very early shows an obscur division into a front portion, termed the telencephalon, and a hinder part, calle diencephalon, which corresponds more nearly to the original cavity of the fore- The cavity of third ventricle is derived from both, and stretches forwards, theref the lamina terminalis, which in its lower part is represented in the adult by the l cinerea.

The lateral wall of both sections of the primitive fore-brain shows a subdivisio a dorsal or alar and a ventral or basal lamina. The groove which indicates this s tion is the sulcus of Monro, and is evident even in the adult brain.

In recognising an alar and basal lamina in the fore-brain the teaching of Professor followed. This subdivision, however, is not admitted by all observers, and some hold th fore-brain is to be regarded as a great diverticular expansion which grows out from th dorsal and alar laminæ of the mesencephalon.

Alar Lamina.—The alar part of the lateral wall of the *telencephalon* is push to form the diverticulum, which ultimately constitutes the cerebral hemisphere, an from a very early period the primitive position of this part of the lateral wall is ind by the wide foramen of Monro, or aperture of communication between the cavity cerebral hemisphere and the third ventricle.

The alar part of the lateral wall of the *diencephalon* is utilised for the developm the thalamus, the epithalamus, and the metathalamus. Of these the optic thala derived from the anterior and by far the greatest part of the alar wall. It aris large oval swelling, which gradually approaches its fellow of the opposite side, an diminishes the width of the third ventricle. Finally, the two bodies come into cont the mesial plane and cohere over an area corresponding to the gray commissure. occurs about the end of the second month.

From that section of the lateral wall to which the name of metathalamus is giv two geniculate bodies arise. Each of these shows, in the first place, as a depress the inside, and a slight elevation on the outside, of the wall of the diencephalon. thalamus grows backwards, it encroaches greatly upon the territory occupied by th culate bodies. It thus comes about that in the adult brain the internal geniculate seems to hold a position on the lateral aspect of the mesencephalon, whilst the ex geniculate body, viewed from the surface, appears to be a part of the thalamus.

From the epithalamic region of the wall of the diencephalon are developed the gland, its peduncle, and the habenular region. These parts are relatively much evident in the embryonic than in the adult brain. The pineal body is develope diverticulum of the posterior part of the roof of the diencephalon. Viewed fro dorsal aspect of the brain-tube, this diverticulum shows in the first instance as a ro elevation, from either side of which a broad ridge runs forwards. This ridge b the tænia thalami, whilst in the region of its junction with the pineal elevatio trigonum habenulæ takes shape. The pineal diverticulum ultimately becomes soli a small portion of the original cavity is retained as the recessus pinealis of the ventricle.

Basal Lamina.—The part of the diencephalon and telencephalon which repr the basal lamina lies below the level of the sulcus of Monro, retains its primitive for undergoes only slight change. Consequently, when this region in the adult brain i pared with the corresponding region in the embryonic brain, the resemblance betwe two is very striking.

In the fore-brain, therefore, it is the alar lamina which plays the predominant p the formation of the cerebrum. The value, also, of the basal part of the wall portion of the neural tube is still further reduced by the fact that it no longer c the nuclei of origin of efferent nerves. The highest of these nuclei (the oculo-mo placed in the mesencephalon.

on of the fore-brain which lies below the sulcus of Monro is termed the hypo-The part of this which corresponds to the diencephalon is called the pars is hypothalami, rt in front, which he telencephalon, ame of pars optica

pars mammillaris are derived the nmillare and a e tuber cinereum. ars optica hypo- associated the rts, viz. the tuber ith the infundi- the cerebral part ry body, the optic optic recess, and inerea.

pora mammillaria first instance, a large downward the floor of the As development bulging becomes all, and about the h the single pro- mes divided into rcles.

fundibulum and cerebral lobe of y body are de- hollow downward of the floor of alon (p. 549). A e original cavity n the upper part libulum, and con- fundibular recess the third ventricle. nerve is chiefly e passage of fibres from the retina

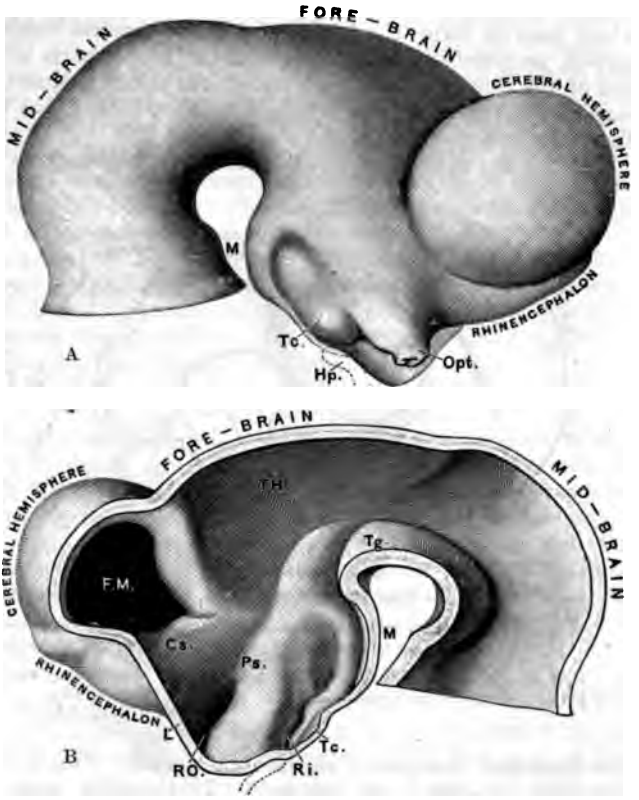


FIG. 475.—TWO DRAWINGS OF THE EMBRYONIC BRAIN (by His).

A. Reconstruction of the fore-brain and mid-brain of His's embryo KO; profile view. B, Same brain as A, divided along the mesial plane and viewed upon its inner aspect.

M, Mammillary eminence; T.c, Tuber cinereum; Hp, Hypophysis (pituitary diverticulum from buccal cavity); Opt, Optic stalk; TH, Optic thalamus; Tg, Tegmental part of mesencephalon; P.s, Par subthalamica; C.s, Corpus striatum; F.M, Foramen of Monro; L, Lamina terminalis; R.O, Recessus opticus; R.i, Recessus infundibuli.

of the original optic stalk, whilst the chiasma takes form by the transit of the middle line in front of the infundibulum and behind the optic recess. To t these fibres are derived from the optic nerve. The optic recess of the third ·ks the spot where the hollow optic vesicle originally bulged out from the eral part of the fore-brain, and in the adult it therefore represents a portion ive cavity of the tubular stalk of the optic vesicle. In the course of develop- ic nerve fibres, which appear in the stalk of the optic vesicle to form the ieck an attachment much further back, and through the optic tract they are as far as the mesencephalon.

of the fore-brain remains thin, and does not proceed to the development ements, except in its posterior part. Here it forms the pineal body and the missure. In front of these structures the roof of the fore-brain is epithelial, so during life. It constitutes the epithelial roof of the third ventricle, and voluted along the middle line into the cavity by the choroid plexuses of the he posterior commissure appears as a transverse thickening at the bottom of groove which appears in the roof of the early brain-tube behind the pineal

l Hemisphere.—The cerebral hemisphere is derived from the alar section wall of the telencephalon. From this it grows out and soon assumes very ions. At first it grows forwards and upwards, and a distinct fissure, the

early incisura longitudinalis cerebri, appears between the cerebral hemisphere opposite sides. The separation of the two cerebral vesicles by the longitudinal fi begins at the end of the first month. This fissure becomes occupied by mesoblastic ti which later on forms the falx cerebri. The cerebral hemisphere, in its further growt carried progressively backwards over the hinder parts of the developing brain. At end of the third month it has covered the optic thalamus. A month later it reache corpora quadrigemina, and by the seventh month it has not only covered these, but the entire upper surface of the cerebellum.

At the end of the first month the olfactory lobe grows out as a hollow protrusion

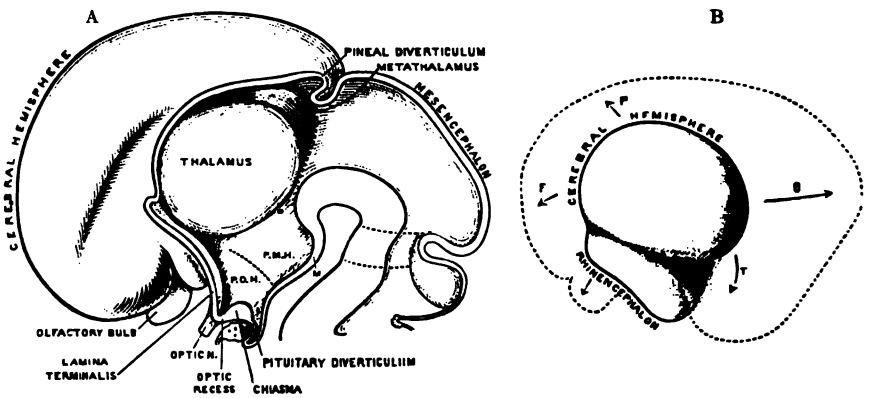


FIG. 476.—TWO DRAWINGS BY HIS, illustrating the development of the human brain.

A, Median section through a fœtal human brain in the third month of development.

B, Schema showing the directions in which the cerebral hemisphere expands during its growth.

P.M.H. Pars mammillaris hypothalami.
P.O.H. Pars optica hypothalami.
M. Mammillary region.
F. Frontal lobe.
P. Parietal lobe.
O. Occipital lobe
T. Temporal lob

the lower and fore part of the cerebral vesicle. This in course of time becomes solid forms the olfactory tract and bulb. In the adult brain the point which correspon the original connexion between the early hollow olfactory diverticulum and the cavi the cerebral vesicle is represented by the extremity of the anterior cornu of the la ventricle.

In the floor of the hollow cerebral hemisphere a thickening takes origin, and ultimately is developed into the corpus striatum. On the outer surface of the vesicle thickening is seen to correspond to a depression which constitutes the early Sylvian f the further development of which is described on p. 556.

In the earlier stages of its development the cerebral hemisphere is a thin-walled ve with a relatively large cavity, which represents the primitive condition of the la ventricle. At first the vesicle is bean-shaped and the cavity is curved. At this stag outline is very similar to that presented by the cerebral hemisphere of a quadruped, there is little or no trace of an occipital lobe or of a posterior horn of the lateral vent As development goes on, however, the occipital portion of the hemisphere grows back over the cerebellum in the shape of a hollow protrusion, and a distinct occipital enclosing the posterior horn of the lateral ventricle is the result. This developm stage, which is distinctive of man and the apes, begins about the fourth month.

On the mesial aspect of the cerebral hemisphere, in the early stages of its develop an invagination of the wall of the vesicle takes place into the cavity immediately a and behind the large foramen of Monro. This is the choroidal fissure, and the fold o cerebral wall, which is thus thrust into the cavity, remains thin and entirely epith After a time mesoblastic tissue from the great longitudinal fissure finds its way int choroidal fissure and occupies the interval between the two thin layers which form the This mesoblastic tissue forms the choroid plexus of the lateral ventricle, and in the stages of the hemisphere it is so voluminous that it fills up the relatively large cavi the lateral ventricle.

Development of the Gyri and Sulci.—In the early stages of its development surface of the cerebral hemisphere is smooth and closely applied to the deep surfa the cranial capsule within which it is enclosed.

After the occipital lobe is fully formed and the fifth month is reached, the cra grows for a time more rapidly than the brain, with the result that a relatively wide sp

between the cerebral surface and the surrounding cranial envelope. This is occupied [illegible]dden subarachnoid tissue, and when this stage is reached (in the latter part of the [illegible] month) the sulci and gyri begin to make their appearance. The incomplete sulci owe [illegible]r origin to the upheaval of the cerebral cortex on either side of the appearing fissures, [illegible] the gyri which bound them are formed as the result of an exuberance of surface [illegible]wth in localised areas. Owing to the wide interval between the cranial wall and the [illegible]ce of the cerebral hemisphere, the particular surface areas which grow and foreshadow [illegible] future gyri suffer no restriction, and they take the form of rounded eminences which [illegible] from the general surface level of the cerebral hemisphere. As growth goes on, how-[illegible]r, the brain gradually assumes a bulk more nearly in accord with the cavity of the [illegible]nium, and the space for extension becomes more limited. Finally, about the beginning [illegible] the eighth month, the gyral elevations come into close contact with the cranial wall, [illegible]d a stage of growth-antagonism between the brain and its enclosing capsule is entered [illegible]on. As a result of this the gyri are pressed together, the fissures assume more definite [illegible]ape, and the ordinary convolutionary forms make their appearance. So intimate, indeed, [illegible] the contact between the cerebral hemisphere and the skull capsule that the gyri, to [illegible]me extent, produce an imprint on the deep aspect of the cranial bones.

As already explained, the complete fissures are produced by an infolding of the wall [illegible] the cerebral vesicle.

Cerebral Commissures.—The development of the cerebral commissures is sur-[illegible]ounded with much difficulty. It would seem that the corpus callosum, the anterior [illegible]mmissure, and the fornix all take origin in the lamina terminalis. The triangular [illegible]nterval which is left between these commissures is occupied by the septum lucidum—a [illegible]tructure which has an intimate developmental and morphological connexion with the [illegible]yrus subcallosus. The great development of the corpus callosum in man is to be [illegible]ociated with the enormous expansion of the human neo-pallium of which it is the [illegible]mmissure.

Weight of the Brain.

The average weight of the adult male brain may be said to be about 1360 grammes. The female brain weighs rather less, but this is to be expected from the smaller bulk of the female body. Probably the relative weight of the brain in the two sexes is very much the same. The variations met with in brain-weight are very great, but it is doubtful if normal intellectual functions could be carried on in a brain which weighs less than 960 grammes. In microcephalic idiots brains of extremely small size are met with.

THE MENINGES OF THE BRAIN AND SPINAL CORD.

The brain and spinal cord are enclosed within three membranes, which are termed the meninges or meningeal membranes. From without inwards these are: (1) the dura mater, (2) the arachnoid mater, and (3) the pia mater. The space between the dura mater and the arachnoid receives the name of subdural space, while the much more roomy interval between the arachnoid and the pia mater is called the subarachnoid space.

Dura Mater.

The dura mater is a dense and thick fibrous membrane which possesses a very considerable degree of strength. Its arrangement within the cranial cavity is so different from that within the spinal canal that it is customary to speak of it as consisting of two parts, viz. a cranial and a spinal, although in adopting this subdivision it must be clearly understood that both portions are continuous with each other at the foramen magnum.

Cranial Dura Mater (dura mater cerebri).—The cranial dura mater is adherent to the inner surface of the cranial wall, and performs a double office. It serves as an internal periosteum for the bones which it lines and constitutes an envelope for the brain. Its inner surface, which bounds the subdural space, is smooth and glistening, and is covered by a layer of endothelial cells. The outer surface, when separated from the cranial wall, is rough, this being due to numerous fine fibrous processes and blood-vessels which pass between it and the bones. Its degree of

adhesion to the cranial wall differs considerably in different regions. To the wall of the cranium, except along the lines of the sutures, the connexion is by no means strong, and in the intervals between the fibrous processes which pass into the bone there are small lymph spaces (epidural spaces) where the outer surface of the membrane is covered by endothelial cells. So long as the sutures are open the dura mater is connected with the periosteum on the exterior of the skull, along the sutural lines, by a thin layer of fibrous tissue which intervenes between the bony margins. Around the foramen magnum, and to the floor of the cranium, the dura mater is very firmly adherent. This is more particularly marked in the case of the projecting parts of the cranial floor, as, for example, the petrous portions of the temporal bones, the clinoid processes, and so on. This firm adhesion in these regions is still further strengthened by the fact that the nerves, as they leave the cranium through the various foramina, are followed by sheaths of the fibrous dura

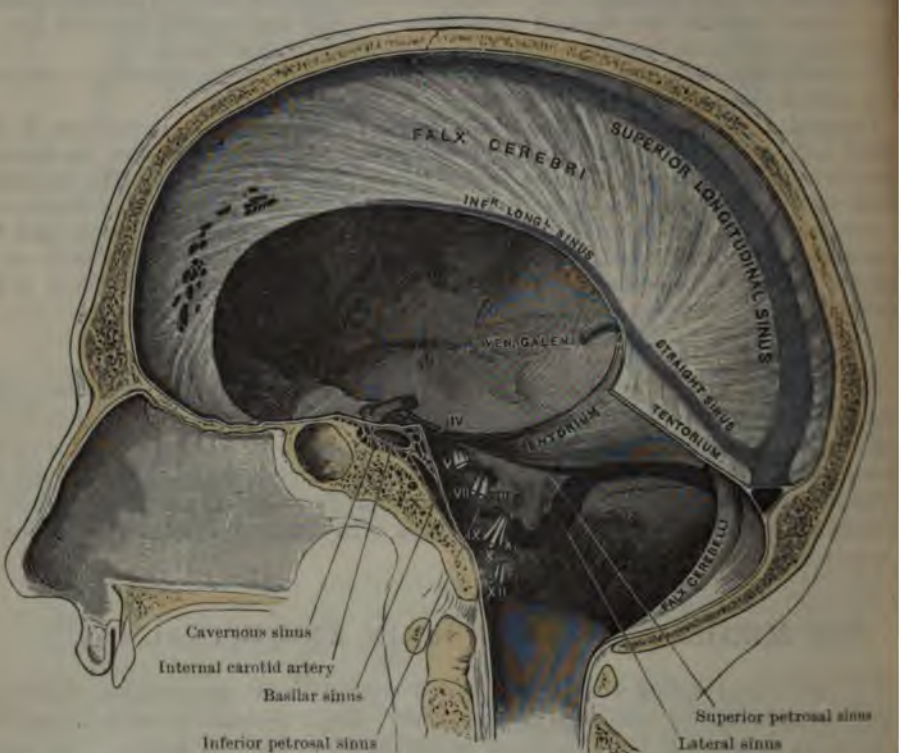


FIG. 477.—SAGITTAL SECTION THROUGH THE SKULL, A LITTLE TO THE LEFT OF THE MESIAL PLANE to show the arrangement of the dura mater.

The cranial nerves are indicated by numerals.

mater. Outside the cranium these prolongations of the membrane blend with the fibrous sheaths of the nerves, and likewise become connected with the periosteum on the exterior of the skull. In the child, during the growth of the cranial bones, and also in old age, the dura mater is more adherent to the cranial wall than during the intermediate portion of life.

The cranial dura mater is composed of two layers intimately connected with each other, but yet capable of being demonstrated in most regions of the cranium. Along certain lines these two layers separate from each other so as to form channels lined by endothelium. These channels are the **venous blood-sinuses** which receive the blood from veins which come from various parts of the brain. They are described in the section dealing with the Vascular System.

Strong fibrous partitions or septa are given off along certain lines from the deep surface of the dura mater. These project into the cranial cavity, and subdivide it partially into compartments which all freely communicate with each other, and

of which contains a definite subdivision of the brain. These septa are: (1) the cerebri; (2) the tentorium cerebelli; (3) the falx cerebelli; and (4) the hragma sellæ.

The **falx cerebri** is a sickle-shaped partition which descends in the great longinal fissure between the two hemispheres of the cerebrum. In front it is narrow, attached to the crista galli of the ethmoid bone. As it is followed backwards ıcreases in breadth, and behind it is attached along the mesial plane to the ır surface of the tentorium. The anterior narrow part of the falx is frequently ıiform, and is sometimes perforated by apertures to such an extent that it almost nbles lace-work. Along each border it splits into two layers, so as to enclose a l-sinus. Along its upper convex attached border runs the *great longitudinal s*; along its concave free border courses the much smaller *inferior longitudinal s*; whilst along its attachment to the tentorium is enclosed the *straight sinus.*

The **tentorium cerebelli** is a large crescentic partition of dura mater, which forms embranous tent-like roof for the posterior cranial fossa, and thus intervenes ;een the posterior portions of the cerebral hemispheres and the cerebellum. It curately applied to the upper surface of the cerebellum. Thus its highest point front and in the mesial plane, and from this it slopes downwards towards its :hed border. It is kept at a high degree of tension, and this depends on the grity of the falx cerebri, which is attached to its upper aspect in the mesial e.

The *posterior border* of the tentorium is convex, and is attached to the horial ridge which marks the deep surface of the occipital bone. Beyond this, on side, it is fixed to the postero-inferior angle of the parietal bone, and then ards along the superior border of the petrous portion of the temporal bone. n the internal occipital protuberance to the postero-inferior angle of the ɛtal bone this border encloses the *lateral blood-sinus*, whilst along the upper er of the petrous bone it encloses the *superior petrosal sinus.* The *anterior er* of the tentorium is sharp, free, and concave, and forms with the dorsum ɛ an oval opening shaped posteriorly like a pointed arch. This opening receives name of the **incisura tentorii**, and within it is placed the mesencephalon, or the ɛ of connexion between the parts which lie in the posterior cranial fossa and cerebrum. Beyond the apex of the petrous part of the temporal bone the two gins of the tentorium cross each other like the limbs of the letter X; the free gin is continued forwards, to be attached to the anterior clinoid process, whilst attached border proceeds inwards, to be fixed to the posterior clinoid process.

The **falx cerebelli** is a small, sickle-shaped process of dura mater placed below tentorium, which projects forwards in the mesial plane from the internal occil crest. It occupies the notch which separates the two hemispheres of the bellum posteriorly. Inferiorly it bifurcates into two small diverging ridges :h gradually fade away as they are traced forwards on either side of the foramen num.

The **diaphragma sellæ** is a small circular fold of dura mater which forms a roof :he pituitary fossa. A small opening is left in its centre for the transmission he infundibulum.

Spinal Dura Mater (dura mater spinalis).—In the spinal canal the dura mater ıs a tube which encloses the spinal cord, and which extends from the foramen ;num above to the level of the second or third piece of the sacrum below. It ery loosely applied to the spinal cord and the nerve-roots which form the la equina; in other words, it is very capacious in comparison with the volume .s contents. Moreover, its calibre is not uniform. In the cervical and lumbar ons it is considerably wider than in the dorsal region, whilst in the sacral ıl it rapidly contracts, and finally ends by blending with the filum terminale :rnum, the chief bulk of which it forms. At the upper end of the spinal ıl the spinal dura mater is firmly fixed to the third cervical vertebra, to the vertebra, and around the margin of the foramen magnum. In the sacral ıl the filum terminale externum, with which it blends, extends downwards to back of the coccyx, to the periosteum of which it is fixed. The lower end of tube is thus securely anchored and held in its place.

Within the cranial cavity the dura mater is closely adherent to the bones, forms for them an internal periosteum. As it is followed into the spinal canal two constituent layers separate. The inner layer is carried downwards as the cylindrical tube which encloses the spinal cord. The outer layer, which is thinner, becomes continuous behind and on each side of the foramen magnum the periosteum on the exterior of the cranium, whilst in front it is prolo downwards into the vertebral canal in connexion with the periosteum and ligam on the anterior wall of the canal. The spinal dura mater, therefore, correspond the inner layer of the cranial dura mater, and to it alone. It is separated from walls of the spinal canal by an interval, the **epidural space**, which is occupied soft fat and a plexus of thin-walled veins. In connexion with the spinal mater there are no blood-sinuses such as are present in the cranial cavity, b should be noted that the veins in the epidural space, placed as they are bet the periosteum of the spinal canal and tube of dura mater, occupy the morphological plane as the cranial blood-sinuses. Another feature which serv distinguish the spinal dura mater from the cranial dura mater consists in the that it gives off from its deep surface no partitions or septa.

The cylindrical tube of spinal dura mater does not lie absolutely free w the vertebral canal. Its attachments, however, are of such a character that in no way interfere with the free movement of the vertebral column. On side the spinal nerve-roots, as they pierce the dura mater, carry with them int intervertebral foramina tubular sheaths of the membrane, whilst in front fibrous prolongations—more numerous above and below than in the dorsal regi connect the tube of dura mater to the posterior common ligament of the vert column. No connexion of any kind exists between the dura mater and the pos wall of the spinal canal.

When the interior of the tube of spinal dura mater is inspected, the ser apertures of exit for the roots of the spinal nerves is seen. These are rang pairs opposite each intervertebral foramen.

Viewed from the inside of the tube of dura mater, each of the two roots spinal nerve is seen to carry with it a special and distinct sheath. When exan on the outside, however, the appearance is such that one might be led to con that both roots are enveloped in one sheath of dura mater. This is due to th that the two sheaths are firmly held together by intervening connective t The two tubular sheaths remain distinct as far as the ganglion on the pos root, and then blend with each other.

Subdural Space.—The dura mater and the arachnoid mater are closely ap to each other, and the capillary interval between them is termed the sub space. It contains a minute quantity of fluid, which is just sufficient in amou moisten the opposed surfaces of the two bounding membranes.

The subdural space in no way communicates with the subarachnoid The fluid which it contains is led into the venous blood-sinuses around Pacchionian bodies, and thus gains exit. The subdural space is carried out for a very short distance on the various nerves which are connected with brain and the spinal cord, and it has a free communication with the lymph- present in these nerves. In the case of the optic nerve the sheath of dura is carried along its whole length, and with it the subdural space is likewise longed to the back of the eyeball.

The Arachnoidea.

The arachnoid mater is a very thin membrane, remarkable for its delicac transparency, which envelopes both the brain and the cord between the dura and the pia mater. The cranial part of the arachnoid mater or the **arach encephali**, except in the case of the great longitudinal and the Sylvian fissure not dip into the sulci on the surface of the brain. In this respect it differ the pia mater. It bridges over the inequalities on the surface of the Consequently, on the basal aspect of the encephalon it is spread out in the f a very distinct sheet over the medulla, the pons Varolii, and the hollow whi

front of the pons, and in certain of these regions it is separated from the brain-face by wide intervals.

The spinal part of the arachnoid mater or **arachnoidea spinalis**, which is directly continuous with the cranial arachnoidea, forms a loose wide investment for the spinal cord. This arachnoidal sac is most capacious towards its lower part, where it envelopes the lower end of the cord and the collection of long nerve-roots which constitute the cauda equina.

As the nerves, both from the brain and the cord, pass outwards they receive an investment from the arachnoid, which runs for a short distance upon them and then comes to an end.

Subarachnoid Space (cavum subarachnoidale).—The interval between the arachnoidea and the pia mater receives the name of the subarachnoid space. It

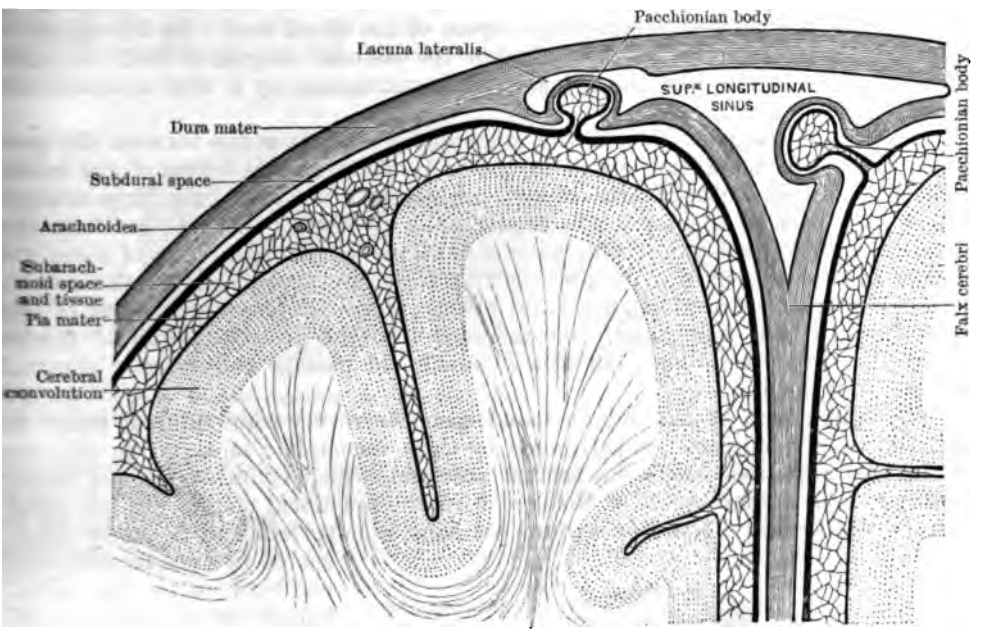


FIG. 478.—DIAGRAM to show the relations of the membranes of the brain to the cranial wall and the cerebral convolutions, and also of the Pacchionian bodies to the superior longitudinal sinus and the lateral lacunæ.

contains the cerebro-spinal fluid, and communicates freely through certain well-defined apertures with the ventricular cavities in the interior of the brain. Three of these (viz. the foramen of Majendie and another at the extremity of each lateral recess) are in connexion with the fourth ventricle; two are slit-like openings into the lateral ventricles, and are placed at the extremity of each descending horn.

Within the cranium the subarachnoid space is broken up by a meshwork of fine filaments and trabeculæ, which connects the two bounding membranes (viz. the arachnoidea and the pia mater) in the most intimate manner, and forms a delicate sponge-like interlacement between them. Where the arachnoidea passes over the summit of a cerebral convolution, and is consequently closely applied to the subjacent pia mater, the meshwork is so dense and the trabeculæ so short that it is hardly possible to discriminate between the two membranes. To all intents and purposes they form in these localities one lamina. In the intervals between the rounded margins of adjoining convolutions, however, distinct angular spaces exist, where the subarachnoid trabecular tissue can be studied to great advantage. These intervals on the surface of the cerebrum constitute numerous communicating channels which serve for the free passage of the subarachnoid fluid from one part of the brain to another. The larger branches of the arteries and veins of the brain traverse the subarachnoid space; their walls are directly connected with the subarachnoid trabeculæ, and are bathed by subarachnoid fluid.

In certain situations within the cranium the arachnoidea is separated from the

pia mater by intervals of considerable width and extent. These expanded p of the subarachnoid space are termed **cisternæ subarachnoidales**. In these t arachnoid tissue is much reduced. There is no longer a close meshwor trabeculæ connecting the two bounding membranes take the form of lo mentous intersecting threads which traverse the spaces. All the subar cisterns communicate in the freest manner with each other and also w narrow channels on the surface of the cerebrum.

Certain of these cisterns require special mention. The largest and m spicuous is the **cisterna magna**. It is formed by the arachnoid membrane b over the wide interval between the back part of the under surface of the cer and the medulla. It is continuous through the foramen magnum with the p part of the wide subarachnoid space of the cord.

The **cisterna pontis** is the continuation upwards on the floor of the cra the anterior part of the subarachnoid space of the spinal cord. In the r the medulla it is continuous behind with the cisterna magna, so that t division of the brain, like the spinal cord, is surrounded by a wide subar space.

In front of the pons Varolii the arachnoidea bridges across between jecting temporal lobes, and covers in the deep hollow in this region of th This space is called the **cisterna basalis**, and within it are placed the large which take part in the formation of the circle of Willis. Leading out f cisterna basalis there are certain wide subarachnoid channels. Two of th prolonged into the Sylvian fissures, and in these are accommodated the cerebral arteries. Anteriorly the basal cistern passes into a space in fron optic chiasma, and from this it is continued into the great longitudinal above the corpus callosum. In this subarachnoid passage the anterior arteries are lodged.

The spinal part of the subarachnoid space is a very wide interval v partially subdivided into compartments by three incomplete septa. One is a mesial partition called the **septum posticum**, which connects the pi covering the posterior aspect of the cord with the arachnoid mater. In th part of the cervical region the septum posticum is imperfect, and is merel

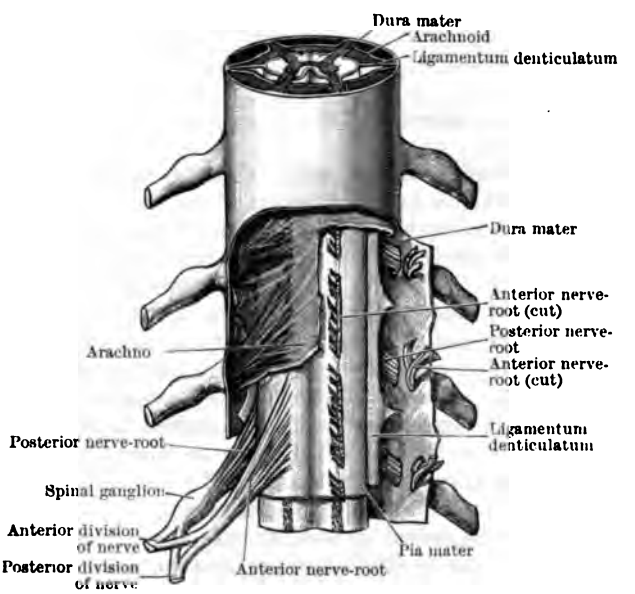


FIG. 479.—MEMBRANES OF THE SPINAL CORD, AND THE MODE OF ORIGIN OF THE SPINAL NERVES.

sented by some stran ing between the tw branes; in the lowe the cervical region the dorsal region it tolerably complete other two septa are by the **ligamenta den** which spread outwar either side of the spi These will be descrit the pia mater.

Pacchionian (granulationes noidales).—When t face of the dura n inspected after the of the calvaria, a nu small fleshy-looking cences, purplish-red i are seen ranged in cl either side of the longitudinal sinus, a this sinus is opened also observed protruding in considerable numbers into its interior. These Pacchionian bodies, and they are also found in smaller number and d smaller size in connexion with other blood-sinuses, such as the **lateral si**

sight sinus, and the cavernous sinus. At first sight they appear to belong to the dura mater, but in reality they are projections from the arachnoidea. In the child they are exceedingly small and rudimentary, and it is only as life advances that they become large and conspicuous.

Each Pacchionian body is a bulbous protrusion of the arachnoid membrane. It is attached to the arachnoidea by a narrow pedicle, and into its interior is prolonged through this a continuation of the subarachnoid space and its characteristic meshwork. The Pacchionian bodies do not pierce the dura mater. As they push their way into a blood-sinus they carry before them a thin covering continuous with the sinus wall. On either side of the superior longitudinal sinus there are a number of irregular spaces in the dura mater which communicate with the sinus either by a small aperture or a narrow channel. These spaces are called the **parasinoidal sinuses** or the **lacunæ laterales**, and certain of the meningeal veins and some of the diploic veins open into them. Pacchionian bodies push themselves into the parasinoidal sinuses from below in such a manner that they receive a

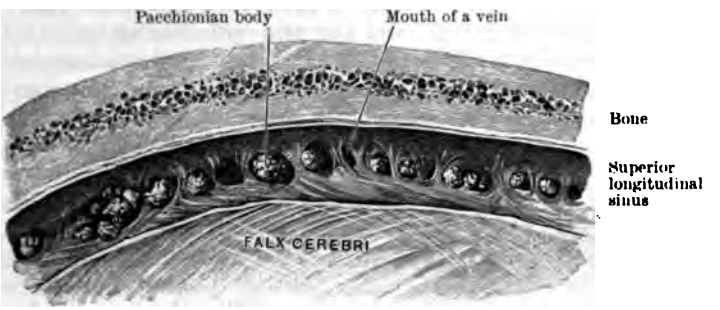


FIG. 480.—MESIAL SECTION THROUGH THE CRANIAL VAULT IN THE FRONTAL REGION. Displays a portion of the superior longitudinal sinus and the Pacchionian bodies protruding into it (enlarged).

complete covering from the layer of dura mater which forms the sinus floor. Nor does the bone escape. As the Pacchionian bodies enlarge they cause absorption of the cranial wall, and small pits are hollowed out on its deep surface for their reception. It must be clearly understood, however, that in such cases the Pacchionian body is separated from the bone by the following:—(1) A continuation round the Pacchionian body of the subdural space; (2) the thinned floor of the parasinoidal sinus; (3) the lumen of the sinus; and (4) the greatly thinned upper wall of the sinus.

The Pacchionian bodies have a special function to perform. Through them fluid can pass from the subarachnoid space into the venous sinuses with which they stand in connexion. Whenever the pressure of blood in the sinuses is lower than that of the fluid in the subarachnoid space and the ventricles of the brain, the cerebro-spinal fluid filtrates through the Pacchionian bodies into the blood-sinuses. This is not the only way that subarachnoid fluid may obtain exit. The subarachnoid space is carried outwards for a short distance on the nerves in connexion with their arachnoidal sheaths, and communicates with the lymph channels of the nerves. This connexion is more complete in the case of the olfactory, the optic, and the auditory nerves, than in other nerves. A very free communication between the subarachnoid space and the lymphatics of the nasal mucous membrane is said to exist.

THE PIA MATER.

The pia mater forms the immediate investment of the brain and cord. It is a delicate and very vascular membrane.

Pia mater encephali.—The pia mater which covers the brain is finer and more delicate than that which clothes the spinal cord. It follows closely all the inequalities on the surface of the brain, and in the case of the cerebrum it dips into each sulcus in the form of a fold which lines it completely. On the cerebellum the relation is not so intimate; it is only into the larger fissures that it penetrates in the form of folds.

The larger blood-vessels of the brain lie in the subarachnoid space. Th twigs ramify in the pia mater before they proceed into the substance of the As they enter they carry with them sheaths derived from the pia mater. a portion of the membrane is raised from the surface of the encephalon, nu fine processes are withdrawn from the cerebral surface. These are the blood- with their sheaths, and they give the deep surface of the pia mater a rou flocculent appearance.

As the pia mater is carried over the lower part of the roof or posterior the fourth ventricle of the brain it receives the name of the **tela choroidea** i and it is in connexion with this portion of the pia mater that the choroid pl of that cavity are developed. The tela choroidea superior or velum interp is a fold of pia mater which is invaginated into the brain, so that it comes over the third ventricle and project in the shape of choroid plexuses in lateral ventricles. This invagination requires special notice.

The **velum interpositum** (tela choroidea superior) is a double layer or fol mater which intervenes between the body of the fornix which lies above it a epithelial roof of the third ventricle, and the two optic thalami which lie b Between its two layers are blood-vessels, and some subarachnoidal tra tissue. In shape the velum interpositum is triangular, and the narrow a end or apex reaches forwards as far as the foramina of Monro. The b under the splenium of the callosum, and here the tw of the velum separate and continuous with the invest mater on the surface of th by passing out through called the **transverse fissur**

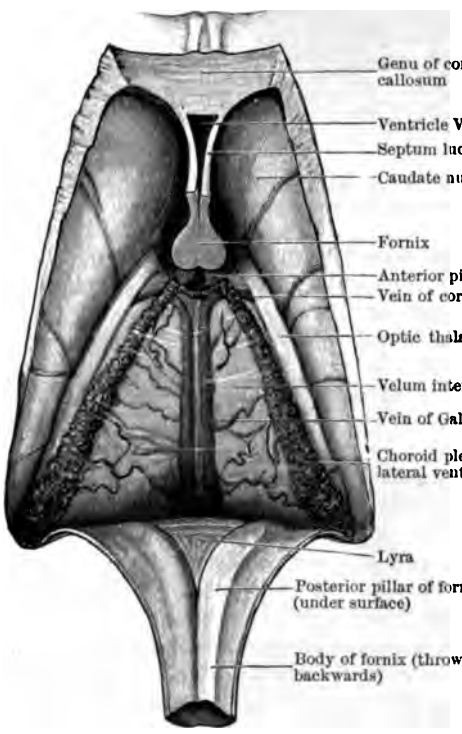


FIG. 481.—DISSECTION TO SHOW THE VELUM INTERPOSITUM, AND THE PARTS IN IMMEDIATE RELATION TO IT.

Along each lateral mar velum interpositum is b by the choroid plexus of t of the lateral ventricle, projects into the ventricula from under cover of t lateral margin of the for should be borne in mind t epithelial lining of the v gives a complete covering choroid plexus. Posterio choroid plexus is continuo the similar structure in scending horn of the ve whilst in front it narrows and becomes continuous ac mesial plane with the corr ing plexus of the opposit behind the epithelial laye lines the foramen of Monro this median junction tw smaller choroid plexuses ru wards on the under surface of the velum interpositum, and project downwa the third ventricle. These are the choroid plexuses of the third ventricle.

The most conspicuous blood-vessels in the velum interpositum are t **veins of Galen**, which run backwards, one on either side of the mesial pla front, each is formed at the apex of the fold by the union of the vein corpus striatum and a large vein issuing from the choroid plexus; behin unite to form the **vena magna Galeni**, and this pours its blood into the a end of the straight sinus (Fig. 477, p. 598).

The continuous cleft in the brain through which the velum interpositu the choroid plexuses of the two descending horns of the lateral ventric

l into the interior of the brain is sometimes called the **transverse fissure.** s of an upper intermediate part and two lateral parts. The former wards between the llosum and the ve and the roof of ventricle and the ami below. It is n either side by lial covering of the exuses, which shuts structures from of the lateral ven- The lateral part is **idal fissure.** This uous with the in- e part, and has een described in with the descend- of the lateral (p. 578).

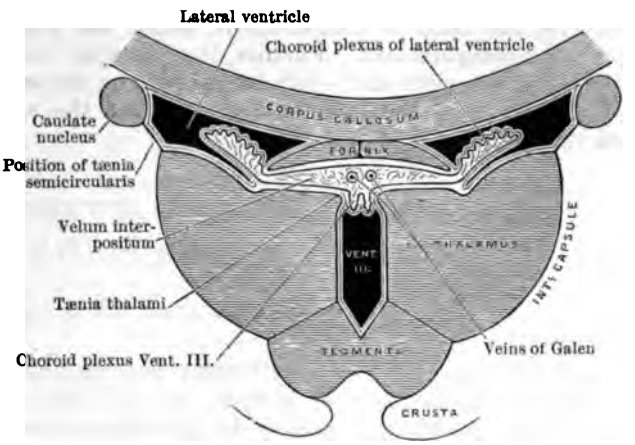
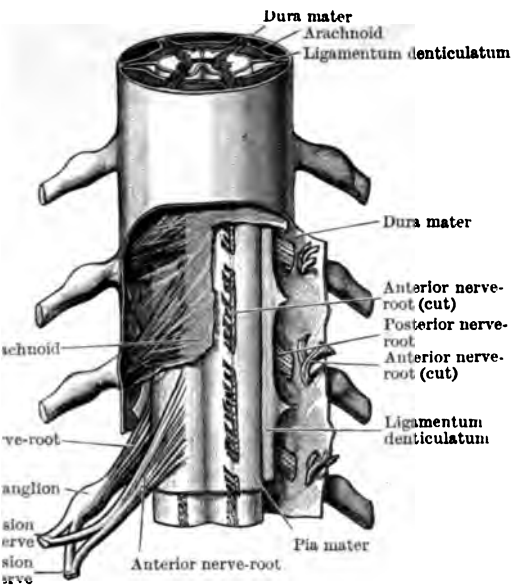


FIG. 482.—DIAGRAMMATIC CORONAL SECTION through the optic thalami, and the parts in immediate relation to them. The intermediate part of the great transverse fissure holding the velum interpositum is seen, and also the manner in which this fissure is shut out from the lateral ventricles by the epithelium which covers the choroid plexus on each side.

nater spinalis.— nater of the cord and denser than he brain. This is ue to the addition of an outside fibrous layer, in which the fibres run the longitudinal direction. The pia mater is very firmly adherent to e of the cord, and in front it sends a fold into the antero-median fissure rd. The septum which occupies the postero-median fissure is likewise firmly attached to its deep surface. In front of the antero-median furrow of the cord the pia mater is thickened in the form of a longitudinal glistening band, termed the **linea splendens**, which runs along the whole length of the cord, and blends with the filum terminale below. The blood-vessels of the spinal cord lie between the two layers of the pia mater.



-MEMBRANES OF THE SPINAL CORD, AND THE MODE OF ORIGIN OF THE SPINAL NERVES.

The nerves which leave both the brain and cord receive closely-applied sheaths from the pia mater. These blend with the connective-tissue sheaths of the nerves.

The **ligamentum denticulatum** is a strong fibrous band which stretches out ıg from the pia mater on either side of the spinal cord, so as to connect ater with the dura mater. The pial or inner attachment of the ligament n a continuous line between the anterior and posterior nerve-roots, from of the foramen magnum above to the level of the first lumbar vertebra ts outer margin is serrated or denticulated, and for the most part free. ınty to twenty-two denticulations may be recognised. They occur in the between the spinal nerves, and pushing the arachnoid before them, they

are attached by their pointed ends to the inner surface of the dura mater. ligamenta denticulata partially subdivide the wide subarachnoid space in the canal into an anterior and a posterior compartment. The anterior nerve traverse the anterior compartment, whilst the posterior nerve-roots traver posterior compartment. Further, the posterior compartment is imperfectly divided into a right and a left lateral part by the septum posticum.

By means of the ligamenta denticulata the spinal cord is suspended i middle of the tube of dura mater.

E PERIPHERAL NERVES AND THE SYMPATHETIC NERVOUS SYSTEM.

By A. M. Paterson.

from the brain and spinal cord respectively, the cranial and spinal are responsible, collectively, for the central localisation of peripheral or for the transmission peripherally of central impulses. The sense and the somatic regions of the body are in direct communication by

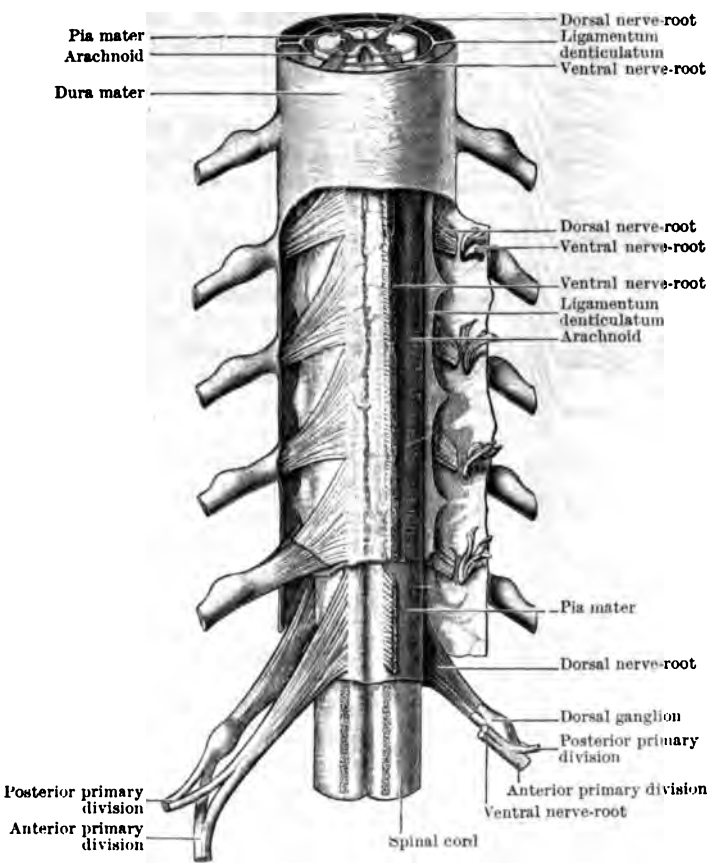


Fig. 484.—Scheme of the Arrangement of the Membranes of the Spinal Cord and the Roots of the Spinal Nerves.

ves with the
id spinal cord.
lanchnic area,
viscera which
ains, are gov-
y nerves con-
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E SPINAL ERVES.

spinal nerves nged in pairs, ch there are thirty-one. erve arises by ots from the cord, which ely pierce the dura mater. Enclosed in a tubular investment of this ine, the nerve emerges from the spinal canal through the intervertebral , and is distributed to the trunk and limbs in a manner to be described below. nerves are designated **cervical, thoracic, lumbar, sacral,** and **coccygeal,** in rela- the vertebræ between which they emerge from the spinal canal. Each nerve below the corresponding vertebra, except the first of the cervical series,

which passes out of the spinal canal between the occipital bone and th
There are thus *eight* cervical nerves (the last appearing between the s
cervical and first thoracic vertebræ); there are *twelve* thoracic, *five* lumb
sacral, and *one* coccygeal nerve, all appearing below the corresponding vertel

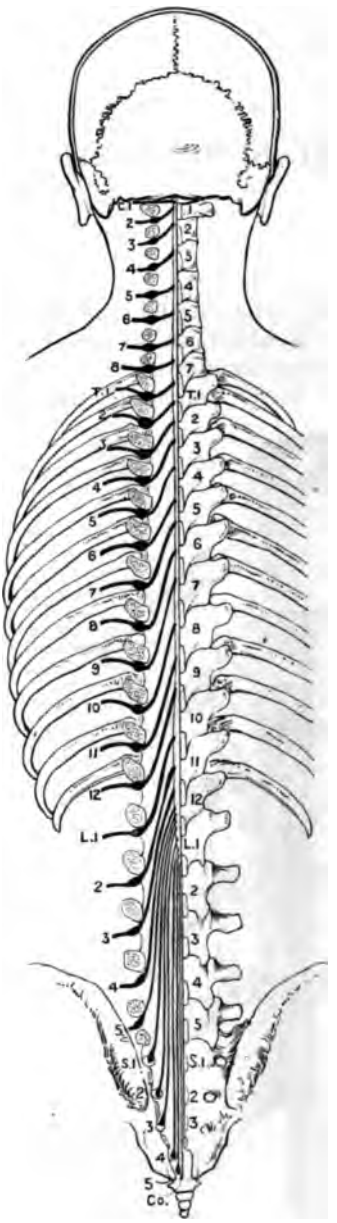

FIG. 485.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE ORIGIN OF THE SPINAL NERVES, showing the position of their roots and ganglia respectively in relation to the spinal column. The nerves are shown as thick black lines on the left side.

The thirty-first nerve is occasionally absent; ar
are sometimes one or two additional pairs of
filaments below the thirty-first, which, however,
emerge from the spinal canal. These are rudi
caudal nerves.

The size of the spinal nerves varies extremel
largest are those which take part in the formatio
great nerve-trunks for the supply of the limbs
cervical and first thoracic, and lower lumbar and
sacral nerves); and of these the nerves destined
lower limbs are the larger. The coccygeal nerve
smallest of the spinal nerves; the thoracic nerves
the first) are much more slender than the limb
and the cervical nerves diminish in size from be
wards.

Origin of the Spinal Nerves.—Each
nerve is attached to the spinal cord by tw
called respectively **dorsal** (posterior) and
(anterior).

The **dorsal root** is larger than the ventra
it contains a larger number of rootlets, and
dividual rootlets are of larger size than in the
root. It has a vertical linear attachment
postero-lateral sulcus of the spinal cord. The
of contiguous dorsal roots are in close relation,
some instances, overlap. The dorsal root sepa
it passes away from the cord into two bundl
of which become connected with the inner e
spinal ganglion. From the outer end of this g
the dorsal root proceeds to its junction wi
ventral root in the intervertebral foramen.

The **spinal ganglia** are found on the dors
of all the spinal nerves. (In the case of t
cervical or sub-occipital nerve, the spinal gangli
be rudimentary or absent; and the dorsal roo
may be wanting, or derived from the spinal ac
nerve.) They occupy the intervertebral fo
except in the case of the sacral and coccygeal
the ganglia of which lie *within* the vertebral
and the first and second cervical nerves, the
of which lie upon the neural arches of the at
axis respectively. With the exception of the co
ganglia they are outside the cavity of the dura
but are invested by the membrane. The
are of ovoid form, bifurcated in some cases a
inner ends. They consist of unipolar nerv
whose processes, after a very short course, divi
central (root) and peripheral (trunk) fibre
central fibres form the portion of the root e
the spinal cord; the peripheral fibres are conti
an outward direction from the ganglion into the spinal nerve.

Accessory spinal ganglia (ganglia aberrantia).—Between the spinal ganglion and t
cord small collections of cells are occasionally found on the dorsal roots, either as scatt
or distinct ganglia. They are most frequently met with on the dorsal roots of the lur
sacral nerves.

The ventral root is smaller than the dorsal root. It arises from the anterior face of the spinal cord (*anterior root zone*) by means of scattered bundles of ve-fibres, which occupy a greater horizontal area and are more irregular in their angement than the fascicles of the dorsal root. It possesses no ganglion in its rse. The rootlets sometimes overlap, and are not unfrequently connected with ghbouring rootlets above and below.

The dorsal and ventral roots, from their attachment to the spinal cord, proceed wards in the spinal canal towards the intervertebral foramina, where they ite to form the spinal nerve. The direction of the roots of the first two nerves upwards and outwards; the roots of the remaining nerves course obliquely nwards and outwards, the obliquity gradually increasing until, in the case of lower lumbar, the sacral and coccygeal nerve-roots, their course is vertically nwards in the spinal canal. The collection of nerve-roots which occupies lower part of the canal below the first lumbar vertebra, and comprises all the ve-roots below those of the first lumbar nerve, is designated the **cauda equina**.

y arise from the lumbar enlarge- it and conus medullaris, and sur- id the filum terminale of the spinal l.

Within the spinal canal the nerve- s are in relation with the meninges he cord, and are separated from one :her by the ligamentum denti- tum, and, in the neck, by the spinal of the spinal accessory nerve. Each ives a covering of pia mater, con- ious with the neurilemma; the hnoid invests each root as far as point where it meets with the dura er; and each root pierces the dura er separately. The two roots are eafter enclosed in a single tubular ith of dura mater, in which is included spinal ganglion of the dorsal root. spinal nerve thus formed lies in intervertebral foramen, except in case of the first two cervical and sacral and coccygeal nerves.

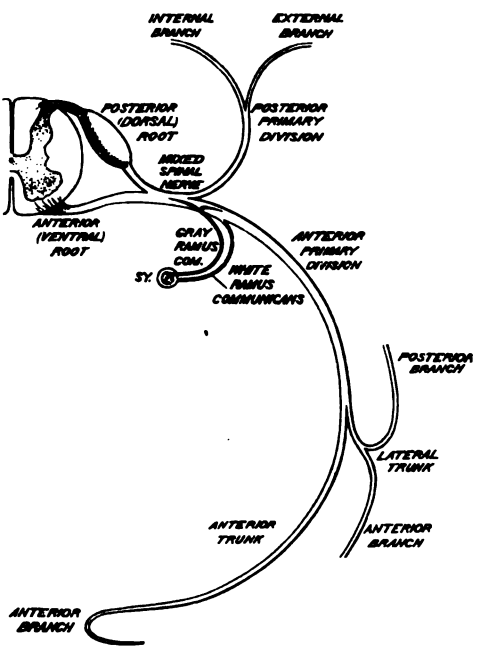

FIG. 486.—SCHEME OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF A TYPICAL SPINAL NERVE.

Divisions of a Spinal Nerve.— er emerging from the intervertebral amen the nerve immediately divides o two primary divisions, named respectively the **posterior** and **anterior mary divisions**. Just before its division each nerve gives off a minute **urrent branch,** which re-enters the vertebral canal after effecting a junction th a branch from the sympathetic cord, and is distributed to the spinal cord d its membranes.

The **posterior** and **anterior primary divisions** of the spinal nerve are responsible the innervation of the skeletal muscles and the skin covering the trunk d limbs. They are thus, properly speaking, the somatic branches of the inal nerve.

In relation to certain of the nerves, a series of much smaller branches exist which are connected th the sympathetic system (Fig. 486, *SY*), in a way to be described later. These constitute the **uite rami communicantes,** and may be termed the **visceral divisions** of the spinal nerves. They derived from the anterior primary divisions of the nerves, and receive their fibres mainly m the ventral roots, though, at least in the case of certain nerves, from the dorsal roots as well. ese nerves are directed inwards from the intervertebral foramen over the vertebral column, and, coming connected with the sympathetic cord, convey spinal fibres to the organs and tissues in e splanchnic area.

The posterior and anterior primary divisions of the nerves contain fibres from

both dorsal and ventral roots. Indeed, each root can be seen, on removal of the sheath, to divide into two portions, of which one portion enters into the formation of the posterior, the other into the formation of the anterior primary divisions. The posterior primary divisions, with the exception of the first two, are smaller than the anterior primary divisions; and they are, generally speaking, responsible for the innervation of the skin and muscles of the back. They do not supply the muscles of the limbs; although in their cutaneous distribution they are prolonged on to the back of the head, the shoulder, and the buttock. They form two small plexuses—the **posterior cervical** and the **posterior sacral plexuses**. The anterior primary divisions are, with the exception of the first two cervical nerves, much larger than the posterior primary divisions. They supply the sides and fore-parts of the body, the limbs, and the perineum. For the most part they have a complicated arrangement. The thoracic or intercostal nerves alone have a simple mode of distribution; the other nerves give rise to the three great **plexuses—cervical, brachial,** and **lumbo-sacral**.

Distribution of the Spinal Nerves.—The distribution, like the origin of the posterior and anterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves, presents primarily and essentially a segmental arrangement, masked and in some cases obliterated by developmental changes which have occurred in the parts supplied. In no region can a single nerve be traced to a complete segment. In the trunk between the limbs the nearest approach to a complete girdle is formed by such a nerve as the sixth thoracic nerve. In its cutaneous distribution it forms a perfect belt, the nerve by its posterior and anterior primary divisions supplying a distinctly segmental area from the middle line of the trunk behind to the sternum in front. Its muscular distribution, also, is almost perfectly segmental. The anterior primary division supplies, unaided, the intercostal muscles of the segment in which it lies. The posterior primary division supplies muscles in the back, not, however, in a strictly segmental manner, on account of the fact that the segmental myotomes have fused together in the back to give rise to complex longitudinal muscles, which are together supplied by the series of muscular branches derived from the posterior primary divisions of contiguous nerves. In other regions greater changes cause more marked deviations from a simple segmental type of distribution and give rise to the various plexuses, by which the trunk, and more particularly the limbs, are innervated.

POSTERIOR PRIMARY DIVISIONS OF THE SPINAL NERVES.

The posterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves are distributed generally to the skin of the back of the trunk, the back of the head, the shoulder and the buttock, and to the longitudinal muscles of the back, but not to the muscles of the limbs.

Each posterior primary division divides as a rule into two parts, an **internal** and an **external trunk** (Fig. 486, p. 609). In the upper half of the body the internal trunks generally supply the cutaneous branches, while the external trunks are purely muscular nerves. In the lower part of the body the opposite is the case: the external trunks provide the cutaneous nerves and the internal trunks are distributed entirely to muscles. The cutaneous branches have a different course in the two cases. In the upper half of the back they course inwards and backwards beneath and among the muscles to within a short distance of the spinous processes of the vertebræ, close to which they become superficial. They then extend outwards in the superficial fascia. In the lower half of the back the cutaneous nerves are directed downwards and outwards among the muscles, and become superficial at a greater distance from the middle line.

CERVICAL NERVES.

First Cervical Nerve (n. sub-occipi-).—**It has** already been pointed out ; **the dorsal** root of this nerve may **udimentary,** or even absent altogether. **posterior** primary division is larger **a the anterior** primary division; it **s not divide into** internal or external **nches, and it** does not directly supply **cutaneous branch.**

Passing backwards in the space be-en the occipital bone and the posterior **h of the atlas,** the nerve occupies the **- occipital** **ngle, and is** **ced below** **l behind the** **tebral artery,** **l under cover** **the complexus** **scle. It sup-es the follow-** ; **branches:—**

(*a*) **Muscular nches** to the **nplexus, recti pitis postici,** **jor and minor,** **d obliqui,** **perior and in-ior.**

(*c*) **A commu-cating branch** scends to join e second cervi-l nerve.

The communi-ting branch may ise in common th the nerve to e obliquus in-rior, and reach e second cervical rve by piercing passing over or neath the obli-us inferior. Or may accompany e nerve to the mplexus, and mmunicate with e great occipital rve, after pierc-g that muscle.

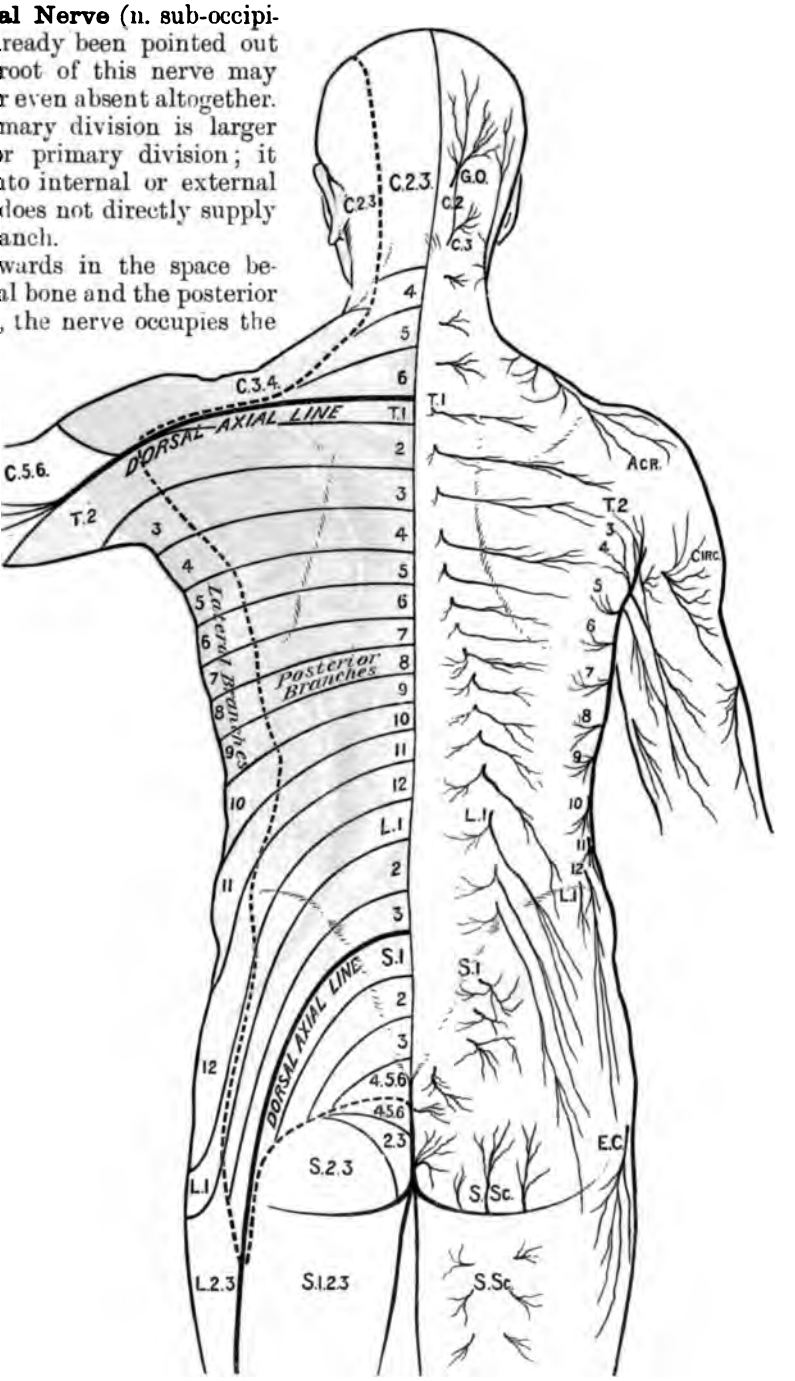

Fig. 487.—The Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Back of the Trunk.

On one side the distribution of the several nerves is represented, the letters indicating their nomenclature.

) (C.2), Great occipital ; C.3, Least occipital ; T.1 *et seq.*, Posterior primary divisions of thoracic nerves ; L.1 *et seq.*, Posterior primary divisions of first three lumbar nerves ; S.1 *et seq.*, Posterior primary divisions of sacral nerves ; Acr, Acromial branches from cervical plexus ; T.2-12, Lateral branches of thoracic nerves ; Circ, Cutaneous branches of circumflex nerve ; L.1, Iliac branch of ilio-hypogastric nerve ; E.C, External cutaneous nerve ; S.Sc, Small sciatic nerve.

the other side a schematic representation is given of the areas supplied by the above nerves, the numerals indicating the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area.

Second Cervical Nerve.—The posterior primary division of this nerve larger than the corresponding anterior primary division. It passes backwa between the atlas and axis, and in the interval between the obliquus infer and the semispinalis colli muscles, under cover of the complexus muscle. In t situation the nerve gives off several small muscular and communicating branch The main trunk, after piercing the complexus and trapezius muscles, accompan the occipital artery to the scalp as the **great occipital nerve** (n. occipitalis maj This is the chief cutaneous nerve for the back part of the scalp. It enters t superficial fascia at the level of the superior curved line of the occipital bone a about an inch from the external occipital protuberance. Ramifying over t surface, it supplies the skin of the scalp as far as the vertex. It *communicates*

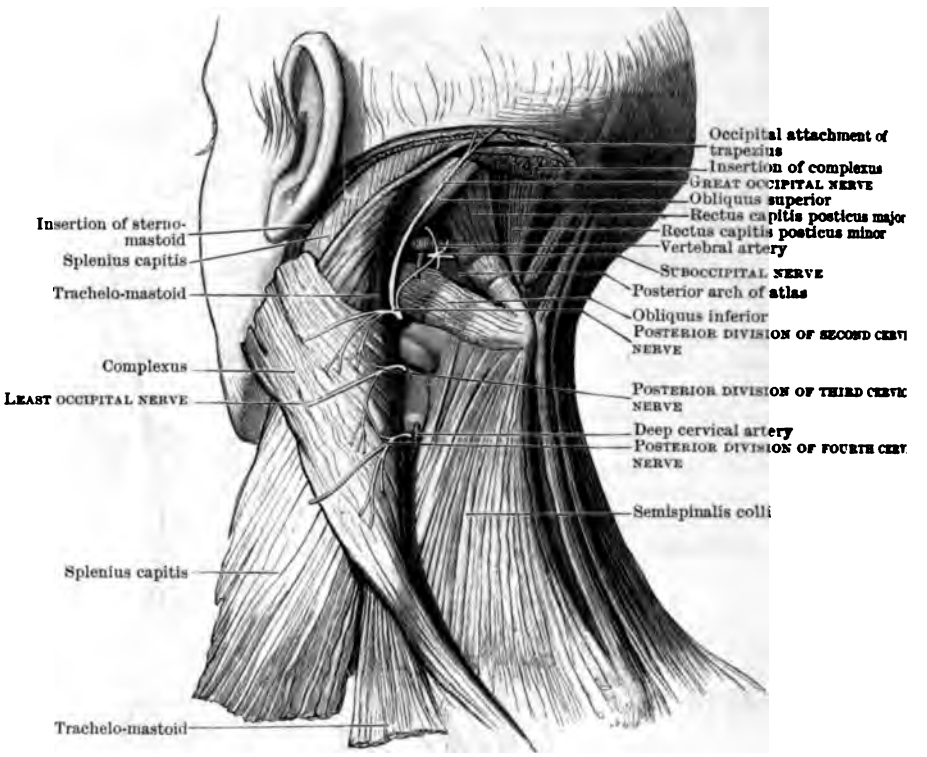

FIG. 488.—POSTERIOR CERVICAL PLEXUS.

the scalp with the following nerves: great auricular, small occipital, poste auricular, and least occipital.

The **muscular branches** of the second cervical nerve are destined for the c plexus, obliquus inferior, semispinalis colli, and multifidus spinæ.

Its **communicating branches** form the **posterior cervical plexus.** Descending the posterior arch of the atlas is a branch from the sub-occipital nerve which forms a or network with a corresponding branch of the second nerve. From this loop twig supplied to the surrounding muscles. A similar loop is formed by a communic between branches of the second and third nerves, from which muscles are also supp Occasionally an additional loop is formed between branches of the third and fourth ne

Third Cervical Nerve.—This is much smaller than the second nerve. its origin it forms a loop of communication with the second, and it may giv a similar communicating branch to the fourth nerve. The main trunk di into internal cutaneous and external muscular branches. The external mus branch enters contiguous muscles; the internal cutaneous branch passes backw and inwards, and becomes superficial as the **third** or **least occipital nerve** (n. oc talis minimus), close to the middle line of the neck. It supplies fine branch the neck and scalp, and communicates with the great occipital nerve.

The fourth, fifth, and sixth cervical nerves are still smaller. Beneath the com- cus **each** divides into external muscular and internal cutaneous branches. The scular **branches** supply neighbouring muscles; the cutaneous branches are small ves, **which**, passing backwards, become superficial close to the middle line. They ply **the skin** of the back of the neck. The sixth is the smallest, and its cutaneous nch **is minute**, and may be absent altogether. In certain cases the fourth nerve ns, **with the third**, a loop of communication from which muscles are supplied.

Seventh and Eighth Cervical Nerves.—These are the smallest of the posterior nary **divisions** of the cervical nerves. They give off ordinarily no cutaneous nches, and end in the deep muscles of the back.

THORACIC NERVES.

The posterior primary division of each thoracic nerve divides into an **internal** l **external branch**. In the case of the upper six thoracic nerves the internal nches are chiefly distributed as cutaneous nerves,—only giving off small muscular nches—while the external branches are wholly muscular in their distribution; the case of the lower six thoracic nerves the opposite is the case. In all cases e muscular branches serve to innervate the longitudinal muscles of the back. ie distribution of the cutaneous branches is different in the upper and lower rt of the back. The *upper six* or *seven* thoracic nerves innervate the skin of e scapular region. The **internal cutaneous branches**, after passing backwards from eir origin among the dorsal muscles, reach the surface near the spines of the rtebræ and are directed almost horizontally outwards over the vertebral border the scapula. The first is small; the second is very large and reaches to the romion process. The rest diminish in size, from above downwards, and become ore and more oblique in direction. The **external cutaneous branches** of the *lower re* or *six* thoracic nerves are directed from their origin obliquely downwards and atwards among the parts of the erector spinæ muscle. Becoming cutaneous by iercing the latissimus dorsi at some distance from the middle line, they supply he skin of the back in the lower part of the chest and loin, the lowest nerves eleventh and twelfth) reaching over the iliac crest on to the buttock. The lower erves often subdivide into two branches before or after their emergence from the atissimus dorsi muscle.

LUMBAR NERVES.

First three Lumbar Nerves.—The posterior primary divisions of the first hree lumbar nerves subdivide into internal and external branches, in the same ay as the lower thoracic nerves. The internal branches are muscular and nervate the deep muscles of the back. The external branches are chiefly utaneous. They are directed obliquely downwards and outwards among the bres of the erector spinæ and become superficial by piercing the vertebral poneurosis, just above the iliac crest and a short distance in front of the posterior iac spine. They are then directed downwards in the superficial fascia of the uttock, and supply a lengthy strip of skin, extending from the middle line above he iliac crest to a point below and behind the great trochanter of the femur.

The **fourth and fifth lumbar nerves** (like the last two cervical nerves) usually upply only muscular branches to the longitudinal muscles of the back. The fifth erve in many cases sends a minute branch to form a loop of connexion with the osterior primary division of the first sacral nerve (**posterior sacral plexus**).

SACRAL AND COCCYGEAL NERVES.

The posterior primary divisions of the sacral nerves issue from the posterior acral foramina. As in the case of the thoracic and lumbar nerves, the upper acral nerves differ from the lower in their distribution.

The **first three sacral nerves** supply internal muscular branches for the ultifidus spinæ, and external cutaneous branches which pierce the fibres of the acro-sciatic ligament and the gluteus maximus muscle, and supply the skin over

the back of the sacrum and contiguous part of the buttock, giving rise to the posterior sacral plexus.

The **posterior sacral plexus** consists, like the posterior cervical plexus, of loops or plexiform communications over the back of the sacrum between the posterior primary divisions of the first three sacral nerves, to which are frequently joined branches of the last lumbar nerve and fourth sacral nerve. From these loops branches proceed to supply the multifidus spinæ muscle; others, piercing the great sacro-sciatic ligament, form secondary loops beneath the gluteus maximus muscle. From the secondary loops, two or more cutaneous branches arise, which, after traversing the muscle, supply the skin over the sacrum and inner part of the buttock.

Posterior Sacro-coccygeal Nerve.—The posterior divisions of the fourth and fifth sacral nerves do not divide into internal and external branches. They unite together to form a cord which, descending behind the coccyx, receives the minute posterior primary division of the coccygeal nerve. The union of the three nerves constitutes the **posterior sacro-coccygeal nerve**, which, after perforating the sacro-sciatic ligament, is distributed to the skin in the neighbourhood of the coccyx. It supplies no muscles. This nerve is the representative of the **superior caudal trunk** of tailed animals.

Morphology of the Posterior Primary Divisions.

There are several points of morphological interest in relation to the posterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves.

1. **Muscular Distribution.**—In their muscular distribution they are strictly limited to the longitudinal muscles of the back: namely, those associated with the axial skeleton alone.

2. **Cutaneous Distribution.**—Their cutaneous distribution represents two points of interest.

A. In the first place, while the skin of the back is supplied in a regularly segmental manner by the several nerves, certain of them fail to reach the surface at all. The absence of a cutaneous branch from the sub-occipital nerve may be due either to the absence of a perfect dorsal root, or to its communication with the second nerve. The other nerves, which do not usually supply the skin, are the seventh and eighth cervical, and the fourth and fifth lumbar nerves. These nerves are placed in the centre of regions in which the upper and lower limbs are developed. They are minute nerves, while the corresponding anterior primary divisions are among the largest of the spinal nerves. Thus, opposite the centre of each limb, posteriorly, there is a hiatus in the segmental distribution of the posterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves to the skin of the shoulder and buttock, attributable to the formation of the limbs, and the extension into them of the greater part of the nerves of the region. This gap, in the case of the upper limb, commences at the level of the vertebra prominens; in the case of the lower limb it commences opposite the level of the posterior superior iliac spine. It can be continued on to each limb as a hypothetical area (the **dorsal axial line**), which indicates the area of contact (and overlapping) of cutaneous nerves not in strictly numerical sequence. Thus, in the region of the shoulder, the sixth (or fifth) cervical nerve innervates an area of skin adjoining that supplied by the first thoracic nerve; in the region of the buttock the third lumbar nerve supplies an area contiguous with that supplied by the first sacral nerve.

B. The cutaneous branches of the posterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves differ from the muscular branches in respect of their penetration into regions beyond those supplied by their motor roots. The cutaneous branches, in regions where outgrowths or extensions from the trunk have occurred, follow these extensions; and, in consequence, supply skin covering parts which do not belong to segments represented by the nerves in question. Thus the second and third cervical nerves (great and least occipital) are drawn upwards so as to supply the posterior part of the *scalp*; the upper thoracic nerves are drawn outwards over the *scapular region*; the upper lumbar and sacral nerves supply the skin of the *buttock*; and the sacro-coccygeal nerve forms a rudimentary *caudal nerve*.

3. **Plexuses.**—The plexuses formed by the posterior primary divisions of the upper cervical and upper sacral nerves are the simplest met with in the human body. The posterior cervical plexus is one from which muscular branches are supplied; the posterior sacral plexus is mainly concerned in producing cutaneous offsets. In the case of the **posterior cervical plexus** the loops of communication between the first three or four cervical nerves result in the formation of a series of nerves for the supply of the semispinalis, complexus, and other muscles, which bring into contact with these muscles, simultaneously, a considerable area of the spinal cord, and provide a combined and simultaneous innervation for the several parts of each muscle. In the case of the **posterior sacral plexus**, the formation of loops between the nerves results in the innervation of any given spot in the cutaneous area supplied from these loops by more than one spinal nerve. As has been said already, the cutaneous nerves, even without the formation of plexuses, overlap in their cutaneous distribution. The formation of a plexus causes a more intimate union of neighbouring spinal nerves, so that stimulation of the surface affects a wider area in the spinal cord than if the nerves passed separately to it from the surface. While segmentation becomes less obvious, increased co-ordination is effected both of movement and sensation.

OR PRIMARY DIVISIONS OF THE SPINAL NERVES.

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outwards, is dis-
ted to structures
the lateral and
erior aspects of the
y,—including the
bs.

Each nerve is joined
ar its origin by a
ay ramus communi-
ns from the sym-
athetic gangliated
ord; and in the case
f certain thoracic,
umbar, and sacral
nerves, the anterior
primary division gives
off a delicate bundle
of fibres, which forms
the **white ramus com-**
municans of the sym-
pathetic cord. That
part of the spinal nerve
which is distributed to
the body wall and limbs
may be termed **somatic**;
the small white ramus
communicans, in-
nervating the struc-
tures in the splanchnic
area, may be termed the
visceral or **splanchnic**
part of the spinal nerve.

The anterior prim-
ary divisions of the
pinal nerves are only,

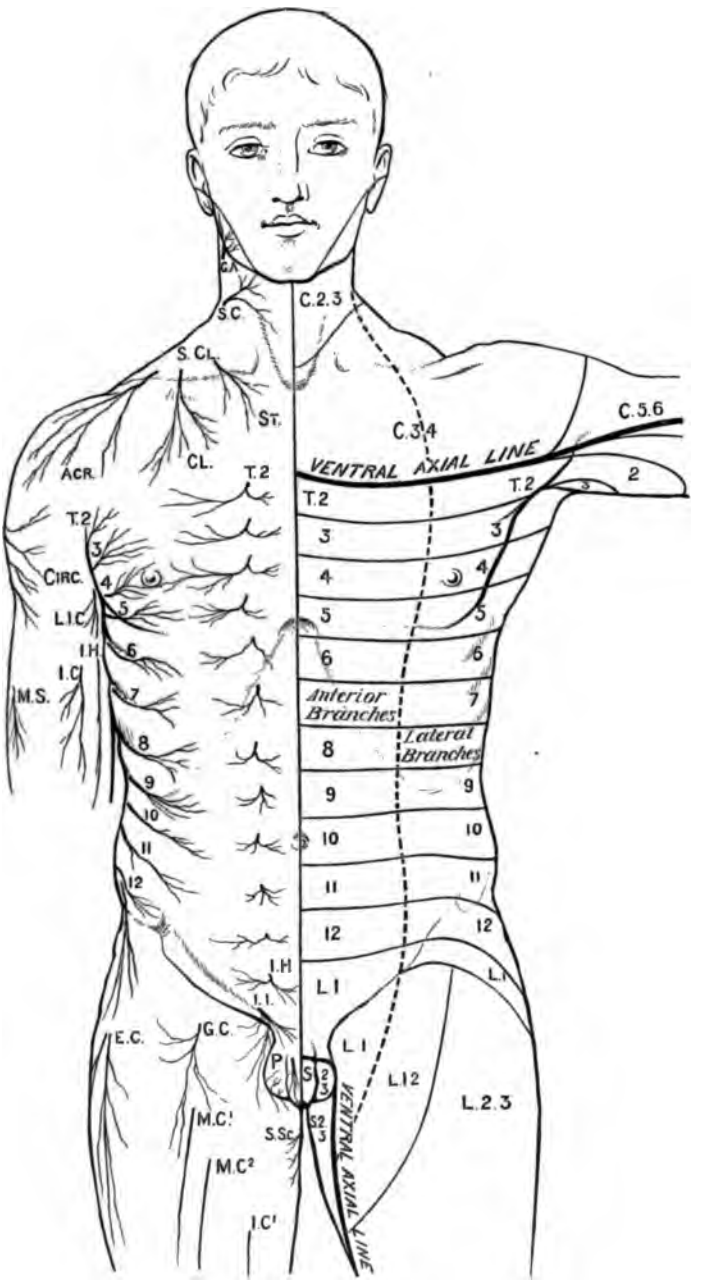

FIG. 489.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES ON THE FRO
THE TRUNK.

On one side the distribution of the several nerves is represented, th
indicating their nomenclature.

G.A. Great auricular nerve; S.C, Superficial cervical nerve; S.Cl
clavicular nerves; ACR, Acromial; Cl, Clavicular; ST, Sterna
Lateral and anterior branches of thoracic nerves; I.H, Ilio-hypogastric nerve; I.I. Ilio-inguinal ne
Cutaneous branch of circumflex nerve; L.I.C, Lesser internal cutaneous nerve; I.H, Intercosto-hu
Internal cutaneous; M.S, Cutaneous branch of musculo-spiral nerve; E.C, External cutaneous ne
Genito-crural nerve; M.C¹ ², Middle cutaneous nerves; I.C¹, Branch of internal cutaneous nerve; I
of pudic nerve; S.Sc, Branches of small sciatic nerve.

the other side a schematic representation is given of the areas supplied by the above nerves, tl
indicating the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area.

in certain cases, distributed in a regular segmental manner. Except in the case of the thoracic nerves, the anterior primary divisions combine to form the three great **plexuses**—cervical, brachial, and lumbo-sacral—and their arrangement and distribution is rendered exceedingly complex.

A **thoracic nerve**, such as the fifth or sixth, may be regarded as a type. To illustrate the mode of distribution of the anterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves (Fig. 486, p. 609). It occupies an intercostal space; near its origin it possesses *gray* and *white rami communicantes*; it courses through the interval between the intercostal muscles, it supplies branches to these muscles and gives off, when it reaches the side of the chest, a *lateral branch*, which, after supplying small muscular branches, pierces the external intercostal muscle and is distributed to an area of skin over the lateral part of the trunk, contiguous dorsally with a similar area, innervated by the cutaneous branches of the posterior primary division of the same nerve. The lateral branch generally subdivides into a smaller *posterior* and a larger *anterior trunk*, as it pierces the muscles clothing the wall of the chest. The anterior primary division of the nerve then pursues its course obliquely forwards to the side of the sternum, where after piercing the pectoral muscles, appears superficially as the *anterior terminal cutaneous branch*. This supplies an area of skin continuous with that supplied by the anterior part of the lateral branch of the same nerve. Such a nerve thus supplies by means of its lateral and anterior

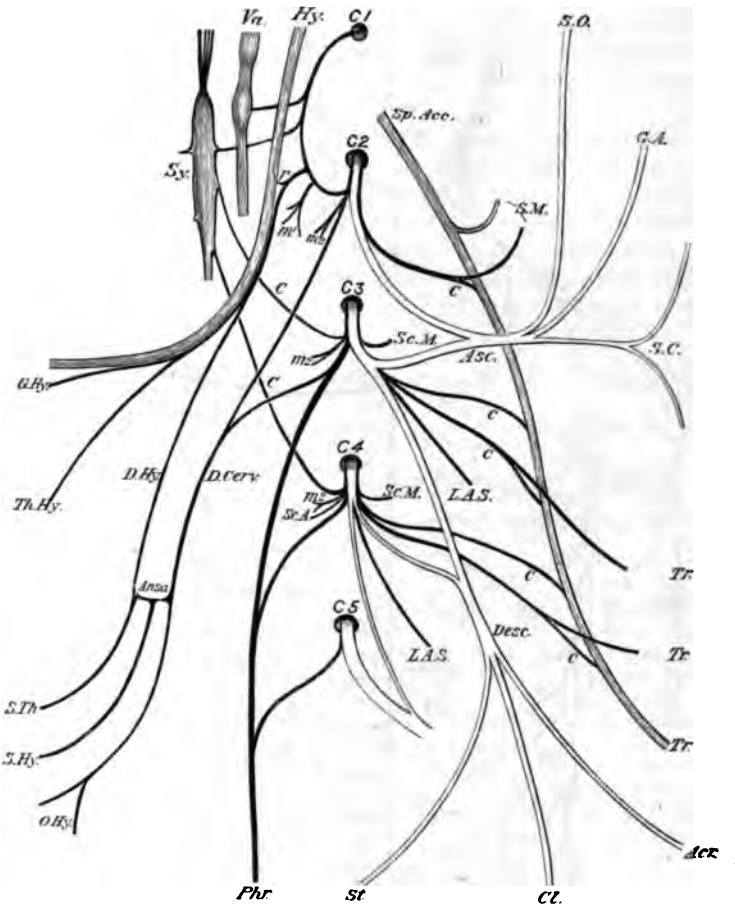

FIG. 490.—THE CERVICAL PLEXUS.

Superficial Division.

Ascending branches (Asc.)—
- S.O. Small occipital.
- G.A. Great auricular.
- S.C. Superficial cervical.

Descending (supra-clavicular) branches (Desc.)—
- Acr. Acromial.
- Cl. Clavicular.
- St. Sternal.

Deep Division.

External branches—
Communicating (C.) to spinal accessory nerve (Sp. Acc.).
Muscular—
- S.M. Sterno-mastoid.
- Tr. Trapezius.
- L.A.S. Levator anguli scapulæ.
- Sc.M. Scalenus medius.

Internal branches—
Communicating to
- Hy. Hypoglossal.
- Va. Vagus.
- Sy. Sympathetic ganglion.
- D.Cerv. Descendens cervicis.

Muscular—
- M^1. Rectus capitis anticus minor, and lateralis.
- M^2. Longus colli, and rectus capitis anticus major.
- Sc.A. Scalenus anticus.
- Phr. Phrenic nerve.
- G.Hy. Nerve to genio-hyoid.
- Th.Hy. Nerve to thyro-hyoid.
- D.Hy. Descendens hypoglossi.
- Ansa. Ansa hypoglossi.
- S.Th. Nerve to sterno-thyroid.
- S.Hy. Nerve to sterno-hyoid.
- O.Hy. Nerves to omo-hyoid.

ın area of skin which (with the area supplied by the cutaneous branch terior primary division) forms a continuous and uninterrupted belt, from the middle line behind to the middle line in front. The lateral ɔr branches of the nerve innervate in their course the intercostal and other ı be afterwards mentioned in detail.

CERVICAL NERVES.

terior primary divisions of the cervical nerves, together with parts of the second thoracic nerves, are distributed to the head, neck, and upper

The first four cervical nerves, by means of the **cervical plexus**, innervate the last four cervical nerves, together with a large part of the first erve, through the **brachial plexus**, supply the upper limb. The second erve may contribute a trunk to this plexus, and always assists in the n of the arm.

THE CERVICAL PLEXUS.

terior primary divisions of the first four cervical nerves are concerned ; the cervical plexus. Each nerve emerges from the spinal canal behind ɔral artery. Each is joined on its emergence from the intervertebral t the side of the vertebral column, by a **gray ramus communicans** from the ɛrvical ganglion of the sympathetic. In the neck the cervical nerves are by the sterno-mastoid muscle; in front lies the rectus capitis anticus . behind are the scalenus medius, and (behind the first or sub-occipital rectus capitis lateralis. The cervical plexus is constituted by the com- f these nerves in an irregular series of loops under cover of the sterno- uscle.

hese loops the branches of distribution arise, as (*a*) **cutaneous branches** to ıeck, and shoulder; (*b*) **muscular branches** to the muscles of the neck and ragm; and (*c*) **communicating branches** to the vagus, spinal accessory, l, and sympathetic nerves.

nvenience of description, the nerves derived from the plexus may be s follows:—

I. Superficial (cutaneous) Branches—

ng Branches (C. 2, 3).
occipital,
auricular,
icial cervical.

B. **Descending (supra-clavicular) Branches** (C. 3, 4).
Acromial,
Clavicular,
Sternal.

II. Deep (muscular and communicating) Branches—

l Branches.
lar branches to
no-mastoid (C. 2),
ɔezius (C. 3, 4),
ıtor anguli scapulæ (C. 3, 4),
eni (medius and posticus) (C. 3, 4).
unicating branches to
ıal accessory nerve (C. 2, 3, 4).

B. **Internal Branches.**
1. Muscular to
Prevertebral muscles (C. 1, 2, 3, 4).
Infra-hyoid muscles (C. 1, 2, 3) (ansa hypoglossi),
Diaphragm (C. 3, 4) (phrenic nerve).
2. Communicating branches to
Vagus nerve (C. 1, 2),
Hypoglossal nerve (C. 1, 2),
C. Hypoglossi (C. 2, 3),
Sympathetic (C. 1, 2, 3, 4).

ɔond, third, and fourth cervical nerves are the chief nerves engaged in ıe plexus. The first cervical nerve only enters into the formation of a —the internal portion of the deep part of the plexus.

ıcial Cutaneous Branches.—These nerves, six in number, are entirely They radiate from the plexus, and appear in the posterior triangle of

the neck at the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid muscle. They are di into two series, the one **ascending**: small occipital, great auricular, and sup cervical; the other **descending** (supra-clavicular): sternal, clavicular, and acr

Ascending Branches.—The **small occipital nerve** (n. occipitalis minor) is v in size and is sometimes double. Its origin is from the second and third c nerves (more rarely from the second only). It extends backwards benea sterno-mastoid, and then upwards along its posterior border. Piercing the fascia near the apex of the posterior triangle, it divides into **auricular, mastoi occipital branches**, and supplies **cervical branches** to the upp of the neck. The auricular supplies the skin of the deep s of the pinna; the mastoid and oc branches supply the scalp. The communicates on the scalp wit great occipital and great au nerves, and with the posterior au branch of the facial nerve.

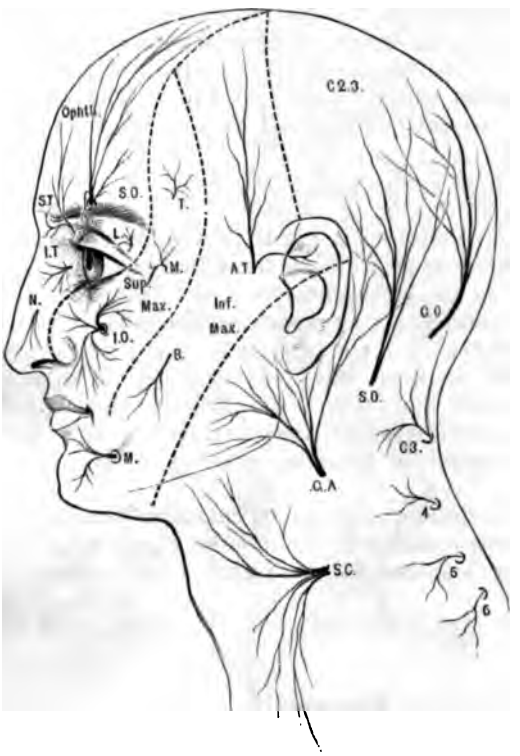

FIG. 491.—DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES TO THE HEAD AND NECK.

Ophth. Ophthalmic division of the fifth nerve; S.T, Supra-trochlear branch; S.O, Supra-orbital branch; I.T, Infra-trochlear branch; L, Lachrymal branch; N, External nasal branch; Sup. Max, Superior maxillary division; T, Temporal branch; M, Malar branch; I.O, Infra-orbital branch; Inf. Max, Inferior maxillary division; A.T, Auriculo-temporal branch; B, Buccal branch; M, Mental branch; C.2, 3, Branches of the second and third cervical nerves; G.O, Great occipital nerve; S.O, Small occipital nerve; G.A, Great auricular nerve; S.C, Superficial cervical nerve; C.3, Least occipital nerve; 4, 5, 6, Posterior primary divisions of 4th, 5th, and 6th cervical nerves.

The **great auricular nerve** (n cularis magnus) is the largest cutaneous branches. It arises the second and third cervical (or, more rarely, from the third Winding round the posterior of the sterno-mastoid muscle, it c vertically upwards towards th In this course it crosses the s mastoid muscle obliquely a covered by the platysma m Before arriving at the ear it subd into mastoid, auricular, and branches. The **mastoid branches** over the mastoid process and the skin of the scalp behind th communicating with the sma cipital and posterior auricular The **auricular branches** ascend ear and supply the lower part pinna on both aspects; they municate with the same nerves. **facial branches**, passing over the of the jaw and through the sub of the parotid gland, supply th of the cheek over the lower p the masseter muscle and the p gland. They communicate branches of the facial nerve parotid gland.

The **superficial cervical ner** cutaneus colli) arises from the second and third cervical nerves. It winds the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid muscle, and crosses the muscle to the anterior triangle, under cover of the platysma myoides muscle and the ex jugular vein. It divides near the anterior edge of the sterno-mastoid musc upper and lower branches, which are distributed through the platysma myoi the skin covering the anterior triangle of the neck. The upper branches municate freely beneath the platysma myoides with the infra-mandibular bra the facial nerve.

Descending (supra-clavicular) Branches.—By the union of two roots d from the third and fourth cervical nerves a considerable trunk is formed,

rges from under cover of the sterno-mastoid muscle and extends obliquely **nwards through** the lower part of the posterior triangle of the neck. It sub-**ides into radiating** branches—**sternal, clavicular,** and **acromial**—which pierce the **p fascia** of the neck above the clavicle, and are distributed to the skin of the **r part** of the side of the neck, the front of the chest, and the shoulder. The **nal branches** (rami supra-sternales) are the smallest. Passing over the inner **d** of the clavicle, they supply the skin of the neck and chest as far down as **manubrio-sternal** joint. The **clavicular branches** (rr. supra-claviculares) pass **r the** middle third of the clavicle, beneath the platysma, and can be traced

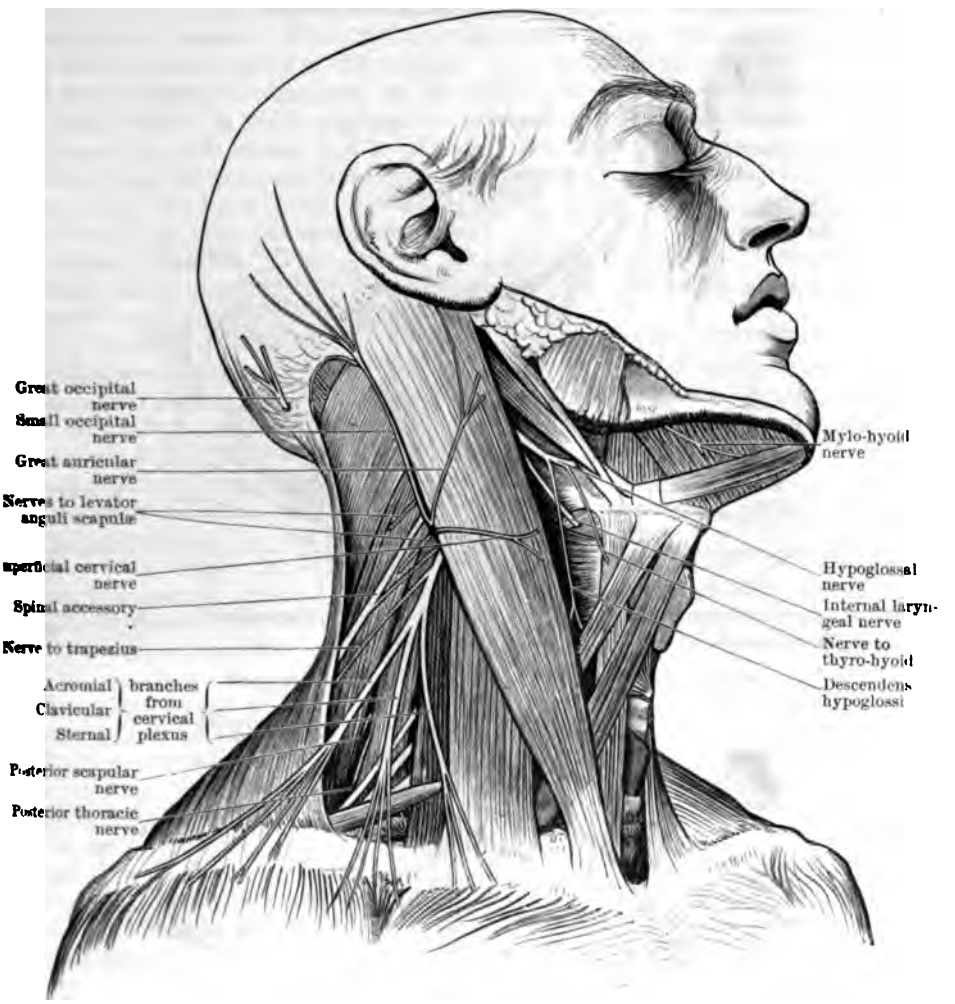

FIG. 492.—THE TRIANGLES OF THE NECK (Nerves).

s low as the nipple. The **acromial branches** (rr. supra-acromiales) pass over or hrough the insertion of the trapezius muscle, and over the outer third of the lavicle, to the shoulder, where they supply the skin as far down as the lower third f the deltoid muscle.

Deep Branches.—The deep branches of the cervical plexus are naturally eparated into an **external** and an **internal set** by their relation to the sterno-mastoid uscle. Beneath the muscle, the external branches are directed outwards towards he posterior triangle, the internal branches inwards towards the anterior triangle.

The **external branches** consist of muscular and communicating nerves, which or the most part occupy the posterior triangle.

The **muscular branches** are the following: (1) To the *sterno-mastoid*, from the econd cervical nerve. This enters the muscle on its deep surface and communicates

with the spinal accessory nerve. (2) To the *trapezius*, from the third and cervical nerves. These nerves cross the posterior triangle and end in the tr after having communicated with the spinal accessory nerve, in the posterior t and beneath the muscle. (3) To the *levator anguli scapulæ*, from the thi fourth cervical nerves. Two independent branches enter the outer surface muscle in the posterior triangle. (4) To the *scaleni* (medius and posticus the third and fourth cervical nerves.

The **communicating branches**, already mentioned, are three in number.

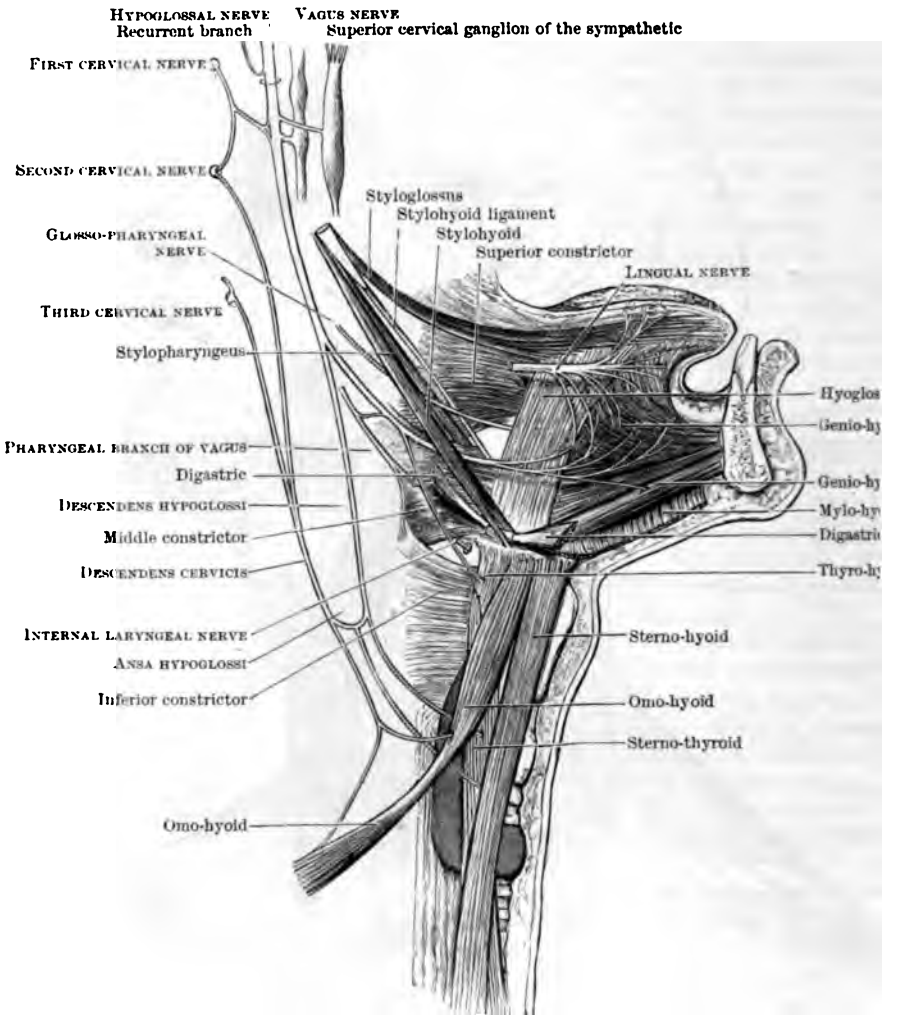

Fig. 493.—The Muscles of the Hyoid Bone and Styloid Process, and the Extrinsic Mu the Tongue, with their Nerves.

join the spinal accessory nerve in three situations:—(*a*) A branch from the cervical nerve to the sterno-mastoid joins the spinal accessory nerve *benea muscle*. (*b*) Branches to the trapezius from the third and fourth nerves a nected with the spinal accessory nerve *in the posterior triangle*. (*c*) Branch the same nerves join the spinal accessory nerve *beneath the trapezius muscle*.

The **internal branches** of the plexus also comprise muscular and con cating branches. The first cervical nerve assists in the formation of this s nerves, forming a slender loop with part of the second nerve in front of the verse process of the atlas.

Communicating Branches. (*a*) *With the sympathetic*.—Gray rami con cantes pass to each of the first four cervical nerves, near their origins, fr

erior cervical ganglion or from the cord below the ganglion. (*b*) *With the umogastric nerve.*—The ganglion of the trunk of the pneumogastric nerve may onnected by a slender nerve with the loop between the first two cervical nerves. s communication is not constant. (*c*) *With the hypoglossal.*—An important munication occurs between the hypoglossal nerve and the loop between the first second cervical nerves (Fig. 493). A trunk from the last-named nerves joins the oglossal just beyond its exit from the skull. One fine branch from this trunk es upwards along the hypoglossal nerve towards the skull (*meningeal branch*). main part of the trunk accompanies the hypoglossal and separates from it succesly in three nerves—the **descendens hypoglossi**, and the **nerves to the thyro-hyoid** l **genio-hyoid muscles**. The portion of the nerve which remains accompanies the oglossal to the muscles of the tongue. It is probable that no part of the hypossal nerve itself is concerned in the formation of these three branches. The cending branch of the hypoglossal (r. descendens hypoglossi) descends in front of common carotid artery, and is joined in the anterior triangle of the neck by descending cervical nerve, to form the ansa hypoglossi, from which the infraoid muscles are innervated. (The descending branch of the hypoglossal, in some es, arises from the pneumogastric nerve.)

Muscular Branches.—The muscles supplied by the internal branches of the xus are the prevertebral muscles, the genio-hyoid and infra-hyoid muscles, and e diaphragm.

(*a*) **Prevertebral Muscles.**—1. From the loop between the first and second rvical nerves a small branch arises, for the supply of the rectus capitis lateralis d the recti capitis antici (major and minor). 2. From the second, third, and urth nerves small branches supply the inter-transversales, longus colli, and rectus pitis anticus major. 3. From the fourth nerve a branch arises for the upper part the scalenus anticus.

(*b*) **Genio-hyoid and Infra-hyoid Muscles.**—The **descending cervical nerve** (n. rvicalis descendens) is formed in front of the internal jugular vein by the union two slender trunks from the second and third cervical nerves. It forms a loop communication in front of the carotid sheath with the descending branch of the ypoglossal nerve (derived ultimately from the first two cervical nerves). This op of communication is called the **ansa hypoglossi**. It is often plexiform; and om it branches are given to the sterno-hyoid, sterno-thyroid, and omo-hyoid uscles. The nerve to the sterno-hyoid muscle is often continued behind the ternum, to join in the thorax with the phrenic nerve or the cardiac plexus.

The thyro-hyoid muscle and the genio-hyoid muscle are supplied by branches of he hypoglossal nerve, which are also traceable back to the communication between he hypoglossal and the first two cervical nerves.

The anterior muscles in immediate relation to the middle line of the neck, etween the chin and the sternum, are thus continuously supplied by the first hree cervical nerves. The hypoglossal is the nerve of the muscles of the tongue, nd it is not certain that it contributes any fibres to the above-named muscles.

(*c*) **Diaphragm.**—The phrenic nerve supplies the diaphragm.

Phrenic Nerve.

The **phrenic nerve** (n. phrenicus) is derived mainly from the fourth cervical erve, reinforced by roots from the third (either directly or through the nerve to e sterno-hyoid) and fifth (either directly or through the nerve to the subclavius uscle). It passes downwards in the neck upon the scalenus anticus muscle; at e root of the neck it enters the thorax between the subclavian artery and vein, nd traverses the mediastinum to reach the diaphragm, lying in the middle ediastinum between the pericardium and pleura, and in front of the root of the ng. In its course it presents certain differences on the two sides. In the neck, n the left side, it crosses the first part of the subclavian artery; on the right side crosses the second part. In the superior mediastinum, *on the left side*, it lies etween the left subclavian and carotid arteries, and crosses the pneumogastric erve and the aortic arch. *On the right side* it accompanies the innominate vein

and superior vena cava, and is entirely separate from the pneumogastric ne
The left nerve is longer than the right, owing to the position of the heart and
left half of the diaphragm. The right nerve sends fibres along the inferior v
cava through the foramen quadratum. Reaching the diaphragm the nerve sepa
into numerous branches for the supply of the muscle; some enter its thor
surface (sub-pleural branches), but most of the fibres supply it after piercing
muscle (sub-peritoneal branches).

The **branches of the phrenic nerve** are—1. Muscular (to the diaphragm);
pleural; 3. pericardiac; 4. inferior vena caval; 5. capsular; and 6. hepatic.

The branches to the pleura and pericardium arise as the phrenic ner
traverses the mediastinum. The branches to the inferior vena cava, suprare
capsule, and liver arise after communication of the phrenic nerve with t
diaphragmatic plexus of the sympathetic on the abdominal surface of th
diaphragm.

Communications of the Phrenic Nerve.—1. The phrenic nerve may communica
with the nerve to the subclavius muscle. 2. It may communicate with the *
hypoglossi, or a branch from it (the nerve to the sterno-hyoid). 3. It frequently co
municates with the cervical part of the sympathetic. 4. It communicates with th
solar plexus by a junction upon the abdominal surface of the diaphragm with th
diaphragmatic plexus on the inferior phrenic artery, in which a small *diaphragmat
ganglion* is found on the right side. From this junction branches are given off to th
inferior vena cava, suprarenal capsule, and hepatic plexus.

Morphology of the Cervical Plexus.

The characteristic feature of the cervical plexus is the combination of parts of adjacent nerv
into compound nerve-trunks by the formation of series of loops. The result of the formation o
these loops is that parts (particularly cutaneous areas) are supplied by branches of more than on
spinal nerve.

A. **Cutaneous Distribution.**—By the combinations of the nerves into loops the discrimination
of the elements in the upper cervical nerves, corresponding to the lateral and anterior branches
of a typical thoracic nerve, is made a matter of some difficulty. The second, third, and
fourth nerves, through the cervical plexus, supply an area of skin extending, laterally, from the
side of the head to the shoulder; anteriorly, from the face to the level of the nipple. The higher
nerves supply the upper region (second and third); the lower nerves supply the lower region
(third and fourth). It is not possible to strictly compare the individual nerves with the lateral
and anterior branches of a thoracic nerve. A line drawn from the ear to the middle of the
clavicle separates, however, a lateral from an anterior cutaneous area; and certain of the
cutaneous nerves fall naturally into one of these two categories. The nerves homologous with
anterior branches of intercostal nerves are the superficial cervical and the sternal branches of
the supra-clavicular series; those homologous with lateral branches are the small occipital and
acromial branches. The great auricular and clavicular branches are mixed nerves, comprising
elements belonging to both sets.

B. **Muscular Distribution.**—The nerves from the cervical plexus, supplying muscles, are
simpler in their arrangement. They are not generally in the form of loops, and they are easily
separated into lateral and anterior series. The lateral nerves comprise the branches to the
rectus capitis lateralis, sterno-mastoid, trapezius, levator anguli scapulæ. The nerves in the
anterior series are those to the recti antici, the hyoid muscles, and the diaphragm.

It is noteworthy that the last-named muscles—genio-hyoid, thyro-hyoid, sterno-hyoid, omo-
hyoid, sterno-thyroid, and diaphragm—are continuously supplied by branches from the first five
cervical nerves: the higher muscles by the higher nerves; the lower muscles by the lower nerves.

THE BRACHIAL PLEXUS.

The brachial plexus is formed by the anterior primary divisions of the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical nerves, along with the greater part of the first thoracic nerve. In some cases a slender branch of the fourth cervical nerve is also engaged; and the second thoracic nerve, in all cases, also contributes to the innervation of the arm, through the intercosto-humeral nerve. It many cases it contributes also directly to the plexus, by an intra-thoracic communication with the first thoracic nerve.

Position of the Plexus—The nerves forming the brachial plexus appear in the posterior triangle of the neck between the scalenus anticus aud scalenus

s muscles; the plexus is formed in close relation to the subclavian and **y arteries**; the nerves emanating from it accompany the artery to the axilla, **they are distributed** to the shoulder and upper limb.

mmunication with the Sympathetic.—The lower four cervical nerves communicate **he cervical** portion of the sympathetic by means of **gray rami communicantes.** **ranches** arise from the middle cervical ganglion, and join the anterior primary **ns of the fifth and sixth nerves.** Two arising from the inferior cervical ganglion **he seventh and eighth nerves.** They reach the nerves either by piercing the **tebral muscles** or by passing round the border of the scalenus anticus muscle.

mposition of the Brachial Plexus.—In an analysis of the brachial plexus **tages** may be always seen:—

) The undivided nerves.

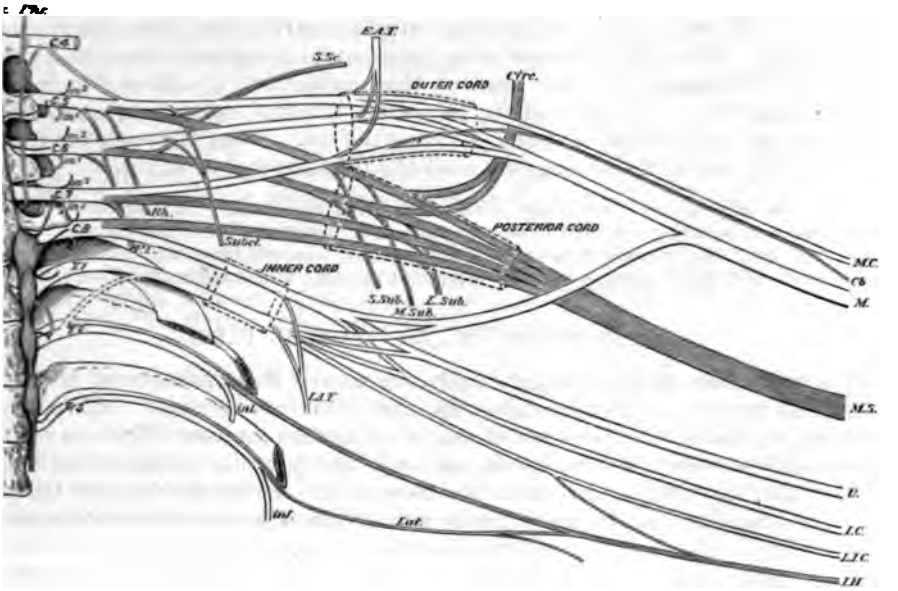

FIG. 494.—THE NERVES OF THE BRACHIAL PLEXUS.

npathetic gangliated cord; Phr, Phrenic nerve; C.4, 5, 6, 7, 8, T.1, 2, 3, Anterior primary divisions of the **lower cervical and upper thoracic nerves**; M^1, M^2, Muscular branches to axial muscles; P.T, Long **thoracic nerve**; Rh, Nerve to rhomboids (posterior scapular); Subcl, Nerve to subclavius muscle; Int, Intercostal nerves; S.Sc, Supra-scapular nerve. The intercostal part of the first thoracic nerve is omitted.

Cord.—E.A.T, External anterior thoracic nerve; M.C, Musculo-cutaneous nerve; Cb, Nerve to coraco-brachialis; M, Median nerve.

Cord.—I.A.T, Internal anterior thoracic nerve; U, Ulnar nerve; I.C, Internal cutaneous nerve; L.I.C, Lesser internal cutaneous nerve.

or Cord.—Circ, Circumflex nerve; M.S, Musculo-spiral nerve; S.Sub, Short subscapular nerve; M.Sub, Lower subscapular nerve; L.Sub, Long subscapular, nerve; I.H, Intercosto-humeral nerve; Lat, Lateral branch of third intercostal nerve.

) The separation of the nerves into ventral (anterior) and dorsal (posterior) trunks; and the formation of three primary cords.

) The formation of three secondary cords—outer, inner, and posterior.

) The origin of the nerves of distribution.

) The undivided nerves have only a very short independent course at the side e neck, after passing between the scalene muscles.

) Almost immediately after entering the posterior triangle there are formed **primary cords**: the first cord is formed by the union of the fifth and sixth es together; the second, by the seventh nerve alone; and the third, by the n of the eighth cervical and first thoracic nerves together. While these cords eing formed, a division occurs in each of the last four cervical nerves, into *al* (anterior) and *dorsal* (posterior) *trunks*; the first thoracic nerve usually rise to no dorsal trunk. The ventral and dorsal trunks of the fifth, sixth,

and seventh nerves are nearly equal in size. The **dorsal trunk of the eig** cervical nerve is much smaller.

(3) The **secondary cords** of the plexus are formed by combinations of t ventral and dorsal trunks in relation to the axillary artery. They are thre number. The **outer cord** (fasciculus lateralis) is formed by a combination of ventral trunks of the fifth, sixth, and seventh nerves, and lies on the outer sid the axillary artery. The **inner cord** (fasciculus medialis) is formed by a combina of the ventral trunk of the eighth cervical with the part of the first thor nerve engaged in the formation of the plexus; it lies on the inner side of axillary artery. The **posterior cord** (fasciculus posterior) is made up of all dorsal trunks from the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical nerves, and behind the axillary artery. The first thoracic nerve does not usually contribute the posterior cord, and the branch when present is a fine nerve.

(4) The **nerves of distribution** for the shoulder and arm are derived from th secondary cords, and receive in this way various contributions from the constitu spinal nerves. *From the outer cord* arise the external anterior thoracic and muscu cutaneous nerves, and the outer head of the median nerve. *From the inner co* arise the inner head of the median, the ulnar, internal cutaneous, lesser inter cutaneous, and the internal anterior thoracic nerves. *From the posterior cord* ar the circumflex, the three subscapular, and the musculo-spiral nerves.

It is to be remembered that, although derived from a secondary cord formed by a cert set of spinal nerves, any given nerve does not necessarily contain fibres from all the constitu nerves; *e.g.* both the musculo-cutaneous and circumflex nerves, from the outer and poster cords respectively, are ultimately derived only from the fifth and sixth cervical nerves.

The Branches of the Brachial Plexus.

It is customary to separate artificially the nerves of distribution of the brachi plexus into two sets: (1) supra-clavicular and (2) infra-clavicular. Clinically it i important to realise the position of origin of certain nerves. The nerves to th prevertebral muscles, the communication with the phrenic, the posterior scapul and long thoracic nerves, arise from the *roots* of the nerves involved in the plexu The supra-scapular and the nerve to the subclavius arise at the level of formation the secondary cords; and the anterior thoracic and subscapular nerves arise from th secondary cords, prior to their ultimate subdivision into the nerves of distributio for the upper limb.

Supra-clavicular Nerves.—The nerves derived from the plexus above the level of the clavicle are, like the main trunks, divisible into two series; **anterior branches** arising from the front, and **posterior branches** arising from the back of the plexus (Fig. 494, p. 623).

Anterior Branches.	Posterior Branches.
1. Nerves to scalenus anticus and longus colli.	1. Nerves to scaleni, medius and posticus.
2. Communicating nerve to join the phrenic nerve.	2. Posterior scapular nerve.
3. Nerve to the subclavius muscle.	3. Long thoracic nerve.
	4. Supra-scapular nerve.

The **muscular twigs** to the scalenus anticus and longus colli arise from the lower four cervical nerves, as they emerge from the intervertebral foramina.

The **communicating nerve to the phrenic** arises usually from the fifth cervical nerve at the outer border of the scalenus anticus. It is sometimes absent, and occasionally an additional root is present from the sixth cervical nerve. In some instances the nerve is replaced by a branch from the nerve to the subclavius, which passes inwards behind the sterno-mastoid muscle to join the phrenic at the inlet of the thorax.

The **nerve to the subclavius** is a slender nerve, which arises from the front of the cord formed by the fifth and sixth cervical nerves. It descends in the posterior triangle of the neck over the third part of the subclavian artery. It often communicates with the phrenic nerve.

branches to the scaleni, medius and posticus, are small trunks which arise
e lower four cervical nerves as they emerge from the intervertebral foramina.

posterior scapular nerve (n. dorsalis scapulæ, nerve to the rhomboids)
om the back of the fifth cervical nerve, as it emerges from the intervertebral
. It appears in the posterior triangle of the neck, after piercing the
medius muscle. It is directed downwards, under cover of the levator
scapulæ and rhomboid muscles, and along the vertebral border of the
, to be distributed to the levator anguli scapulæ, rhomboideus minor, and
ideus major muscles. It occasionally pierces the levator anguli scapulæ.

long thoracic nerve (n. thoracalis longus, external respiratory nerve of
ises by three roots, of which the middle one is usually the largest, from the
the fifth, sixth, and seventh nerves, as they
from the intervertebral foramina. The nerve
the scalenus medius as two trunks, of which
er represents the contribution from the seventh
nerve, and, descending along the side of the
ehind the cords of the brachial plexus, it
the axilla between the upper edge of the
magnus and the axillary artery. It con-
its downward course over the outer surface
serratus magnus, to which it is distributed.

is a more or less definite relation between the roots
erve and the parts of the serratus magnus. The first
he muscle is innervated by the fifth nerve alone;
d part by the fifth and sixth, or the sixth alone;
l part by the sixth and seventh, or the seventh
ne.

suprascapular nerve (n. suprascapularis)
rom the back of the cord formed by the
d sixth cervical nerves in the posterior
of the neck. It occupies a position above
n cords of the brachial plexus, and courses
rds and outwards parallel to them towards
erior border of the scapula. It passes through
rascapular foramen to reach the dorsum of
pula. After supplying the supraspinatus
it winds round the great scapular notch in
y with the suprascapular artery and terminates
fraspinatus muscle. It also supplies articular
s to the back of the shoulder joint.

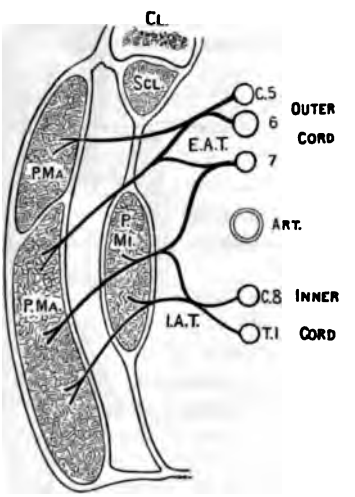

Fig. 495.—Diagram of the origin and Distribution of the Nerves to the Pectoral Muscles.

E.A.T. External anterior thoracic nerve; I.A.T. Internal anterior thoracic nerve; C.5, 6, 7, C.8, T.1, Nerves of the brachial plexus; Art, Axillary artery; Cl, Clavicle; Scl, Subclavius muscle; P.Mi, Pectoralis minor, joined to subclavius by costo-coracoid membrane; P.Ma. Pectoralis major.

a-clavicular Nerves.—The so-called infra-clavicular branches of the
l plexus are distributed to the chest, shoulder, and arm. According to
igin they are divisible into two sets—an **anterior set**, derived from the
d inner cords, and a **posterior set**, derived from the posterior cord. In
istribution the same division is maintained. The anterior nerves of
tion, springing from the outer and inner cords, supply generally the chest
front of the limb; the posterior nerves, springing from the posterior cord,
the shoulder and the back of the limb.

Anterior Branches.

Nerves from the Outer Cord.

l anterior thoracic. Outer head of median. Musculo-cutaneous.

Nerves from the Inner Cord.

anterior thoracic. Ulnar. Inner head of median.
Internal cutaneous. Lesser internal cutaneous.

Posterior Branches.

Nerves from the Posterior Cord.

Circumflex. Musculo-spiral. Three subscapular nerves.

Anterior Thoracic Nerves.

The **anterior thoracic nerves** (nn. thoracicales anteriores) are two in external and internal. The **external anterior thoracic nerve** arises from th

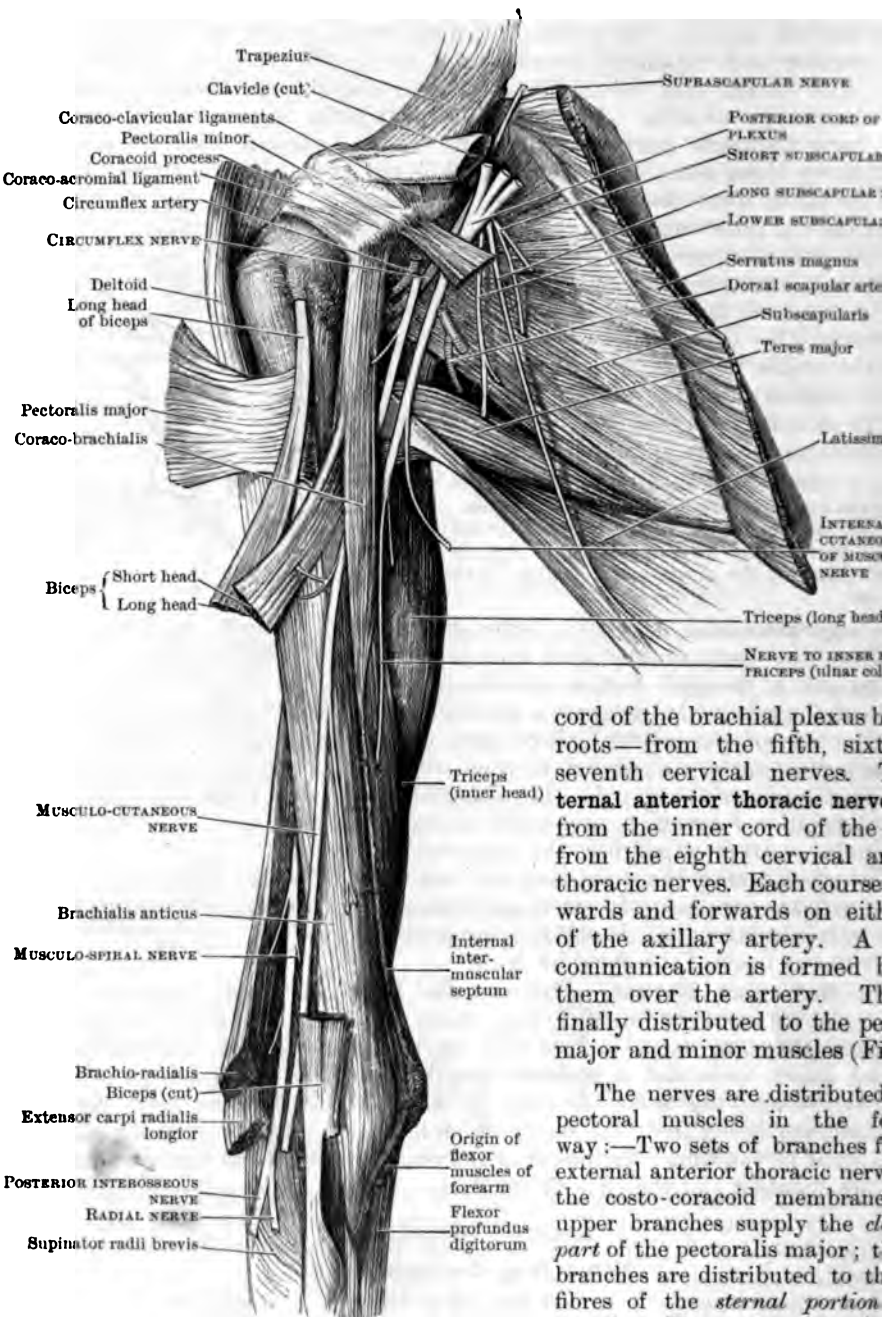

Fig. 496.—The Posterior Wall of the Axilla and the Front of the Arm (the biceps being divided).

cord of the brachial plexus b
roots—from the fifth, sixt
seventh cervical nerves.
ternal anterior thoracic nerv
from the inner cord of the
from the eighth cervical a
thoracic nerves. Each course
wards and forwards on eit
of the axillary artery. A
communication is formed
them over the artery. T
finally distributed to the pe
major and minor muscles (Fi

The nerves are distributed
pectoral muscles in the f
way:—Two sets of branches f
external anterior thoracic nerv
the costo-coracoid membran
upper branches supply the *cl*
part of the pectoralis major; t
branches are distributed to th
fibres of the *sternal portion*
muscle. The upper branche
from the fifth and sixth cervical
the lower branches, from th
sixth, and seventh nerves. The *pectoralis minor* is pierced by two sets of nerv
upper set is derived from the loop of communication between the external and
anterior thoracic nerves over the axillary artery; the lower set is derived fr
internal anterior thoracic nerve alone. These nerves supply the *pectoralis minor*
and, after piercing it, supply the *sternal part* of the pectoralis major. The lower

cases, sends its branches to the pectoralis major round the lower border of the ralis minor, and it may supply on its way the *axillary arches*, if present. These two hes are derived—the upper from the seventh, eighth cervical, and first thoracic s; the lower from the eighth cervical and first thoracic nerves. The pectoral es are thus both supplied by the two anterior thoracic nerves. The clavicular fibres of ectoralis major are innervated by the fifth and sixth nerves; the sternal fibres, from downwards, by the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical, and first thoracic s: and the pectoralis minor is supplied by the seventh and eighth cervical, and horacic nerves.

Musculo-Cutaneous Nerve.

he **musculo-cutaneous nerve** (n. musculo-cutaneus) takes origin from the cord of the plexus, from the fifth and sixth cervical nerves (Fig. 496). The **to the coraco-brachialis muscle**, arising from the seventh or sixth and seventh s, is usually associated with it. Separating from the outer head of the an nerve, the musculo-cutaneous nerve lies at first between the coraco-ialis muscle and the axillary artery. It is then directed downwards between wo parts of the coraco-brachialis, and passes between the biceps and brachialis us muscles, to the bend of the elbow. In its course it may send a branch r the biceps to join the median nerve. It pierces the deep fascia over the of the elbow, between the biceps and brachio-radialis, and terminates in neous branches for the supply of the outer side of the forearm.

'he branches of the nerve are muscular and cutaneous. The **muscular branches** upplied to the two heads of the biceps and the brachialis anticus, as the nerve etween the muscles. The nerve to the coraco-brachialis (usually incorporated the trunk of the musculo-cutaneous nerve) has an independent origin from eventh or sixth and seventh nerves. It is usually double, one branch entering portion of the muscle. The **cutaneous branches** are anterior and posterior . 497, p. 628). The **anterior branch** descends along the front of the outer side ie forearm to the wrist, and supplies an area extending inwards to the middle of the forearm anteriorly, and downwards so as to include the ball of the nb. It communicates above the wrist with the radial nerve, and supplies ches to the radial artery. The **posterior** branch passes backwards and nwards over the extensor muscles and supplies the skin on the outer aspect he forearm posteriorly in its upper three-fourths, communicating with the neous branches of the musculo-spiral nerve.

n addition to the above branches, the musculo-cutaneous nerve supplies in many the following small twigs in the arm: (1) a medullary branch to the humerus; (2) riosteal branch to the lower end of the humerus on its anterior surface; and (3) a ch to the brachial artery.

Median Nerve.

The **median nerve** (n. medianus) arises by two roots—one from the outer l, the other from the inner cord of the brachial plexus. The outer head, from (fifth), sixth, and seventh nerves, descends along the outer side of the axillary ry; the inner head, from the eighth cervical and first thoracic nerves, crosses end of the axillary artery or the beginning of the brachial artery, to join the other l in the upper part of the arm. Descending along the outer side of the brachial ry, the nerve crosses over it obliquely in the lower half of the arm. In the ow of the elbow, it lies internal to the brachial artery, beneath the bicipital ia and the median basilic vein. It passes into the forearm between the two ds of the pronator radii teres muscle, separated from the ulnar artery by the p origin of that muscle. Extending down the middle of the forearm, between superficial and deep muscles to the wrist, it enters the palm of the hand on the r side of the flexor tendons of the fingers beneath the anterior annular ment. In the hand it spreads out at the lower border of the annular ligament ath the palmar fascia and superficial palmar arch, and separates into its six inal branches. In the forearm a small artery accompanies it,—the comes nervi iani. Above the wrist it is comparatively superficial, lying on the outer side of superficial flexor tendons and directly beneath the tendon of the palmaris longus.

Communications.—(1) The median, in some cases, receives a communicating br from the musculo-cutaneous nerve in the arm. (2) It communicates in some case the upper part of the forearm, with the ulnar nerve beneath the flexor muscles. (3) communicates by means of its cutaneous branches with the ulnar nerve in the pal the hand.

Branches.—The median nerve usually gives off no branches in the upper ar

Branches in the Forearm.—(1) **Articular Branches.**—Minute articular filame are distributed to front of the elbow-j

(2) **Muscular B ches.**—Just below elbow a bundle of ne arise which is distrib to the following mus pronator radii ter flexor carpi radialis, p maris longus, flexor s limis digitorum. Ner are also generally tra able from this bundle the upper fibres of t flexor longus polli and flexor profund digitorum. The ner to the pronator ra teres often arises inde pendently in the hollo of the elbow.

(3) The **anterior i terosseous nerve** ari from the back of th median nerve in th forearm, descends i front of the interosseo membrane along wi the anterior interosseo artery, passes behin the pronator quadrat muscle, and terminat by supplying articul filaments to the radi carpal articulation. I its course the ner supplies muscula branches to the flex longus pollicis, the out half of the flexor pr fundus digitorum, an the pronator quadratu minute medullar branches to the radiu and ulna, and twigs t the periosteum and in terosseous membrane.

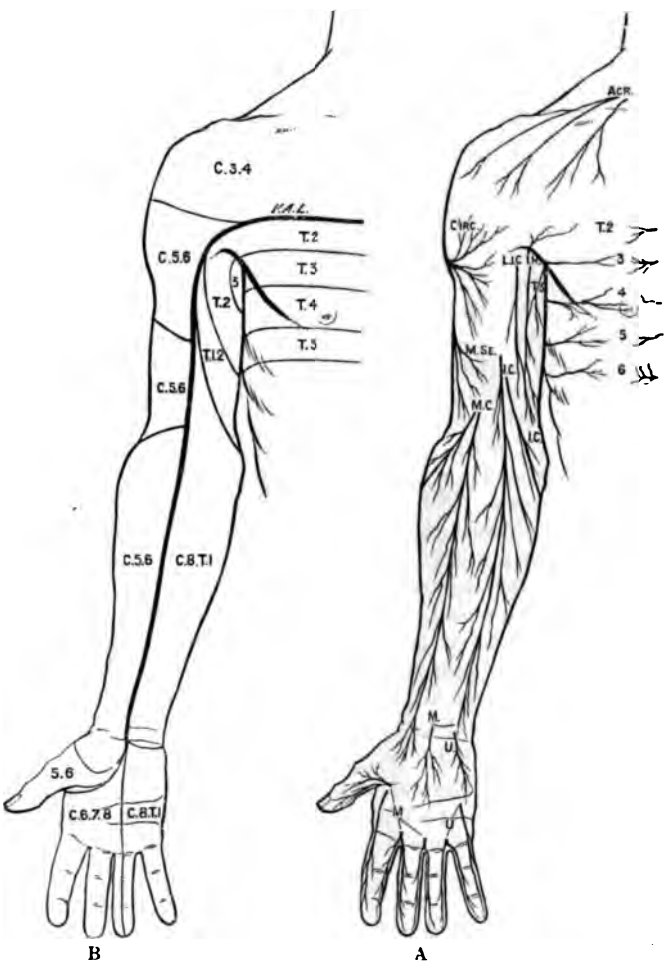

FIG. 497.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES ON THE FRONT OF THE ARM AND HAND.

(A) represents the distribution of the several nerves, the letters indicating their nomenclature. ACR, Acromial branch (cervical plexus); CIRC, Cutaneous branch of circumflex nerve; M.SE, Superior external cutaneous branch of musculo-spiral nerve; M.C, Musculo-cutaneous nerve; M, Median nerve; U, Ulnar nerve; I.C, Internal cutaneous nerve; L.I.C, Lesser internal cutaneous nerve (Wrisberg); I.H, Intercosto-humeral nerve; T.2, 3, 4, 5, 6, Anterior and lateral branches of intercostal nerves.

(B) is a schematic representation of the areas supplied by the above nerves, the lettering indicating the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area. V.A.L, Ventral axial line.

(4) **Palmar Cutaneous Branch.**—In the lower third of the forearm a sma cutaneous branch arises, which pierces the deep fascia and crosses the anterio annular ligament to reach the palm of the hand. It supplies the skin of the palm and communicates with a similar branch of the ulnar nerve. This branch is no always present.

Branches in the Hand.—In the hand the median nerve gives off its terminal branches. These are muscular and cutaneous.

The main **muscular branch** arises just below the anterior annular ligament and passes outwards to the base of the thenar eminence; entering the ball of the thumb superficially on the inner side, it supplies branches to the abductor pollicis, opponens pollicis, and the superficial head of the flexor brevis pollicis.

The cutaneous branches are five in number. Three separate branches supply each side of the thumb and the radial side of the index finger. The two remaining branches subdivide at the cleft between the second and third, and the third and fourth fingers respectively, into branches which supply the adjacent sides of the second and third, and the third and fourth fingers. From the nerves which supply respectively the radial side of the index finger, and the contiguous sides of the index and third fingers, fine muscular branches arise for the two outer lumbrical muscles. The cutaneous branches of the median nerve are placed in the palm between the superficial palmar arch and the flexor tendons. They become superficial at the roots of the fingers between the slips of the palmar fascia, or, in the case of the nerves to the thumb and radial side of the index finger, at the outer edge of the central portion of the palmar fascia. In the fingers they are placed superficial to the digital arteries, and are distributed to the sides and front of the fingers. Each nerve supplies one or more dorsal branches, distributed to the skin on the dorsal aspect of the terminal phalanx of the thumb and the two distal phalanges of the first two and a half fingers, thus making up for the deficiency of the radial nerve in these situations.

Ulnar Nerve.

The **ulnar nerve** (n. ulnaris) arises from the inner cord of the brachial plexus, from the eighth cervical and first thoracic nerves. It also occasionally has a root from the outer cord of the plexus (seventh cervical nerve). In the axilla it lies between the axillary artery and vein, and behind the internal cutaneous nerve; in the upper half of the upper arm it lies on the inner side of the brachial artery in front of the triceps muscle. In the lower half of the arm it is separated from the brachial artery; and passing behind the intermuscular septum, and in front of the inner head of the triceps in company with the inferior profunda artery, it reaches the interval between the internal condyle of the humerus and the olecranon process. It is here protected by an arch of deep fascia stretching between the internal condyle and the olecranon process. It enters the forearm between the humeral and ulnar origins of the flexor carpi ulnaris, and courses downwards between the flexor carpi ulnaris and flexor profundus digitorum. In the lower half of the forearm it becomes comparatively superficial, lying on the inner side of the ulnar artery beneath the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris. Just above the anterior annular ligament of the wrist, and external to the pisiform bone, it pierces the deep fascia in company with the artery and passes into the hand over the anterior annular ligament. Reaching the palm it divides beneath the palmaris brevis muscle into its two terminal branches, superficial and deep.

Communications.—(1) The ulnar nerve communicates in some cases with the median nerve in the forearm; (2) with the internal cutaneous and sometimes the median nerve by its palmar cutaneous branch; (3) with the cutaneous part of the median nerve in the palm by means of its terminal cutaneous branches; (4) with the radial nerve on the dorsum of the hand by means of its dorsal branch.

Branches.—The ulnar nerve gives off no branches till it reaches the forearm.

In the forearm it gives off articular, muscular, and cutaneous branches.

The **articular branch** is distributed to the elbow joint and arises as the nerve passes behind the internal condyle.

The **muscular branches** arise as soon as the nerve enters the forearm. They are distributed to the muscles between which the ulnar nerve lies—the flexor carpi ulnaris and the inner half of the flexor profundus digitorum.

The cutaneous branches are two in number, palmar and dorsal.

The **palmar cutaneous branch** is variable in size and position. It pierces deep fascia in the lower third of the forearm and passes to the hypot eminence and palm of the hand, to the skin over which it is distributed. It branches to ulnar artery, communicates with the int cutaneous palmar branc the median ne

The **dorsal aneous bran** much larger 498). It a from the ulnar in the middle of the fore and, directed liquely down and backward neath the tend the flexor ulnaris, it be cutaneous on inner side o forearm in its fourth. It on to the back hand, and afte ing off branch the skin of the and hand, communicate the radial ne terminates in branches, to s the little fing half the ring- in the foll way : — the branch co along the inne of the dorsu the hand and finger : the branch subd at the cleft be the ring and fingers to s the adjacent of these fi

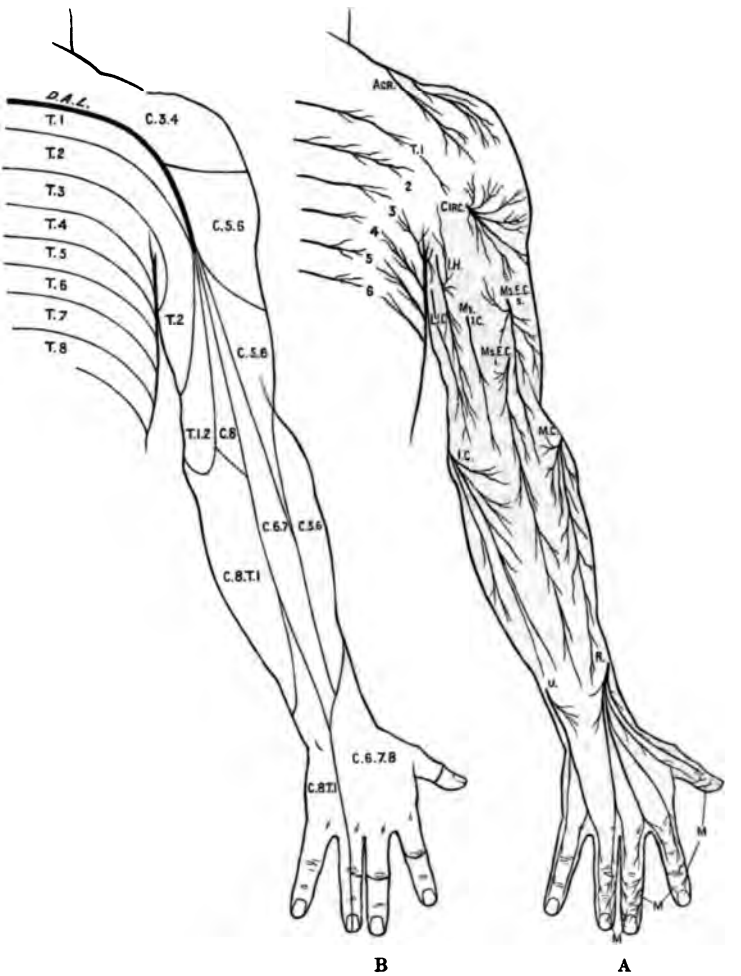

FIG. 498.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES ON THE BACK OF THE ARM AND HAND.

(A) represents the distribution of the several nerves, the letters indicating their nomenclature. ACR, Acromial branches (cervical plexus) ; CIRC, Cutaneous branch of circumflex nerve ; Ms.E.C.s, Ms.E.C.i, Superior and inferior external cutaneous branches of musculo-spiral nerve ; M.C, Musculo-cutaneous nerve ; R, Radial nerve ; M, Branches of median nerve to fingers ; U, Ulnar nerve ; I.C, Internal cutaneous nerve ; Ms.I.C, Internal cutaneous branch of musculo-spiral nerve ; L.I.C, Lesser internal cutaneous nerve (Wrisberg) ; I.H, Inter-costo-humeral ; T.1. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, Lateral and posterior branches of upper thoracic nerves.

(B) is a schematic representation of the areas supplied by the above nerves, the lettering indicating the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area. D.A.L, Dorsal axial line.

this branch communicates with the radial nerve. The nerve may supply tw a half fingers on the dorsum of the hand.

In the palm the ulnar nerve supplies a small muscular branch to the pa brevis muscle, and then subdivides into its terminal branches, which are superficial and deep.

The **superficial branch** is purely cutaneous; it passes downwards beneat palmar fascia, and subdivides into an inner and an outer branch. The branch courses along the inner border of the little finger, which it supplies

mar aspect. The outer branch becomes superficial at the cleft between the **rth and fifth fingers**, between the slips of the palmar fascia, and subdivides into **branches** which supply the adjacent sides of these fingers on their palmar aspect. **ommunicates** with the adjacent digital branch of the median nerve.

The deep branch is purely muscular. It separates from the superficial branch,

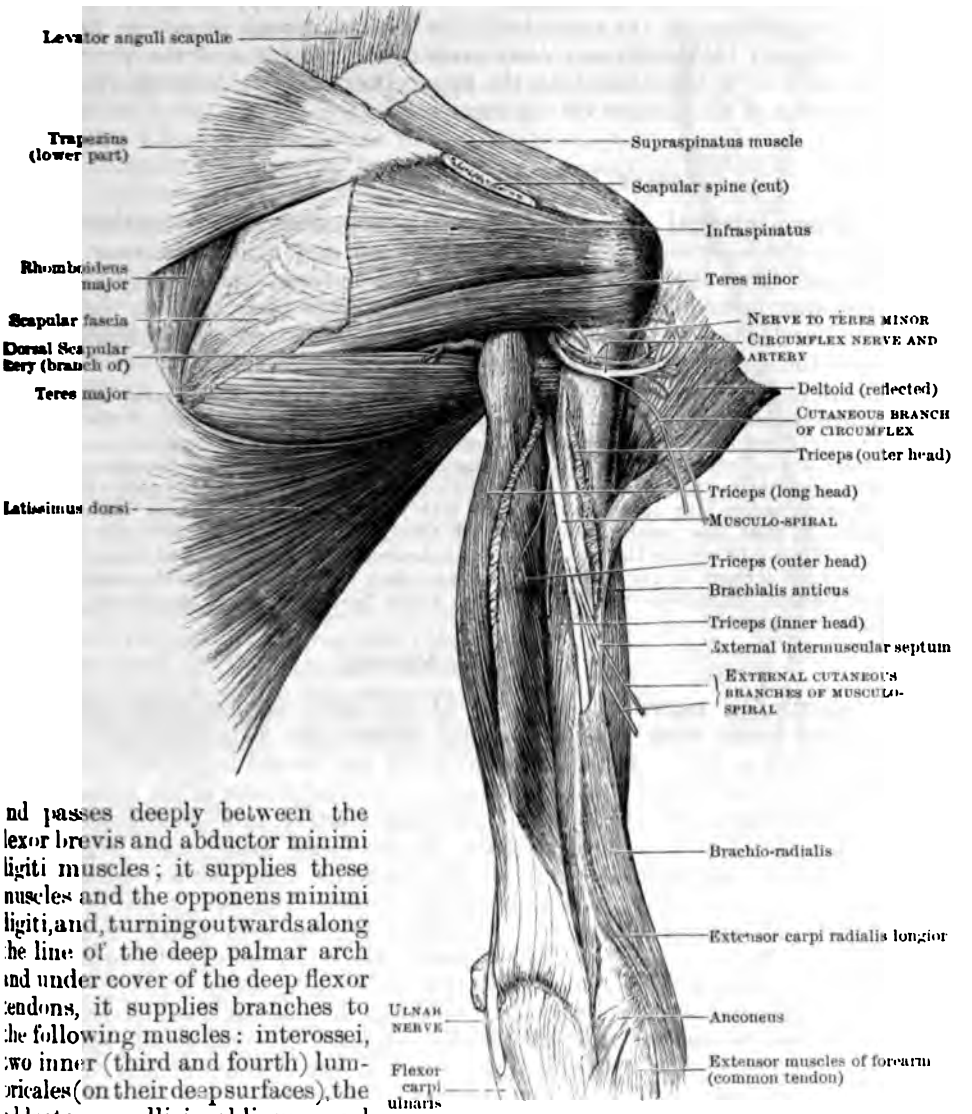

Fig. 499. Deltoid Region and Back of Arm.

nd passes deeply between the lexor brevis and abductor minimi ligiti muscles; it supplies these nuscles and the opponens minimi ligiti, and, turning outwards along he line of the deep palmar arch nd under cover of the deep flexor endons, it supplies branches to he following muscles: interossei, wo inner (third and fourth) lum-bricales (on their deep surfaces), the dductores pollicis, obliquus and ransversus, and deep part of the lexor brevis pollicis.

Internal Cutaneous Nerve.

The **internal cutaneous nerve** (n. cutaneus brachii medialis) arises from the inner cord of the brachial plexus, from the eighth cervical and first thoracic nerves (Figs. 497 and 498). In the axilla and upper half of the arm it lies superficial to the main artery. It becomes cutaneous by piercing the deep fascia about the middle of the inner side of the upper arm, and accompanying the basilic vein through the lower half of the arm, it divides at the front of the elbow into its two terminal branches.

Communication.—The internal cutaneous nerve communicates with the palmar branch of the ulnar nerve in the lower part of the forearm.

Branches.—In the arm, as soon as it becomes superficial, the internal cutaneous nerve gives off a branch which supplies the skin of the lower half of the anterior surface of the arm on its inner side. At the elbow it divides into two terminal branches—anterior and internal, which, crossing over or under the median basilic vein, are distributed to the inner side of the forearm.

The **anterior branch** can be followed to the wrist and supplies the whole of the front of the forearm in the inner half; the **internal branch** is not so large, and passing obliquely backwards and downwards over the origins of the pronator and flexor muscles, it is distributed to the upper two-thirds or three-fourths of the posterior aspect of the forearm on the inner side.

Lesser Internal Cutaneous Nerve.

The **lesser internal cutaneous nerve** (n. cutaneus brachii medialis minor) arises from the inner cord of the brachial plexus, and ultimately from the first thoracic nerve (Fig. 494, p. 624). It lies at first between the axillary artery and vein; and after descending over, under, or even, in some cases, through the axillary vein, it perforates the deep fascia on the inner side of the arm, and is distributed to the skin of the arm for the upper half or more on its inner side.

The nerve varies considerably in size. It may be absent, its place being taken by branches of the intercosto-humeral or by branches from the internal cutaneous offset of the musculo-spiral nerve. It generally bears a distinct relation in size to the intercosto-humeral, due to the fact that the size of the latter depends upon the size of the part of the second thoracic nerve connected with the first in the thorax. If an intra-thoracic connexion occurs between the first and second thoracic nerves, the intercosto-humeral may be deprived of a certain number of its fibres, which in that case reach the upper limb through the lesser internal cutaneous nerve. When traced up to the plexus the lesser internal cutaneous is found to have an origin from the back of the cord formed by the eighth cervical and first thoracic nerves, and usually receives fibres from the first thoracic nerve only. In cases where "*axillary arches*" are present they may be supplied by this nerve.

Circumflex Nerve.

The **circumflex nerve** (n. axillaris), at its origin is just below the subscapular and comes from the same spinal nerves—the fifth and sixth cervical nerves (Fig. 494, p. 623). Extending downwards and outwards behind the axillary artery, it leaves the axilla by passing round the external border of the subscapularis muscle, in company with the posterior circumflex artery, in a quadrilateral space bounded by the humerus, subscapularis, triceps (long head), and teres major. Winding round the surgical neck of the humerus from within outwards, it terminates under the deltoid by supplying that muscle (Fig. 499, p. 631).

Branches.—**Muscular branches** are supplied to the teres minor and deltoid muscles. The nerve to the teres minor enters the outer side of the muscle. It possesses a pseudo-ganglion, a thickening of fibrous tissue, on its trunk.

Articular branches enter the back part of the capsule of the shoulder-joint.

A **cutaneous branch** (n. cutaneus brachii lateralis) of considerable size passes obliquely downwards and forwards from beneath the deltoid muscle, becoming superficial at its posterior border. Sometimes the branches pierce the muscle. It supplies the skin over the insertion of the deltoid and the upper half of the arm on the outer side (Fig. 498, p. 630).

Musculo-Spiral Nerve.

The **musculo-spiral** nerve (n. radialis) appears to be the continuation into the upper limb of the posterior cord of the brachial plexus. It usually takes origin from all the nerves which form the posterior cord—the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical nerves (Fig. 494, p. 623). In a minority of cases the first thoracic contributes a few fibres, and more frequently the fifth cervical nerve is excluded from it. It extends from the axilla round the back of the humerus to the bend of the elbow, where it ends by dividing into its terminal branches.

In the axilla it lies behind the axillary artery, and in front of the subscapularis, teres major, and latissimus dorsi muscles.

e arm, in the upper third, it lies on the inner side of the humerus behind hial artery, and upon the long head of the triceps. In the middle third of it courses obliquely outwards and downwards in the spiral groove of the , along with the superior profunda artery, separating the long, external, rnal heads of the triceps muscle (Fig. 499, p. 631). In the lower third of piercing the upper part of the intermuscular at the outer border of the triceps muscle, it to the bend of the elbow in front of the external of the humerus, in the interval between the adialis and brachialis anticus muscles. Under the former muscle, in the hollow of the elbow, s into its two terminal branches, the radial and interosseous nerves.

collateral branches are in three sets, arising he inner side, (*b*) on the back, and (*c*) on the e of the humerus (Fig. 500).

ches arising internal to the humerus.—1. **cutaneous** (n. cutaneus brachii posterior).—This arising in common with one of the following, or lently, pierces the fascia on the inner side of near the axilla. It supplies the skin of the le of the arm in the upper third, above and he area supplied by the lesser internal cutaneous Fig. 498, p. 630). This nerve varies in size, g to the bulk of the lesser internal cutaneous rcosto-humeral nerves.

uscular branches (rr. musculares).—These are ets. One series supplies the long head of the nuscle near its origin; the other series enters er head of the muscle. One of the latter, ng itself from the rest, accompanies the ulnar the middle third of the arm, and supplies the rt of the muscle. This is sometimes called the **ulnar nerve**.

ches arising on the back of the humerus.— **branches** arise from the nerve in the musculo- oove for the supply of all three heads of the muscle. The branch which enters the inner the muscle, besides supplying it, passes through cle and behind the external condyle of the , to terminate in the anconeus.

ches arising at the outer side of the s. — 1. The **cutaneous branches** (n. cutaneus nii dorsalis) are two in number, superior and Arising from the musculo-spiral nerve before s the external intermuscular septum, these pierce the deep fascia close together on the le of the arm in its lower half. Descending back of the external condyle, the *superior* supplies the skin of the outer side and back of in its lower third, and the back of the forearm in its upper half. The *branch* supplies an area of skin on the back of the forearm in the upper ls internal to the area innervated by the musculo-cutaneous nerve 3, p. 630).

FIG. 500.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE BRANCHES OF THE MUSCULO-SPIRAL NERVE.

M.S, Musculo-spiral nerve; L.H, Nerve to long head of triceps; I.C, Internal cutaneous branch; I.H, Nerve to inner head of triceps; O.H, Nerve to outer head of triceps; I.H, Second nerve to inner head of triceps; Anc. Nerve to anconeus; Art, Articular branch; E.Cs, Superior, external cutaneous branch; E.Ci, Inferior external cutaneous branch; B.A, Nerve to brachialis anticus; Br, Nerve to brachio-radialis; E.C.R.L, Nerve to extensor carpi radialis longior; P.I, Posterior interosseous nerve; R, Radial nerve.

uscular branches.—The musculo-spiral nerve, as it lies in the interval the brachialis anticus and brachio-radialis, supplies a small branch to the s anticus (which in some cases is not present) and nerves to the brachio- and extensor carpi radialis longior. It may also provide the nerve to the carpi radialis brevior.

Radial Nerve.

The **radial nerve** (r. superficialis) is entirely cutaneous in its distril Arising in the hollow elbow beneath the bi radialis, it courses dowi under cover of that through the upper two- of the arm, and accom the radial artery in the third of the forearm. I passes backwards benea tendon of the brachio-r and pierces the deep fa the outer side of the f in the lower third. distributed to the skin back of the wrist, the side and the back of the and the back of the thu outer two and a half (Fig. 498, p. 630). Its bi communicate on the the thumb with the m cutaneous nerve, and back of the hand wi dorsal branch of the nerve. The digital bi are small, and are number. Two pass back of the thumb an the inter-phalangeal a tion. One supplies th side of the index finge as the second phalan remaining two branche at the clefts between th and third, and third an fingers respectively, nervate the adjacent these fingers as far as th phalanx. The rest of of these digits to the supplied by digital b of the median nerve nerve may only supp and a half fingers, be placed by branches fr ulnar nerve.

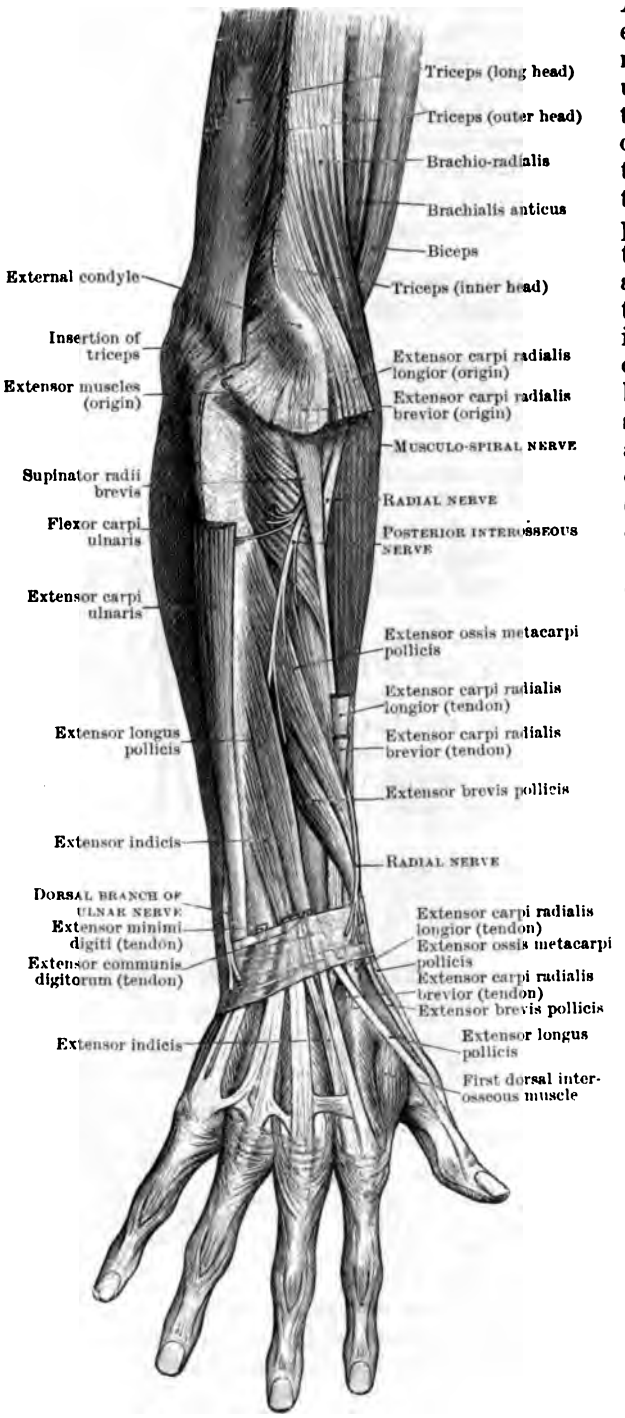

Fig. 501.—The Muscles of the Back of the Forearm (the superficial muscles have been reflected).

Posterior Interos Nerve.

The **posterior osseous nerve** (r. pr n. interosseus ant dorsalis) is entirely u

and articular in its distribution, and it arises like the radial benea brachio-radialis muscle. Directed obliquely downwards and backw

ches the back of the forearm, after passing round the outer side of the ius, by piercing the fibres of the supinator radii brevis muscle (Fig. 501). the back of the forearm it is placed in the upper part of its course beneath the erficial extensor muscles, and upon the supinator radii brevis and extensor ossis tacarpi pollicis, along with the posterior interosseous artery. In the lower half the forearm it passes beneath the extensor longus pollicis, and lies upon the erosseous membrane. At the wrist it passes beneath the extensor tendons on to back of the carpus, where it terminates in a gangliform enlargement of small e, from which branches pass to the inter-carpal articulations. The posterior interseous nerve supplies the following branches:—

(1) Terminal **articular branches** to the carpal joints.

(2) **Muscular branches**, in its course through the forearm. Thus on the outer le of the radius it supplies the extensor carpi radialis brevior and the supinator evis muscle before it enters the fibres of the last-named muscle. After emerging om the supinator brevis it supplies a large bundle of nerves which enter the xtensor communis digitorum, extensor minimi digiti, and extensor carpi ulnaris ear their origins. Lower down the forearm the nerve gives off branches to the xtensor ossis metacarpi pollicis, extensor longus and extensor brevis pollicis, and xtensor indicis.

Subscapular Nerves.

There are three subscapular nerves (nn. subscapulares) (Figs. 494 and 496).

The first or short subscapular nerve is generally double, and there may be hree trunks present. It arises from the posterior cord of the plexus behind the ircumflex nerve, and comes from the fifth and sixth cervical nerves. It passes lownwards behind the axillary artery and enters the subscapularis muscle.

The second or lower subscapular nerve also arises behind the circumflex rom the posterior cord of the plexus, and from the fifth and sixth cervical nerves. Its origin is below and external to that of the first nerve. It courses outwards and lownwards behind the axillary artery, and the circumflex and musculo-spiral nerves to the teres major muscle. It supplies branches to the outer part of the subscapularis muscle and ends in the teres major.

The third or long subscapular nerve (n. thoraco-dorsalis) arises from the back of the posterior cord of the plexus, behind the musculo-spiral nerve, and from the sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical nerves, or from the seventh and eighth nerves only. It is directed downwards and outwards between the two previous nerves, behind the axillary artery and over the posterior wall of the axilla, in company with the subscapular artery, to the latissimus dorsi muscle, which it supplies on its anterior (inner) surface.

THORACIC NERVES.

The thoracic nerves are twelve in number, each nerve emerging below the corresponding vertebra and rib. Eleven of the series are intercostal, the twelfth lying below the last rib. The first, second, third, and twelfth nerves present peculiarities in their course and distribution. The other thoracic nerves, as already stated, are simple, and may be regarded as types both in course and distribution.

The **first thoracic nerve** is the largest of the series. It emerges from the spinal canal below the neck of the first rib, and divides in the first intercostal space into two very unequal, upper and lower, parts. The *upper* larger part ascends obliquely over the neck of the first rib, lying external to the superior intercostal artery, and enters the neck behind the subclavian artery and the pleura. It proceeds outwards upon the scalenus medius muscle and enters into the formation of the brachial plexus, as already described.

The *lower, intercostal part* of the nerve is much smaller in size. It courses forwards in the first intercostal space and supplies the intercostal muscles. It usually gives off no anterior branch to the skin of the chest and no lateral cutaneous branch.

In some cases a lateral cutaneous branch emerges from the side of the first intercost This may be derived from the first nerve, or it may be the **intercosto-humeral nerve**, from the second thoracic nerve. In many cases an anterior cutaneous branch perforates intercostal space and supplies the skin on the front of the chest. This branch, similarly, times traceable to the second thoracic nerve.

Communications.—Besides its junction with the eighth cervical to fo brachial plexus, the first thoracic nerve effects the following communications:— last cervical or first thoracic ganglion of the sympathetic sends a gray ramus co cans to join the nerve on its appearance in the thorax. (*b*) The second thoracic r a majority of cases communicates with the first. This communication varies consi in size and distribution. It may reinforce the intercostal branch of the nerve, send one branch to the intercostal portion and another to the part of the nerve join brachial plexus, or it may consist of a nerve proceeding solely to join the brachial pl a junction in the first intercostal space with the part of the first thoracic nerve, v engaged in forming the plexus. (*c*) It is possible that the first *white ramus comm* in the thoracic region connects the first thoracic nerve with the gangliated cord sympathetic, but this is not known with certainty.

The **second thoracic nerve** is of large size, though much smaller th first. It passes forwards in the second intercostal space, lying at first in t costal groove between the external and internal intercostal muscles. At th of the mid-axillary line it gives off a large lateral branch; continuing its it pierces the internal intercostal muscle and lies upon the pleura; finally lateral border of the sternum, it passes forwards in front of the internal ma artery and through the internal intercostal muscle, and the aponeurosis external intercostal muscle, and ends by supplying the skin of the front chest over the second intercostal space.

The nerve supplies the following branches:—

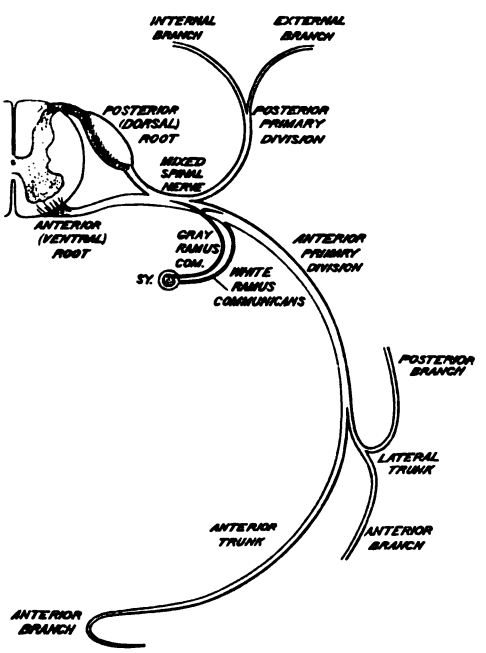

FIG. 502.—SCHEME OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF A TYPICAL SPINAL NERVE.

1. **Muscular branches** to the of the second intercostal space.

2. **Cutaneous branches.** (*a*) A **terminal branches** (rr. cutaneus ant the skin over the second intercost (Fig. 503). (*b*) A large lateral cu branch, the **intercosto-humeral ne** intercosto-brachialis) (Fig. 494, p This nerve pierces the intercostal and the serratus magnus, and, cros axilla, extends to the arm. It pie deep fascia just beyond the posterio the axilla, and can be traced down as far as the interval between the condyle of the humerus and the ol process. It supplies an area of skin ing across the armpit and along the p surface of the arm on the inner sid as the elbow (Fig. 497, p. 628).

The intercosto-humeral nerve varie It may pierce the first intercostal space, often divisible into anterior and p branches, like the lateral branch of an i intercostal nerve.

Communications.—(1) The int humeral nerve communicates wit adjacent nerves. Either before o piercing the fascia of the axilla it is jo the lesser internal cutaneous nerve of the brachial plexus. It also communicates w posterior part of the lateral branch of the third intercostal nerve by means of the b distributed to the floor and boundaries of the axilla. It may supply the axillary when present. (2) Besides the branches referred to, the second thoracic nerve i

nsmits a nerve to
ial plexus, which
incorporated
e first thoracic
er passing over
of the second rib.
ich is inconstant.
ly mentioned, it
a only the inter-
art of the first
nerve, it may join
hial plexus only,
y send branches
parts of the first
nerve. (3) Be-
communications
by branches of the
horacic nerve in
e, it also receives
musc communicans
second thoracic
of the sym-
cord in the
It probably also
the sympathetic
white ramus com-
s, though this is
vn with certainty.

third thoracic
nly differs from
l thoracic nerve
respect. Its
branch divides
usual way into
and posterior
which the latter
d to the arm and
an area of skin
osterior half of
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the limb. It
junction with
ercosto-humeral
(fig. 494, p. 623).

fourth, fifth, ixth thoracic
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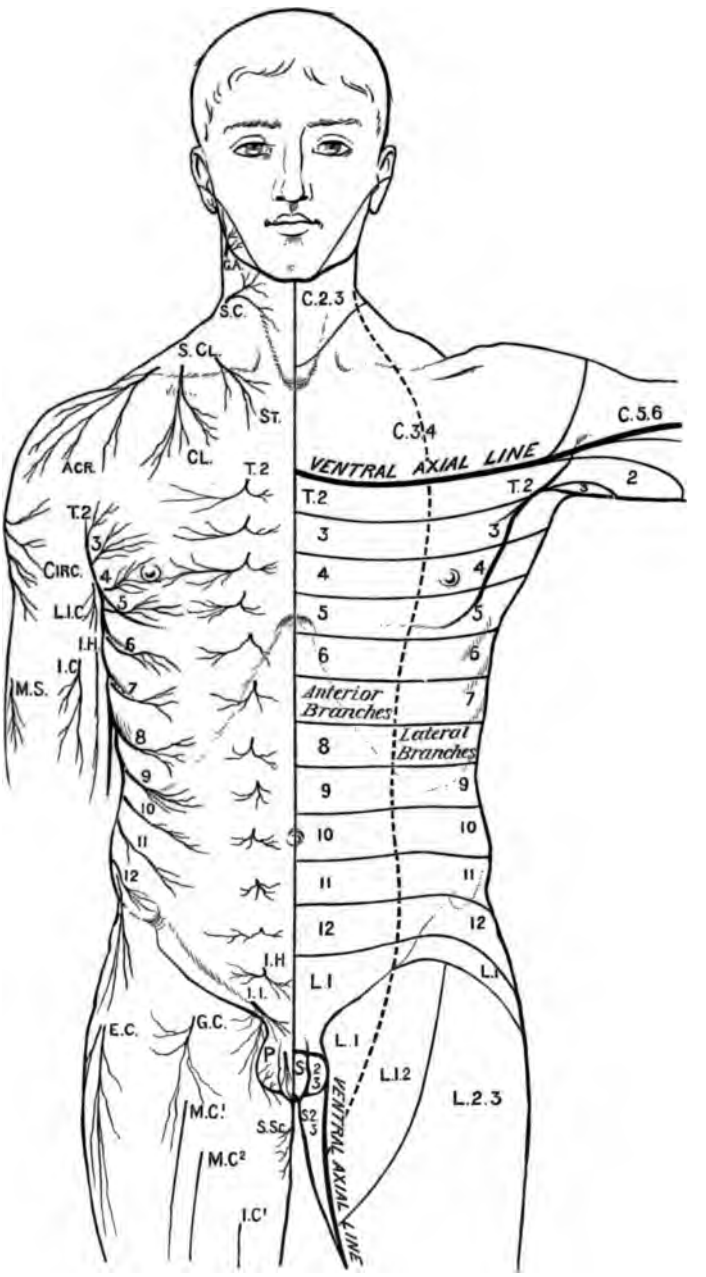


FIG. 503.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES ON THE FRONT OF THE TRUNK.

On one side the distribution of the several nerves is represented, the letters indicating their nomenclature.

G.A, Great auricular nerve; S.C, Superficial cervical nerve; S.Cl, Supra-clavicular nerves; Acr, Acromial; Cl, Clavicular; St, Sternal; T.2-12, Lateral and anterior branches of thoracic nerves; I.H, Ilio-hypogastric nerve; I.I, Ilio-inguinal nerve; Circ, Cutaneous branch of circumflex nerve; L.I.C, Lesser internal cutaneous nerve; I.H, Intercosto-humeral; I.C, Internal cutaneous; M.S, Cutaneous branch of musculo-spiral nerve, E.C, External cutaneous nerves; G.C, Genito-crural nerve; M.C¹·², Middle cutaneous nerves; I.C¹, Branch of internal cutaneous nerve; P, Branches of pudic nerve; S.Sc, Branches of small sciatic nerve.

On the other side a schematic representation is given of the areas supplied by the above nerves, the numerals indicating the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area.

muscles as far as the middle of the chest wall, lying at a lower level than the i costal vessels. At the side of the chest each nerve passes obliquely through the int intercostal muscle, and comes to lie upon the pleura, triangularis sterni m and internal mammary artery. Thereafter, piercing the fibres of the inte intercostal muscle and the aponeurosis of the external intercostal muscle, nerve ends by supplying the skin of the front of the chest, over an area corresp ing to the inner or anterior part of the intercostal space to which it belongs.

Branches.—Each intercostal nerve supplies, in addition to the anterior term cutaneous branches, *muscular branches* to the intercostal muscles and a la **trunk** (r. cutaneus, lateralis), which, piercing the intercostal muscles and serratus magnus, divides into anterior and posterior branches for the innerva of the skin over the side of the chest. Each area of skin thus innervated continuous anteriorly with the area innervated by the anterior terminal branc of the same nerves, and posteriorly with the areas supplied by their poste primary divisions.

The upper six intercostal nerves supply the muscles of the first six interc spaces and the triangularis sterni (3, 4, 5, 6). The second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth nerves supply the skin of the front of the chest: the second, opposite manubrio-sternal joint; the sixth, opposite the base of the xiphoid cartilage. T lateral branches supply branches to the intercostal muscles and the skin of the of the chest, the second (intercosto-humeral) and the third in part being drawn on to the arm. The fourth supplies the nipple (Fig. 503).

Communications.—Each of these intercostal nerves communicates with the sympat cord and ganglia by two branches—a *white ramus communicans* to the corresponding pathetic ganglion or the adjacent part of the sympathetic cord; and a *gray ramus municans*, which passes to each nerve from the corresponding ganglion.

The **seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, and eleventh thoracic nerves** only d from the preceding nerves in regard to a part of their course and distribution. I has the same course and communications as the preceding nerves in the thoracic In addition, these nerves have a further course and distribution in the abdom wall. Each nerve traverses its intercostal space in the way described. At anterior end of the space, the nerve pierces the attachment of the diaphragm the transveralis abdominis muscles to the costal cartilages, and courses forwar the abdominal wall between the transversalis and obliquus internus muscles. nerve then passes between the rectus muscle and the posterior layer of its sh and eventually reaches the anterior abdominal wall and becomes cutaneou piercing the rectus itself and the anterior layer of its sheath.

Muscular Branches.—The lower intercostal nerves supply the interc muscles of the spaces in which they lie; and in the abdominal wall they inner the transversalis, obliqui, and rectus abdominis. The branches arise from main trunk as well as from its lateral and anterior branches. (The ninth, t and eleventh nerves are described as assisting in the innervation of the diaphr by communications with the phrenic nerve.)

Cutaneous Branches.—These are lateral and anterior. The **lateral bra** divide into anterior and posterior parts, and, becoming superficial along the li inter-digitation of the obliquus externus muscle with the serratus magnus latissimus dorsi, they are directed more obliquely downwards than the la branches of the higher intercostal nerves, and are distributed to the skin of loin as low down as the buttock. The lateral branch of the eleventh nerve ca traced over the iliac crest (Fig. 503).

The **anterior branches** are small. That of the seventh nerve innervates the at the level of the ensiform cartilage. The eighth and ninth appear between ensiform cartilage and the umbilicus; the tenth nerve supplies the region of umbilicus; and the eleventh, the area immediately below the umbilicus.

The cutaneous branches of these nerves, including the posterior primary divisions, thus su continuous belts of skin, which can be mapped out on the body from the vertebral col behind to the middle line in front. These areas are not placed horizontally, but tend drawn downwards as the series is followed from the upper to the lower nerves.

The **twelfth thoracic nerve** is peculiar in its course and distribution.

emerges below the last rib (Fig. 504), and passes outwards and downwards in the anterior abdominal wall under cover of the psoas muscle, and between the external arcuate ligament and the quadratus lumborum muscle; it pierces the transversalis muscle, and courses forwards in the interval between it and the obliquus internus as far as the sheath of the rectus muscle. After piercing the posterior layer of the sheath, the rectus muscle, and the anterior layer of the sheath, it terminates by supplying the skin of the anterior abdominal wall midway between the umbilicus and the pubis. The branches of the nerve are **muscular**, to the transversalis, obliqui, rectus, and pyramidalis muscles of the abdominal wall, and **cutaneous branches**, two in number—an *anterior terminal branch*, which supplies the skin of the anterior abdominal wall midway between the umbilicus and the pubis, and a large *lateral cutaneous* (iliac) *branch*, which, passing obliquely downwards through the lateral muscles of the abdominal wall, becomes superficial above the iliac crest, a couple of inches behind the anterior superior spine. It supplies the skin of the buttock as far down as a point below and in front of the great trochanter of the femur (Fig. 507, p. 645).

The twelfth thoracic nerve, in many cases, receives a **communicating branch** from the eleventh, near its origin, and still more frequently sends a fine branch to join the origin of the first lumbar nerve in the psoas muscle. It may communicate also with the ilio-hypogastric nerve, as they lie together in the abdominal wall.

THE LUMBO-SACRAL PLEXUS.

The lumbo-sacral plexus is formed by the union of the anterior primary divisions of the remaining spinal nerves — five lumbar, five sacral, and one coccygeal. Frequently, a fine communicating branch of the twelfth thoracic nerve joins the first lumbar nerve near its origin.

Of the nerves in question the first sacral is generally the largest in size, the nerves diminishing gradually above and rapidly below the first sacral. The plexus, for the most part, forms the nerves destined for the supply of the lower limb. In addition, however, nerves arise at its upper limit which are distributed to the trunk above the level of the limb, and at the lower end of the plexus nerves arise for the supply of the perineum.

Partly for convenience of description, and partly on account of the differences in position and course of some of the nerves emanating from it, the plexus is subdivided into three subordinate parts — lumbar, sacral or sciatic, and pudendal plexuses. There is, however, no strict line of demarcation between the three parts.

The **lumbar plexus** is formed by the first four lumbar nerves, and is often joined by a branch from the twelfth thoracic nerve as well. It is limited below by the fourth lumbar nerve (n. furcalis), which also enters into the composition of the sciatic or sacral plexus. The nerves of the lumbar plexus are formed in the loin, and supply that region as well as part of the lower limb. They are separated from the nerves of the sacral portion of the plexus by the articulation of the innominate bone with the sacrum.

The **sacral** or **sciatic plexus** is formed by the fourth and fifth lumbar, and the first two or three sacral nerves. It is generally limited below by the third sacral nerve (n. bigeminus), which also assists in forming the pudendal plexus. The nerves of the sacral plexus are placed on the posterior wall of the pelvis, and are destined almost entirely for the lower limb.

The **pudendal plexus** is formed by the second, third, fourth, and fifth sacral nerves, and the minute coccygeal nerve. It is placed on the back wall of the pelvis and supplies branches mainly to the perineum.

Communications with the Sympathetic.—Each of these nerves has communications with the gangliated cord of the sympathetic in the abdomen and pelvis.

Gray Rami Communicantes.—From the lumbar and sacral ganglia long slender *gray rami communicantes* are directed backwards and outwards over the bodies of the vertebræ, and (in the lumbar region) beneath the origins of the psoas muscle, to reach the anterior primary divisions of the nerves. These branches are irregular in their arrangement. A given nerve may receive branches from two ganglia, or one ganglion may send branches to two nerves. The rami are longer in the loin than in the pelvis, owing to the projection of the lumbar portion of the vertebral column.

White Rami Communicantes.—Certain lumbar and sacral nerves are also con
with the abdominal and pelvic sympathethic by means of *white rami communicantes.* F
the first two, and possibly also the third and fourth lumbar nerves, white rami com

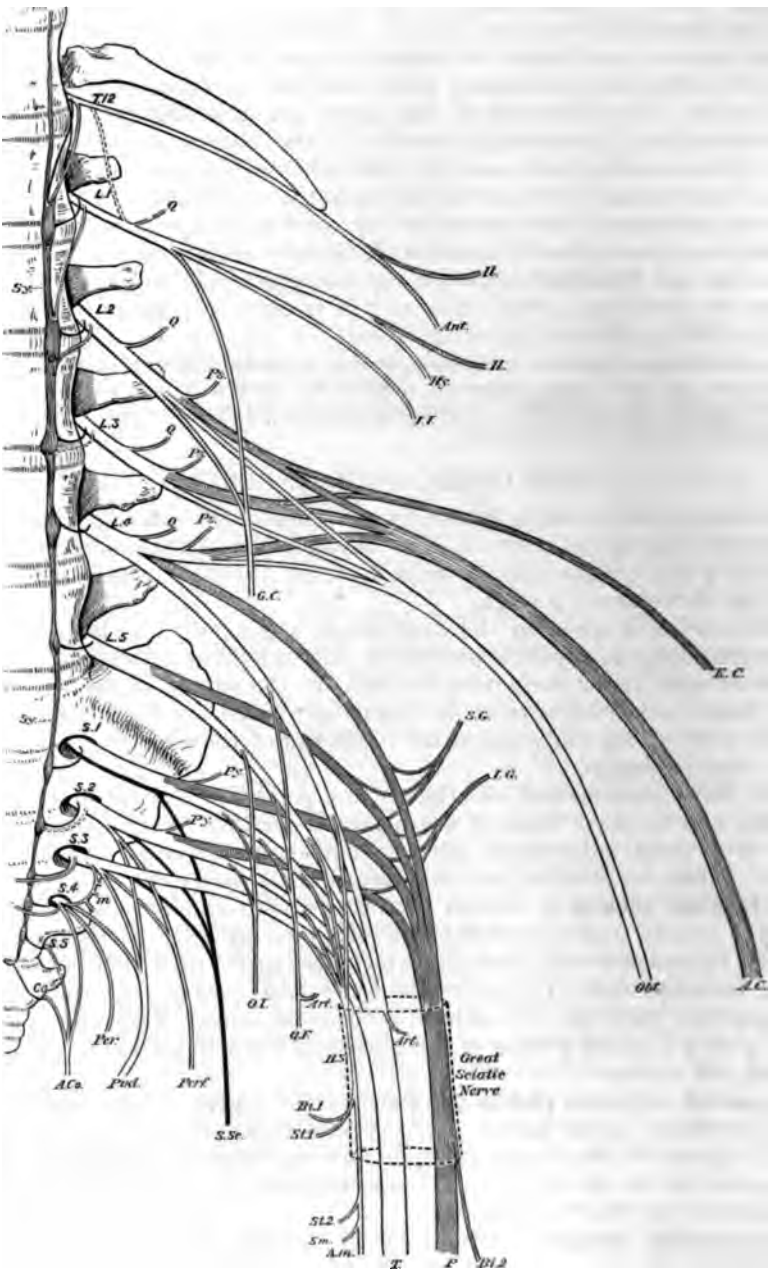


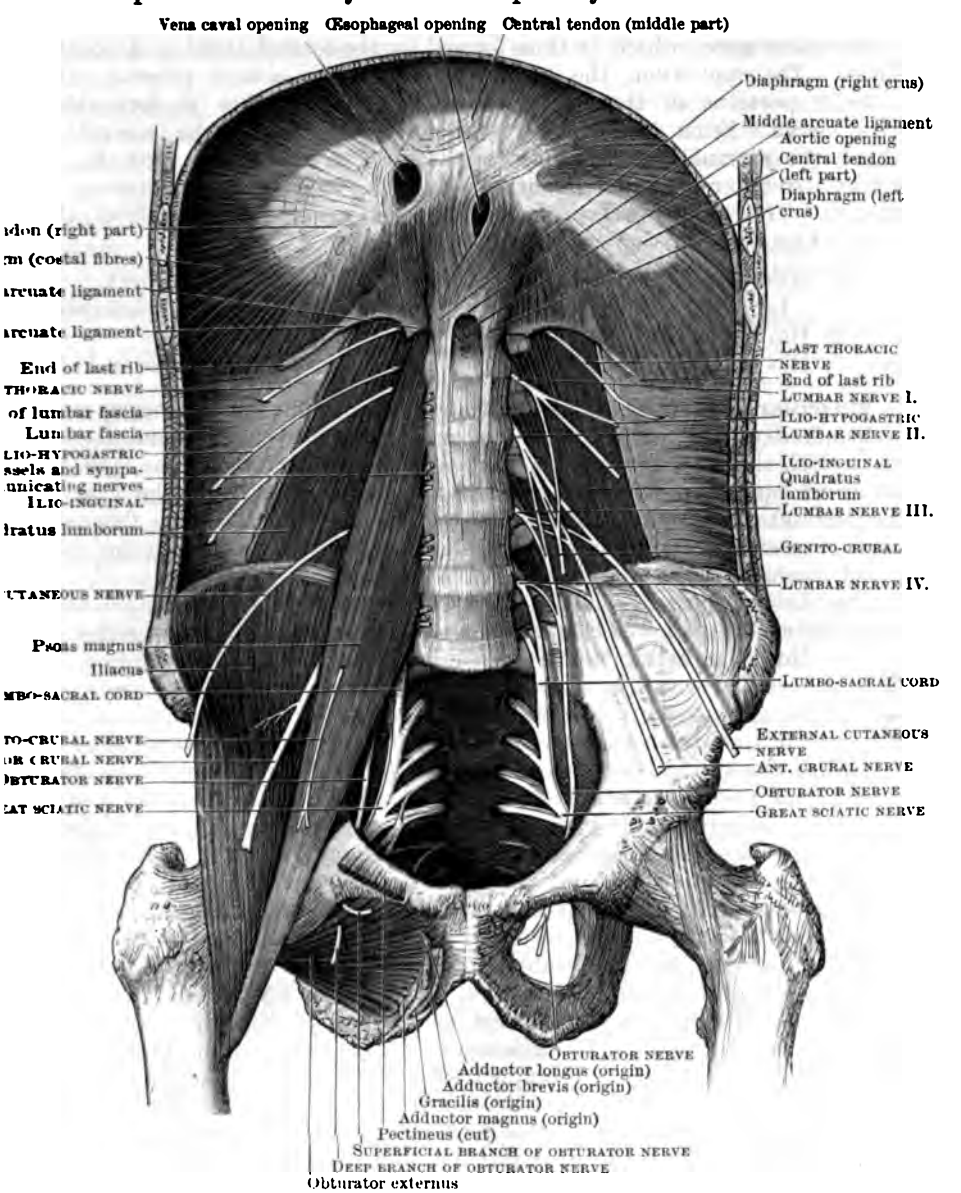
FIG. 504.—NERVES OF THE LUMBO-SACRAL PLEXUS.

Sy, Sympathetic cord; T.12, L.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, S.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Co, Anterior primary divisions of the last thoracic, the lumbar, sacral, and coccygeal nerves; Q, Nerves to quadratus lumborum; Ps, Nerves to psoas muscle; G.C, Genito-crural nerve; Il, Iliac branches of last thoracic and ilio-hypogastric nerves: Hy, Hypogastric branch of Ilio-hypogastric nerve; I.I, Ilio-inguinal nerve; E.C, External cutaneous nerve; A.C, Anterior crural nerve; Obt, Obturator nerve; Py, Nerves to pyriformis muscle; O.I, Nerve to obturator internus; Q.F, Nerve to quadratus femoris muscle; Art, Articular branch; S.G, Superior gluteal nerve; I.G, Inferior gluteal nerve; P, Peroneal nerve; Bi.2, Nerve to short head of biceps muscle; T, Tibial nerve; Art, Articular branch; H.S, Nerve to the hamstring muscles; Bi.1, Nerve to biceps (long head), and St.1, to semitendinosus; St.2, Semitendinosus; Sm, Semimembranosus; A.m, Adductor magnus; S.Sc, Small sciatic nerve; Perf, Perforating cutaneous nerve; Pud, Pudic nerve; M. Muscular branches; Per, Perineal branch of fourth sacral; A.Co, Anterior sacro-coccygeal nerve.

are directed forwards, either independently or incorporated with the corresponding **ımi, to join** the upper part of the lumbar gangliated cord. The fifth lumbar nerve **e first sacral** nerves are unprovided with white rami communicantes. From the **ınd usually** also the second or fourth sacral nerves, white rami (visceral branches) **ıwards, and,** crossing over (without joining) the gangliated cord, enter the pelvic of the sympathetic. The fifth sacral and coccygeal nerves possess no white rami **ınicantes.**

THE LUMBAR PLEXUS.

ıe lumbar plexus is formed by the anterior primary divisions of the first three



505.—VIEW OF THE POSTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL, TO SHOW THE MUSCLES AND THE NERVES OF THE LUMBO-SACRAL PLEXUS.

ı part of the fourth lumbar nerves, with the addition, in some cases, of a small **:h from** the twelfth thoracic nerve. The nerves increase in size from above **wards** (Fig. 505).

osition and Constitution.—The plexus is placed deeply in the substance of **soas muscle,** in front of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ. The

nerves, on emerging from the intervertebral foramina, are connected as al described with the sympathetic system, and then divide in the following manne the substance of the psoas muscle. The first and second nerves divide into u and lower branches. The upper branch of the first nerve (which may be joine the branch from the twelfth thoracic nerve) forms two nerves, **ilio-hypogastric ilio-inguinal**. The lower branch of the first joins the upper branch of the se nerve, to produce the **genito-crural nerve**. The lower branch of the second n the whole of the third, and that part of the fourth nerve engaged in the stitution of the plexus divide each into two unequal parts—smaller *anterior* larger *posterior parts*. The smaller anterior portions combine together to f the **obturator nerve**, which is thus formed by the second, third, and fourth lur nerves. The root from the second nerve is not always present. The la posterior portions of the same nerves combine together to form the ant **crural nerve**. From the back of the posterior parts of the second and t nerves, the **external cutaneous nerve** arises. The nerves also provide, near t origins, irregular **muscular branches**, for the psoas and quadratus lumb muscles. The following is a list of the nerves which spring from the lu plexus (Figs. 504 and 505):—

(1) Muscular branches to the quadratus lumborum and psoas.
(2) Ilio-hypogastric.
(3) Ilio-inguinal.
(4) Genito-crural.
(5) External cutaneous.
(6) Obturator.
(7) Anterior crural.

Muscular Branches.—The nerves to the **quadratus lumborum muscle** independently from the first three or four lumbar nerves (and sometimes also the twelfth thoracic nerve). The nerves to the **psoas muscles** arise from the se and third lumbar nerves, with additions, in some cases, from the first or fo They are often associated in their origin with the nerve to the iliacus from anterior crural. The **psoas minor**, when present, is innervated by the fir second lumbar nerve.

The ilio-hypogastric and ilio-inguinal nerves closely resemble in their c and distribution the lower thoracic nerves, with which they are in series.

The **ilio-hypogastric nerve** (n. ilio-hypogastricus) is the highest branc the first lumbar nerve. It receives fibres also from the twelfth thoracic, when nerve communicates with the first lumbar nerve. After traversing the psoas m obliquely, it appears at its outer border on the surface of the quadratus lumb and behind the kidney. It courses through the loin, lying between the transve and obliquus internus muscles, above the crest of the ilium. About an inch in fr the anterior superior spine it pierces the obliquus internus, and continues its c in the groin beneath the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus. It finally bec cutaneous in the anterior abdominal wall, by piercing the aponeurosis of the obli externus about an inch and a half above the external abdominal ring (Fig. 507 p.

Its **branches** are—(1) *muscular* to the muscles of the abdominal wall; an *cutaneous branches*, two in number. The **iliac branch** corresponds with the la branch of an intercostal nerve, and, after piercing the obliquus internus obliquus externus, becomes cutaneous just above the iliac crest, below and be the iliac branch of the last thoracic nerve. It is small, and may be absent. distributed to the skin over the upper part of the outer side of the buttock, in tinuity with the cutaneous branch of the posterior primary division of the lumbar nerve. The **hypogastric branch** is the anterior terminal branch of the n It supplies the skin of the anterior abdominal wall below the level of the thoracic nerve and above the pubis.

The **ilio-inguinal nerve** (n. ilio-inguinalis) is the second branch give from the first lumbar nerve. It also may receive fibres from the last thc nerve. Not unfrequently the ilio-hypogastric and ilio-inguinal nerves are r sented for a longer or shorter part of their course by a single trunk. When sep the nerve takes a course similar to that of the ilio-hypogastric nerve, but at a level, as far as the anterior abdominal wall. It then pierces the obliquus int farther forward and lower down than the ilio-hypogastric; and coursing for

neath the aponeurosis of the obliquus externus, just above Poupart's ligament, it omes superficial after passing through the external abdominal ring and external rmatic fascia (Fig. 507, p. 645).

Its branches are *muscular* to the muscles of the abdominal wall, among which it nes, and *cutaneous branches*, which innervate the skin (1) of the anterior abdominal ll over the symphysis pubis, (2) of the thigh over the upper and inner part of arpa's triangle, and (3) of the upper part of the scrotum, and root and dorsum of e penis (of the mons Veneris and labium majus in the female). These last-named anches are contiguous to branches of the pudendal and pudic nerves. No lateral taneous branch arises from the ilio-inguinal nerve. It thus corresponds, like the pogastric part of the ilio-hypogastric nerve, to the anterior trunk of a typical oracic nerve.

The genito-crural nerve (n. genito-femoralis) usually arises by two independent ots from the front of the first and second lumbar nerves, which unite in the substance the psoas to form a slender trunk. It appears on the posterior abdominal wall, ing on the psoas magnus, internal to the psoas parvus, and, piercing the psoas scia, it extends downwards on the outer side of the common and external iliac vessels d behind the ureter to Poupart's ligament (Fig. 505, p. 641). At a variable point ove that ligament it divides into genital and crural branches. The **genital branch** a minute nerve. It crosses the terminations of the external iliac vessels, and, ong with the vas deferens and spermatic vessels, enters the inguinal canal through e internal abdominal ring. It terminates by supplying small branches to the in of the scrotum and adjacent part of the thigh. In the female it accompanies e round ligament to the labium majus. This nerve gives off in its course the llowing small branches: (1) to the external iliac artery; (2) to the cremaster uscle; (3) to communicate with the spermatic plexus of the sympathetic. The ural branch continues the course of the parent nerve into the thigh, lying on the ter side of the femoral artery. It becomes cutaneous by passing through the phenous opening or the iliac portion of the fascia lata, and supplies an area of in over Scarpa's triangle, external to that supplied by the ilio-inguinal nerve Fig. 507, p. 645). It communicates in the thigh with the middle cutaneous anch of the anterior crural nerve. Before piercing the deep fascia it gives a inute branch to the femoral artery.

The **external cutaneous nerve** (n. cutaneus femoris lateralis) is only distributed to skin (Fig. 505). It arises from the back of the lumbar plexus, and usually om the second and third lumbar nerves. Emerging from the psoas muscle at its ter border, the nerve crosses the iliacus muscle, beneath the fascia iliaca, to reach he anterior superior iliac spine. It enters the thigh beneath the outer extremity f Poupart's ligament, and either over, under, or through the origin of the sartorius uscle. It extends down the outer side of the front of the thigh for a few inches, ying at first beneath the fascia lata, and afterwards in a tubular investment of the scia. It gives off small branches in this part of its course, and finally, piercing the scia about four inches below the anterior superior iliac spine, it separates into anterior nd posterior terminal branches. The **anterior branch** is the larger, and is distributed n the outer side of the front of the thigh almost to the knee. The smaller **posterior anch** supplies the skin of the outer side of the buttock below the great trochanter nd of the upper two-thirds of the outer side of the thigh (Fig. 507, p. 645).

Obturator Nerve.

The **obturator nerve** (n. obturatorius) supplies the muscles and skin on the inner side of the thigh. It arises in the substance of the psoas muscle by three roots placed in front of those of the anterior crural nerve, and derived from the second, third, and fourth lumbar nerves (Fig. 505, p. 641). Sometimes the root from the second nerve is absent. Passing vertically downwards, the nerve emerges from the psoas at its inner border, behind the common iliac, and on the outer side of the internal iliac vessels. It passes forwards below the pelvic brim in company with the obturator artery to the obturator groove of the thyroid foramen, through which it reaches the thigh. While in the obturator groove it separates into its two main branches, named superficial and deep (Fig. 506, p. 644).

The **superficial branch** enters the thigh in front of the obturator externus adductor brevis muscles, and beneath the pectineus and adductor longus. In middle third of the thigh it is found coursing along the inner border of the adductor longus, anterior to the gracilis; and it finally divides into two slender terminal filaments, of which one enters Hunter's canal and ends on the femoral artery, while the other supplies the skin for a variable distance on the inner side of the thigh joins in the obturator (sub-sartorial) plexus.

The branches of the superficial part of the nerve are:—

1. An **articular branch** to the hip-joint which arises from the nerve as soon it enters the thigh, and supplies the joint through the acetabular notch.

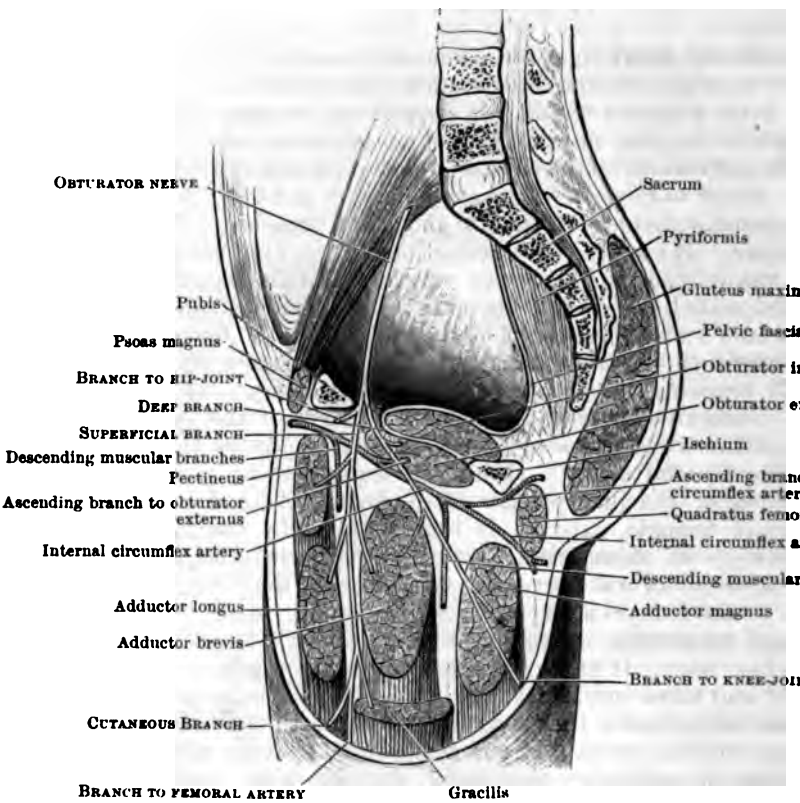


Fig. 506.—Scheme of the Course and Distribution of the Obturator Nerve.

2. **Muscular branches** to the adductor longus, gracilis, adductor brevis (usually), pectineus (occasionally). The last-named muscle is not usually supplied from the obturator nerve.

3. A **cutaneous branch** of very variable size forms one of the terminal branches (Fig. 507). It becomes superficial between the gracilis and adductor longus, in the middle third of the thigh, and may supply the skin of the lower two-thirds of the thigh in its inner side. It is generally of small size, and is connected with branches of the internal cutaneous and internal saphenous nerves behind the sartorius muscle to form the **obturator (sub-sartorial) plexus.** The branch from the internal saphenous nerve to the plexus passes inwards behind the sartorius after piercing the aponeurotic covering of Hunter's canal. The branch from the internal cutaneous nerve is generally superficial at the point of formation of the plexus.

4. The **branch to the femoral artery** is the other terminal branch of the nerve. It enters Hunter's canal along the inner edge of the adductor longus, and ramifies over the lower part of the artery.

5. A fine **communicating branch** sometimes joins the anterior crural nerve in front of the hip-joint.

The **deep part of the obturator nerve** reaches the thigh by piercing the

externus muscle. It passes downwards between the adductor brevis and **magnus muscles.** After passing obliquely he adductor magnus, it appears in the popliteal he popliteal vessels, and terminates by piercing rior ligament and supplying the knee-joint. ranches are:—(1) **muscular branches** to the externus, adductor magnus, and (when the not supplied by the superficial part of the adductor brevis. The branch to the obturator arises before the nerve enters the muscle, in rator groove. The nerve to the adductor is given off as the obturator nerve passes he substance of the muscle. (2) An **articular** ranch is supplied to the back of the knee-joint.

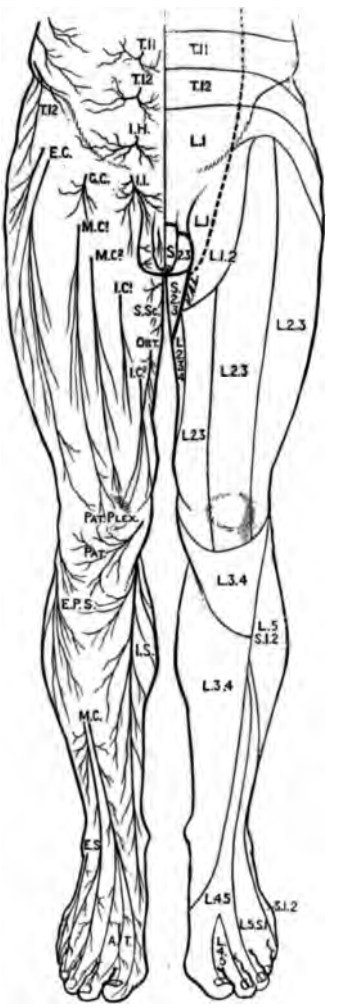


FIG. 507.—DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES ON THE FRONT OF THE LOWER LIMB.

On the one side the distribution of the several nerves is represented, the letters indicating their nomenclature.

T.11, Branches of eleventh thoracic nerve; T.12, Branches of twelfth thoracic nerve; I.H, Ilio-hypogastric; I.I, Ilio-inguinal; E.C, External cutaneous; G.C, Genito-crural; $M.C^{1,2}$, Middle cutaneous; $I.C^{1,2}$, Internal cutaneous; OBT, Obturator; S.Sc, Small sciatic; PAT. PLEX, Patellar plexus; PAT. Patellar branch of internal saphenous; E.P.S, Sural branches of peroneal nerve; I.S, Internal saphenous; M.C, Musculo-cutaneous; E.S, External saphenous; A.T, Anterior tibial.

On the other side a schematic representation is given of the areas supplied by the above nerves, the figures indicating the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area.

ANTERIOR CRURAL NERVE.

nterior crural nerve (n. femoralis) is the ve for the muscles and skin of the front of . It arises in the substance of the psoas rom the back of the second, third, and fourth nerves, behind the obturator nerve. Passing through the psoas muscle, it emerges from border in the false pelvis (Fig. 505, p. 641). lownwards in the groove between the psoas us, it enters the thigh beneath Poupart's liga- ternal to the femoral sheath and femoral In Scarpa's triangle it breaks up into a large of branches, among which the external cir- artery passes.

branches of the anterior crural nerve, which muscular, (2) articular, and (3) cutaneous, the following way:—

he abdomen a muscular branch arises from r side of the nerve and enters the iliacus

Scarpa's triangle the terminal muscular, , and cutaneous branches arise in the form e bundle of nerves.

he **muscular branches** supply the pectineus, , and quadriceps extensor. The nerve to the s arises close to Poupart's ligament, and obliquely downwards and inwards behind oral vessels enters the muscle at its outer It is not infrequently double. It some- ves off a fine communicating branch to the al part of the obturator nerve. The nerves *rtorius* are in two sets: an outer short set of ssociated with the outer part of the middle is nerve, which enter the upper part of the and an inner longer set which are associated e inner part of the middle cutaneous nerve, ply the middle of the muscle. The parts of *driceps extensor* are supplied by several s. The vastus externus and rectus femoris plied on their deep surface by separate nerves re accompanied by branches of the external ex artery. The crureus muscle is supplied ally by a nerve which passes through the and innervates also the subcrureus. It also receives fibres from one of

the nerves to the vastus internus. The vastus internus muscle is supplied b nerves: an upper trunk, which supplies the higher part of the muscle, and sends to the crureus as well; and a lower trunk, which descends on the outer side femoral artery along with the internal saphenous nerve, and passing beneat sartorius, over or under the aponeurotic covering of Hunter's canal, enters the side of the vastus internus muscle. This nerve gives off a small branch which the medullary canal of the femur.

2. The **articular branches** supply the hip and knee-joints. The articular bra the hip-joint arises from the nerve to the rectus femoris, and is accompani branches from the external circumflex artery. The articular branches to the joint are four in number. Three of them arise from the nerves to the vastus ext crureus, and vastus internus, which, after the muscular nerves are given o continued downwards to the knee-joint along the front of the femur. A f articular branch arises (sometimes) from the internal saphenous nerve.

3. The **cutaneous branches** are the middle and internal cutaneous, an internal saphenous nerves (Fig. 507).

The **middle cutaneous nerve** arises in two parts, an *external* and an *in branch*, in the upper part of Scarpa's triangle. The two branches descend vert and become cutaneous by piercing the fascia lata over the upper third o sartorius muscle. They carry muscular branches to the sartorius, and the ext branch in many cases pierces the muscle. These two nerves supply the sk the lower three-fourths of the front of the thigh, between the external cuta nerve on the outer side and the internal cutaneous on the inner side. reach down to the front of the patella, and there assist in the formation o patellar plexus. The external branch communicates in the upper third o thigh with twigs from the crural branch of the genito-crural nerve.

The **internal cutaneous nerve** lies at first in Scarpa's triangle on the outs of the femoral vessels. At the apex of the triangle it crosses over the femoral ve and is directed downwards over or through the sartorius muscle, and beneat fascia lata, to the lower third of the thigh. It is distributed to the skin o lower two-thirds of the thigh on the inner side by means of three branches—u middle, and lower.

The *upper branch* may be represented by two or more twigs. It arises fro main nerve near its origin, and pierces the fascia lata near the apex of Sc triangle. It is distributed to the skin of the upper part of the thigh, alon line of the saphenous vein. The *middle* or *anterior branch* is a larger nerv separates from the lower branch at the apex of Scarpa's triangle, and passing the sartorius muscle becomes cutaneous in the middle third of the thigh o inner side. It supplies the skin of the lower half of the thigh on the inner extending as low as the knee, where it joins in the formation of the patellar p

The *lower* or *internal branch* represents the termination of the nerve. It down the inner side of the thigh over the sartorius muscle, and communica the middle third of the thigh with the internal saphenous and obturator ner form the obturator plexus. Piercing the fascia lata on the inner side of the in the lower third, it ramifies over the inner side of the knee, and assists i formation of the patellar plexus.

The size of the internal cutaneous nerve varies with the size of the cuta part of the obturator, and of the internal saphenous nerve.

The **long** or **internal saphenous nerve** (n. saphenus) may be regarded a terminal branch of the anterior crural nerve. It is destined for the skin of th and foot. From its origin in Scarpa's triangle it descends alongside the fe vessels to Hunter's canal. In the canal it crosses over the femoral sheath without inwards. At the lower end of the canal, accompanied by the supe branch of the anastomotic artery, it passes over the tendon of the adductor ma and opposite the inner side of the knee-joint becomes cutaneous by passing be the sartorius and gracilis muscles. The nerve then extends down the leg with the internal saphenous vein, and coursing over the front of the inner an terminates at the middle of the inner border of the foot.

Branches.—1. A **communicating branch** arises in Hunter's canal, and p

beneath the sartorius joins with branches of the obturator nerve in forming
ator plexus.

e **patellar branch** arises at the lower end of Hunter's canal, and piercing the
muscle is directed downwards and forwards below the patella, and over
tuberosity of the tibia to the front of the knee and upper part of the
enters into the formation of the patellar plexus.

articular branch sometimes arises from the nerve at the inner side of the knee.

e **terminal branches** of the internal saphenous nerve are distributed to the
he front and inner side of the leg, and the posterior half of the dorsum
r side of the foot.

llar plexus.—This plexus consists of fine communications beneath the
ront of the knee, between the branches of the cutaneous nerves supplying
on. The nerves which enter into its formation are the patellar branch of
nal saphenous, internal and middle cutaneous nerves, and sometimes the
cutaneous nerve.

cessory obturator nerve (n. obturatorius accessorius, n. accessorius anterioris cruralis is only occasionally present (29 per cent, Eisler). It arises from the third, or third and
abar nerves, between the roots of the obturator and anterior crural nerves. Associating
the obturator, from which, however, it is quite separable, it appears in the abdomen
er side of the psoas muscle, and coursing over the pelvic brim behind the external iliac
leaves the obturator nerve, and enters the thigh in front of the pubis.
thigh, behind the femoral vessels, it usually ends in three branches: a nerve which
he branch from the anterior crural to the pectineus, a nerve to the hip-joint, and a
ch communicates with the superficial part of the obturator nerve. In some cases it
lies the nerve to the pectineus; more rarely it is of considerable size, and reinforces the
nerve in the innervation of the adductor muscles.
cessory obturator nerve was first described by Winslow as the *n. accessorius anterioris*
Schmidt later described it in great detail, and gave it the name it now bears. It is
ly associated with the anterior crural than with the obturator. Its origin is behind
of the obturator: it is separated, like the anterior crural, from the obturator by the
e, and its chief branch, to the pectineus muscle, replaces the normal branch from the
rural nerve. On the other hand, for a part of its course it accompanies the obturator,
e cases it may replace branches of that nerve.

THE SACRAL OR SCIATIC PLEXUS.

sacral or sciatic portion of the lumbo-sacral plexus is destined almost
for the lower limb. It is usually formed by the anterior primary divisions
of the fourth lumbar nerve (n. furcalis), the fifth lumbar, the first, and
the second, and third sacral nerves (n. bigeminus).

munications with the Sympathetic.—Each of the nerves named is connected
nbar or pelvic sympathetic by *gray rami communicantes*, as already described;
e *rami communicantes* pass usually from the third and usually also from the
fourth sacral nerves to join the pelvic plexus of the sympathetic.

tion and Constitution.—The plexus is placed on the back wall of the
tween the parietal pelvic fascia and the pyriformis muscle. In front of it
pelvic colon, the internal iliac vessels, and the ureter.

plexus is constituted by the convergence of the nerves concerned towards
r part of the great sacro-sciatic foramen, and their union to form a broad
ar band, the apex of which is continued through the great sacro-sciatic
below the pyriformis muscle into the buttock, as the **great sciatic nerve.**
e anterior and posterior surfaces of this triangular band numerous small
arise, which are distributed to the parts in the neighbourhood of the
the nerve.

great sciatic nerve ends in the thigh by dividing into two large nerves, the
ternal popliteal), and **peroneal** (external popliteal). In many cases these
es are distinct from their origin, and are separated sometimes by fibres
yriformis muscle. In all cases on removal of the sheath investing the
atic nerve the tibial and peroneal nerves can be traced up to the plexus,
ich they invariably take origin by distinct and separate roots.

descending branch of the fourth lumbar nerve (n. furcalis) after emerging
inner border of the psoas muscle internal to the obturator nerve, divides

behind the iliac vessels into anterior and posterior (ventral and dorsal) parts, e of which joins a corresponding part of the fifth lumbar nerve. The ant primary division of the fifth lumbar nerve descends over the ala of the sacrum, divides into anterior and posterior parts, which are joined by the corresponding p of the fourth lumbar nerve. The two resulting trunks are sometimes called lumbo-sacral cord. The first and second sacral nerves pass almost horizontally o wards from the anterior sacral foramina, and divide in front of the pyriformis i similar anterior and posterior parts. The third sacral nerve (n. bigeminus) div into upper and lower parts. The lower part is concerned in forming the pude plexus. The upper part is directed outwards, and slightly upwards, towards preceding nerve, and does not separate into two parts, but remains undivided.

These trunks combine to form the sciatic or sacral plexus, and its main a divisions, in the following way. Lying in apposition, and converging to the lo part of the great sacro-sciatic foramen, the *posterior* (dorsal) *trunks* of the fourth fifth lumbar nerves (lumbo-sacral cord), and of the first and second sacral ner combine to form the **peroneal nerve** and the subordinate nerves which arise from posterior aspect of the plexus. The *anterior* (ventral) *trunks* of the fourth and f lumbar nerves (lumbo-sacral cord), and of the first and second sacral nerves, toge with that part of the third sacral nerve which is contributed to the plexus, unit form the **tibial nerve** and the subordinate nerves arising from the front of the ple

Of these nerves the fifth lumbar and first sacral are the largest; the oth diminishing in size as they are traced upwards and downwards. There is distinct demarcation between the sacral and pudendal plexuses. The second third sacral nerves (and in some cases the first sacral also) are concerned in formation of both plexuses.

Branches.—The nerves of distribution derived from the sacral plexus divided according to their origin into an *anterior* (ventral) and a *posterior* (dor *series*. Each set comprises one of the two essential terminal parts—peroneal tibial nerves—of the great sciatic, and numerous smaller collateral branches.

Anterior Branches.	**Posterior Branches.**
Tibial (internal popliteal) nerve	Peroneal (external popliteal) nerve
Muscular branches—	*Muscular branches*—
Nerves to hamstring muscles	Nerves to short head of biceps
,, quadratus femoris	,, pyriformis
,, gemelli	Superior gluteal nerve
,, obturator internus	Inferior gluteal nerve
Articular branches (to hip-joint)	*Articular branches* (to knee-joint)

Great Sciatic Nerve.

The **great sciatic nerve** (n. ischiadicus).—It has already been shown this nerve is formed. It comprises the two main nerves of the sacral plexus, bo together by an investing sheath, which contains, in addition to the peroneal tibial nerves, a subordinate branch of each, the nerve to the hamstring mus from the tibial, and the nerve to the short head of the biceps flexor cruris, the peroneal nerve. A thick band about half an inch in breadth is formed, sisting from within outwards of (1) **nerves to the hamstring muscles**, (2) t (internal popliteal), (3) **peroneal** (external popliteal), (4) **nerve to the short head o biceps muscle**. The great sciatic nerve extends through the buttock and the of the thigh. Forming a continuation of the sacral plexus, it enters the but by passing through the great sacro-sciatic foramen, in the interval between pyriformis and superior gemellus. Concealed by the gluteus maximus musc passes downwards to the thigh, accompanied by the sciatic artery, and the ar comes nervi ischiadici. It lies in the hollow between the great trochanter of femur and the tuberosity of the ischium, and enters the thigh beneath the fold of nates at the lower border of the gluteus maximus. At this spot it is comparati superficial, lying in the angle between the edge of the gluteus maximus above externally, and the origins of the hamstring muscles internally. In the thig is placed upon the adductor magnus beneath the hamstring muscles, an terminates at a variable point by dividing into the tibial and peroneal nerves.

already stated, these two nerves may be separate from their origins, and their separation may occur at any point between the great sacro-sciatic foramen and the upper part of the popliteal space.

The Nerves of Distribution from the Sacral Plexus.

These are divisible into two series—**collateral** and **terminal branches**. Each subdivision consists of a series of *anterior* (ventral) and *posterior* (dorsal) *trunks*.

Collateral Branches.—The *anterior branches* are (*a*) muscular branches (to the quadratus femoris, gemelli, obturator internus, and hamstring muscles); and (*b*) articular branches (to the hip-joint). These nerves all arise from the anterior aspect of the sacral plexus.

The nerve to the quadratus femoris (and **inferior gemellus**) arises from the front of the fourth and fifth lumbar and first sacral nerves. It passes downwards over the back of the capsule of the hip-joint (to which it sends a fine branch) beneath the sacral plexus, gemelli, and obturator internus muscles. It supplies a nerve to the inferior gemellus, and terminates in the deep surface of the quadratus femoris.

The nerve to the obturator internus (and **superior gemellus**) arises from the anterior aspect of the fifth lumbar and first two sacral nerves. In the buttock it lies below the great sciatic nerve on the outer side of the pudic vessels; crossing the ischial spine, it enters the ischio-rectal fossa through the lesser sciatic foramen. The nerve supplies in the buttock a branch to the superior gemellus, and terminates by entering the pelvic surface of the obturator internus.

The nerve to the hamstring muscles forms the innermost part of the great sciatic trunk in the lower part of the buttock. It arises from all the roots of the tibial nerve on their anterior aspect, viz., from the fourth and fifth lumbar and the first three sacral nerves. These roots unite to form a cord which is closely associated with the tibial nerve and is placed in front of and afterwards on its inner side. Extending into the thigh, the trunk is distributed to the hamstring muscles by means of two sets of branches. Just below the level of the ischial tuberosity an upper set of nerves passes inwards to enter the upper part of the semi-tendinosus and the ischial head of the biceps. Lower down in the thigh the remaining portion of the nerve separates off from the great sciatic (tibial) trunk and supplies branches to the semi-membranosus, the lower part of the semi-tendinosus, and the adductor magnus.

Articular branches for the hip-joint arise from the nerve to the quadratus femoris, and often directly from the front of the great sciatic (tibial) nerve near its origin. They enter the back of the capsule of the joint in the region of the buttock.

The *posterior branches* are: (*a*) muscular branches, viz. a nerve to the pyriformis, the superior gluteal nerve, the inferior gluteal nerve, and a nerve to the short head of the biceps; (*b*) articular branches (to the knee-joint).

These nerves all arise from the posterior aspect of those roots of the sacral plexus, which are associated with the origin of the peroneal nerve.

The nerve to the pyriformis muscle may be double. It arises from the back of the second, or first and second sacral nerves, and at once enters the anterior surface of the muscle.

The superior gluteal nerve (n. glutæus superior) arises from the back of the fourth and fifth lumbar and first sacral nerves, and is directed backwards and outwards into the buttock, above the pyriformis muscle, along with the gluteal artery. Under cover of the gluteus maximus and gluteus medius, it extends outwards over the gluteus minimus, along with the inferior part of the deep gluteal artery, to the under surface of the tensor vaginæ femoris, in which it ends. On its way it supplies branches to the gluteus medius and gluteus minimus.

The inferior gluteal nerve (n. glutæus inferior) arises from the back of the fifth lumbar and first two sacral nerves. It appears in the buttock at the lower border of the pyriformis muscle, superficial to the great sciatic nerve, and at once breaks up into a number of branches for the supply of the gluteus maximus. In its course in the buttock it is closely associated with the small sciatic nerve. Its origin is sometimes combined with that of the following nerve.

The nerve to the short head of the biceps springs from the outer side of the

great sciatic (peroneal) trunk in the upper part of the thigh. When traced to its origin, it is found to arise (sometimes in combination with the inferior gluteal nerve) from the fifth lumbar and first two sacral nerves. In its course it is closely applied to the outer side of the peroneal nerve, from which it separates in the middle third of the thigh, usually in combination with the articular branches of that nerve for the knee-joint. In some cases it has an independent course in the thigh, and it may be associated in the buttock with the inferior gluteal nerve.

An articular branch for the outer side and front of the knee-joint generally arises from the great sciatic or peroneal nerve in common with the nerve to the short head of the biceps. When traced up to the plexus, it is found to arise from the back of the fourth and fifth lumbar and first sacral nerves. It passes through the upper part of the popliteal space concealed by the biceps muscle, and separates into upper and lower branches, which accompany the upper and lower external articular arteries to the outer side of the knee-joint.

Terminal Branches.—The **peroneal** (external popliteal) and **tibial** (internal popliteal) **nerves** are the two main trunks resulting from the combination of the posterior and anterior cords respectively of the sacral plexus. The peroneal nerve is homologous with the musculo-spiral nerve in the upper limb; the tibial nerve represents a medio-ulnar trunk; and, as already stated, the two nerves, constituting the great sciatic nerve, are enveloped in a common sheath for a variable distance before pursuing an independent course in the leg.

Peroneal Nerve.

The **peroneal** or **external popliteal nerve** (n. peronæus communis) arises from the back of the sacral plexus from the fourth and fifth lumbar and first two sacral nerves. Incorporated with the great sciatic nerve in the buttock and upper half of the thigh, it passes downwards from the bifurcation of that nerve through the popliteal space, to its termination at a point about an inch below the head of the fibula. It is concealed at first by the biceps muscle. Following the tendon of that muscle, it passes obliquely through the upper and outer part of the popliteal space and over the outer head of the gastrocnemius muscle to the back of the head of the fibula. In the lower part of its course and at its termination it is directly beneath the deep fascia.

Collateral Branches.—These are divided into two sets: (*a*) Nerves arising from the roots or trunk of the nerve while it is in combination with the tibial nerve in the great sciatic trunk. These have been already described, viz. a **muscular branch** to the short head of the biceps, and an **articular branch** to the knee-joint. (*b*) Nerves arising in the popliteal space. These are **cutaneous branches**, viz. a sural branch and the peroneal communicating.

The **sural branch** (n. cutaneus suræ lateralis) is irregular in size and distribution, and may be represented by two or more branches (Fig. 507, p. 645). Arising from the peroneal nerve in the popliteal space, often in common with the succeeding nerve, it pierces the deep fascia over the outer head of the gastrocnemius, and is distributed to the skin on the outer aspect of the back of the leg in the upper two-thirds. The extent of its distribution varies with that of the small sciatic and external saphenous nerves.

The **peroneal communicating nerve** (r. anastomoticus peronæus, r. communicans fibularis), arising in the popliteal space, passes over the outer head of the gastrocnemius beneath the deep fascia to the middle third of the leg, where it assists in forming the external saphenous nerve by its union with the tibial communicating branch of the tibial nerve. In many cases the two branches do not unite. In such cases the peroneal communicating nerve may be limited in its distribution to the skin of the outer side of the leg, heel, and ankle, or it may be distributed to the area usually supplied by the external saphenous nerve.

Terminal Branches.—The terminal branches of the peroneal nerve are recurrent tibial, anterior tibial, and musculo-cutaneous. They arise just below the head of the fibula, and are directed forwards, diverging in their course, beneath the peroneus longus muscle.

The **recurrent tibial nerve** is the smallest branch. Passing forwards beneath

in of the peroneus longus and the extensor longus digitorum muscles, it below the outer tuberosity of the tibia into branches which supply the upper the tibialis anticus muscle, the tibio-fibular articulation, and the knee-joint.

Anterior Tibial Nerve.

anterior tibial nerve (n. peronæus profundus) passes downwards and ineneath the peroneus longus, extensor longus digitorum, and extensor proprius muscles, to the front of the leg. In its course down the leg it is deeply ıpon the interosseous membrane and the lower part of the tibia, in company ɜ anterior tibial artery. At the ankle it lies beneath the anterior annular t and the tendon of the extensor proprius hallucis, and crossing over the int, it divides on the dorsum of the foot into its terminal branches.

ollateral Branches (in the leg).—These are given off to the muscles between he anterior tibial nerve passes: tibialis anticus, extensor proprius hallucis, · longus digitorum, and peroneus tertius. A fine articular branch supplies le-joint.

erminal Branches (on the foot).—The terminal branches are internal and . The **internal branch** passes along the dorsum of the foot on the outer he dorsalis pedis artery to the first interosseous space, where it divides into ıal digital branches for the supply of the skin of the outer side of the great the inner side of the second toe. Each of these ɜ communicates with branches of the musculo- ıs nerve. It gives off one or two *dorsal interbranches*, which supply the inner tarso-metatarsal tatarso-phalangeal articulations, and also enter the sal interosseous muscle.

external branch passes outwards over the tarsus the extensor brevis digitorum, and ends in a rm enlargement (similar to the gangliform enlarge- the posterior interosseous nerve at the back of the From this enlargement muscular branches arise supply of the extensor brevis digitorum, along with ɜ for the tarsal, tarso-metatarsal, and metatarso- ɜal articulations. Its *dorsal interosseous branches* ıs many as four in number. Of these the outer two, ly small, may only reach the tarso-metatarsal ɜions. The inner two are fine branches, which, supplying the articulations, may give branches to nd and third dorsal interosseous muscles.

branches from the anterior tibial nerve to the ɔous muscles are probably sensory, the motor supply muscles being certainly derived from the external ıerve.

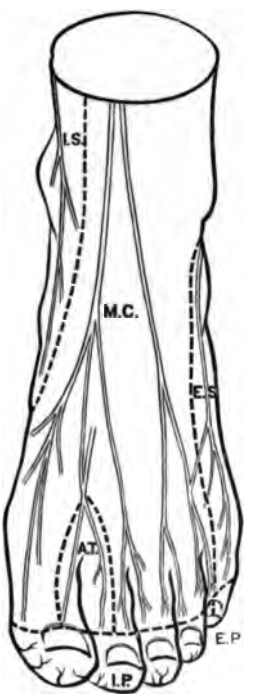


Fig. 508.—Distribution of Cutaneous Nerves on the Dorsum of the Foot.

I.S, Internal saphenous nerve; M.C, Musculo-cutaneous nerve; A.T, Anterior tibial nerve; E.S, External saphenous nerve. The extremities of the toes are supplied by the plantar nerves (I.P, E.P).

Musculo-Cutaneous Nerve.

musculo-cutaneous nerve (n. peronæus super- the last of the branches of the peroneal nerve, ɔlow the head of the fibula and beneath the upper the peroneus longus muscle. Lying in a sheath in rmuscular septum, between the peronei externally extensor longus digitorum internally, it proceeds ɔds in front of the fibula to the lower third of where it pierces the deep fascia in two branches, and external.

ɔranches are: (1) collateral muscular branches dis- to the peroneus longus and peroneus brevis, as the nerve lies in relation muscles; (2) terminal cutaneous branches, internal and external.

internal terminal branch courses downwards over the anterior annular liga-

ment of the ankle, and after supplying offsets to the lower third of the leg and dor of the foot, divides into three branches. (1) The internal branch supplies the s of the dorsum of the foot and the inner side of the great toe, and communic with the internal saphenous nerve. (2) The intermediate branch passes to interval between the great toe and the second, and divides into two branches wl communicate with the internal branch of the anterior tibial nerve. (3) external branch passes to the interval between the second and third toes, divides into two digital branches to supply the adjacent sides of these toes.

The **external terminal branch** of the nerve descends over the anterior ann ligament, and after supplying branches to the lower part of the leg and dorsum of the foot, divides into two parts, internal and external, which, passin the intervals between the third and fourth, and fourth and fifth toes respecti divide into dorsal digital branches for the adjacent sides of these toes. T branches communicate with offsets of the external saphenous nerve.

The arrangement of the cutaneous branches of the musculo-cutaneous is liable to conside variation. The outer division of the nerve may be increased in size, and may supply the s to the adjacent sides of the second and third toes; or in other cases, it may be reduced in si which case the external saphenous nerve takes its place on the dorsum of the foot, often supp as many as two and a half toes on the outer side.

The cutaneous nerves on the dorsum of the toes from the anterior tibial and musculo-cuta nerves are much smaller than the corresponding plantar digital nerves. They are reinforc the dorsum of the terminal phalanges by twigs from the plantar nerves, which supply the t the toes and the nails.

Tibial Nerve.

The **tibial** or **internal popliteal nerve** (n. tibialis) arises from the fro the sacral plexus, usually from the fourth and fifth lumbar and first three s nerves (Fig. 511, p. 656). It is incorporated in the great sciatic trunk in buttock and upper part of the thigh. At the bifurcation of the great sciatic n it passes onwards through the popliteal space and the back of the leg. The of the nerve from its origin from the plexus or the bifurcation of the great s nerve to the lower border of the popliteus muscle, is sometimes called int **popliteal**; the part of the nerve in the back of the leg being then desig **posterior tibial.** The course of the nerve through the buttock and thigh has al been described (p. 648). In the popliteal space it is concealed at first b semi-membranosus and other hamstring muscles. It crosses the popliteal v from without inwards, and is thereafter found upon the popliteus muscle, u cover of the gastrocnemius and plantaris. In the back of the leg, from the border of the popliteus muscle to the ankle, the tibial (or posterior tibial) lies on the tibialis posticus muscle and the tibia, and, along with the pos tibial vessels, occupies a sheath in the intermuscular septum separating the s ficial and deep muscles of the back of the leg. In the upper part of the le nerve is internal to the vessels, but, crossing over them, it lies on their outer in the lower portion of its course. It terminates beneath the internal an ligament by dividing into the external and internal plantar nerves.

The **collateral branches** may be divided into three series arising respect in the region of the thigh, the popliteal space, and the back of the leg:—

(a) *Branches arising from the Roots or Trunk of the Nerve while it is i porated with the Great Sciatic Nerve.*—These have been already described **muscular branches** to the quadratus femoris, gemelli, obturator internus, an hamstring muscles, and an **articular branch** to the hip-joint (Fig. 511, p. 656).

(b) *Branches arising in the Popliteal Space above the Knee-Joint.*—Thes in three sets—articular, muscular, cutaneous.

1. The **articular branches** are slender nerves, variable in number. The usually two, an *azygos* branch which pierces the posterior ligament of the joint, and an *internal* branch, a long fine nerve which, crossing the popliteal v descends on the inner side of the space to accompany the lower internal art artery to the knee-joint. In its course it gives off a branch, often absent, accompanies the upper internal articular artery.

2. The **muscular branches** are five in number. Nerves for the two heads gastrocnemius, and the plantaris enter these muscles at the borders of the po

nerve for the soleus enters the superficial surface of the muscle. A
ıe popliteus muscle passes over the surface of that muscle, and after
ınd its lower border, supplies it on its deep (anterior) surface. As this
beneath the popliteus it supplies branches
is posticus muscle, an interosseous branch
rosseous membrane, which can be traced as
ower tibio-fibular articulation, an articular
he upper tibio-fibular joint, and a medullary
he shaft of the tibia.

utaneous branch is the **tibial communicating**
communicans tibialis, n. cutaneus suræ
This nerve passes from the popliteal space
ve between the two heads of the gastro-
ıscle, and afterwards lies upon the tendo
; pierces the deep fascia in the middle third
k of the leg, and is joined immediately
by the peroneal communicating nerve
peroneal nerve. From their union the
short saphenous nerve results, which
e foot, winding round the back of the
lleolus along with the external saphenous
external saphenous nerve supplies cuta-
ches to the outer side and back of the
of the leg, the ankle and heel, and the
of the foot and little toe, as well as ar-
ches to the ankle and tarsal joints.

rnal saphenous nerve communicates on the
e musculo-cutaneous nerve, and its size varies
e of that nerve. It may extend on to the
ıe foot for a considerable distance, and may
rce or replace the branches of the musculo-
rve to the intervals between the fourth and
e third and fourth toes. The mode of forma-
ternal saphenous nerve is very variable. The
gement is that described. Frequently the
tibial communicating nerves do not unite,
cases the more usual arrangement is for the
unicating nerve to form alone the external
erve, the peroneal communicating nerve ex-
to the ankle and heel. It is less usual for
communicating nerve to form alone the ex-
ıous nerve, the tibial communicating nerve in
nding at the heel.

ıches arising in the Back of the Leg below
int.—These branches are mainly muscular
ous.

scular branches are four in number, com-
es to the soleus (entering its deep surface)
posticus, often arising by a common trunk,
to the flexor longus digitorum and flexor
ucis, the latter generally accompanying
l artery for some distance.

neous branch is the **internal calcanean nerve**
i mediales), which pierces the internal
ament, and is distributed to the skin of
l back part of the sole of the foot.

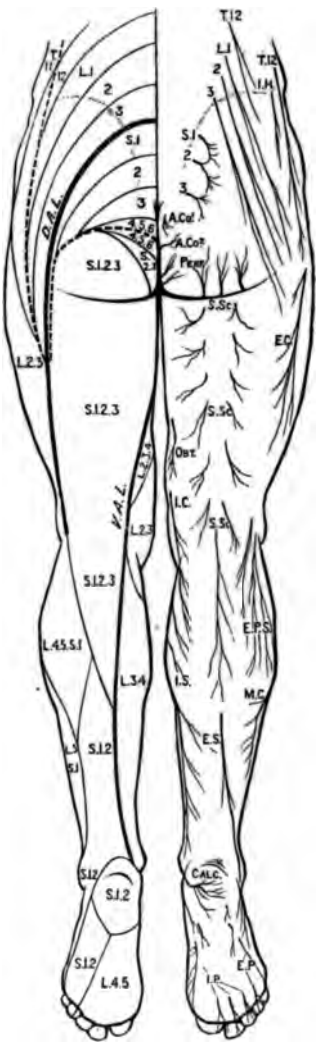


FIG. 509.—DISTRIBUTION OF CUTANEOUS NERVES ON THE BACK OF THE LOWER LIMB.

On the one side the distribution of the several nerves is represented, the letters indicating their nomenclature.

L.1, 2, 3, S.1, 2, 3, Posterior primary divisions of lumbar and sacral nerves; I.H, Ilio-hypogastric; T.12, Lateral and posterior branches of last thoracic nerve; A.Co¹, Posterior sacro-coccygeal nerve; A.Co², Anterior sacro-coccygeal nerve; PERF, Perforating cutaneous nerve; S.Sc, Small sciatic; E.C, External cutaneous; OBT, Obturator; I.C, Internal cutaneous; E.P.S, Sural branches of peroneal; I.S, Internal

ıs; E.S, External saphenous; M.C, Musculo-cutaneous; CALC, Calcanean branch of posterior
.P, Internal plantar; E.P, External plantar nerve.

le a schematic representation is given of the areas supplied by the above nerves, the figures
g the spinal origin of the branches of distribution to each area.

In addition a medullary nerve to the fibula, and a small articular bra the ankle-joint, are supplied by the posterior tibial nerve.

The **terminal branches of the tibial nerve** are the internal and ex plantar nerves.

Internal Plantar Nerve.

The **internal plantar nerve** (n. plantaris medialis) is homologous wit median nerve in the hand (Fig. 510, p. 654). It is rather larger than the ex plantar. It courses forwards in the sole of the foot beneath the internal a ligament and abductor hallucis to the interval between that muscle and the brevis digitorum, in company with the internal plantar artery.

The **collateral branches** are muscular, cutaneous, and articular. The *mu* branches supply the abductor hallucis and the flexor brevis digitorum. The p *cutaneous* branches are small twigs which pierce the plantar fascia in the in between these muscles to supply the inner part of the sole of the foot. Th *cular* branches are minute twigs which supply the inner tarsal and tarso-met articulations.

The **terminal branches** are four in number, and may be designate second, third, and fourth, from within outwards.

The **first** (most internal) branch separates from the nerve before the and pierces the plantar fascia behind the ball of th toe. It supplies a muscular branch to the flexor hallucis, and cutaneous branches to the inner side foot and ball of the great toe. It terminates plantar digital nerve for the inner side of the great

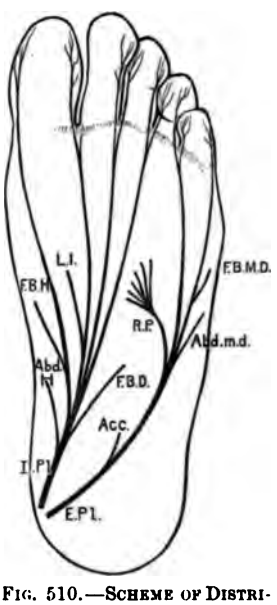


FIG. 510.—SCHEME OF DISTRIBUTION OF THE PLANTAR NERVES.

I.Pl, Internal plantar nerve, and its cutaneous and muscular branches; F.B.D, Flexor brevis digitorum; Abd.H, Abductor hallucis; F.B.H, Flexor brevis hallucis; L.I, First lumbricalis; E.Pl, External plantar nerve, and its cutaneous and muscular branches; Acc, Accessorius; Abd.m.d, Abductor minimi digiti; F.B.M.D, Flexor brevis minimi digiti; R.P, Ramus profundus.

The **second branch** arises along with the thi fourth; after supplying a branch to the first lu muscle, it becomes superficial in the interval betw first and second toes, and terminates by dividing i collateral digital nerves for the supply of the adjace of these toes.

The **third** and **fourth branches** are entirely cutan their distribution. They become superficial in the i between the second and third and the third and toes respectively, and there divide into collateral branches for the supply of the adjacent sides of the

The **plantar digital nerves** supply the whole le the toes on the plantar aspect, and, in relation terminal phalanges, furnish minute dorsal offsets supply of the nails and tips of the toes on thei surface. The internal plantar nerve thus supplies t of the three and a half inner toes in the sole of t and four muscles:—the abductor hallucis and flexo digitorum, the flexor brevis hallucis, and the first lu muscle.

External Plantar Nerve.

The **external plantar nerve** (n. plantaris la is homologous with the ulnar nerve in the hand. its origin beneath the internal annular ligam extends forwards and outwards in the sole, in c with the external plantar artery, between the flexo digitorum and accessorius muscles, towards the the fifth metatarsal bone. Here it terminates by d into superficial and deep branches.

Collateral Branches.—*Muscular branches* are given off from the undivide to the accessorius and abductor minimi digiti muscles. *Cutaneous b* pierce the plantar fascia at intervals along the line of the intermuscular between the flexor brevis digitorum and abductor minimi digiti.

Terminal Branches.—The **superficial branch** (r. superficialis) is mainly cut

ng forwards between the flexor brevis digitorum and abductor minimi digiti, ides into external and internal parts.

he *external branch*, after supplying the flexor brevis minimi digiti muscle, and times one or both interossei of the fourth space, becomes superficial behind all of the little toe, and supplies cutaneous twigs to the sole of the foot and ball e toe. It terminates as the digital branch for the outer side of the little toe.

he *internal branch* passes forwards to the interval between the fourth and fifth where it becomes cutaneous, and divides into two collateral digital branches for upply of the adjacent sides of these toes. It communicates with the fourth inal branch of the internal plantar nerve.

he **deep branch** (r. profundus) of the external plantar nerve, passing deeply g with the external plantar artery, extends inwards towards the great toe, ath the accessorius and adductor obliquus hallucis. It gives off *articular ches* to the tarsal and tarso-metatarsal articulations, and *muscular branches* he interossei of each space (except in some cases the muscles of the fourth e): to the adductor obliquus and adductor transversus hallucis, and the outer e lumbrical muscles. These nerves enter the deep surface of the muscles, that he second lumbrical reaching its muscle after passing forwards beneath the ctor transversus hallucis.

THE PUDENDAL PLEXUS.

he pudendal plexus constitutes the third and last subdivision of the lumbo-l plexus. It is composed for the most part of the spinal nerves below those h form the sacral plexus; but, as already stated, there is no distinct point of ration between the two plexuses. On the contrary, there is considerable over-ing, so that two and sometimes three of the principal nerves derived from the ndal plexus have their origin in common with nerves of the sacral plexus.

he plexus is formed by fibres from the anterior primary divisions of the first e sacral nerves, and by the whole of the anterior primary divisions of the fourth fifth sacral and coccygeal nerves. The size of the nerves diminishes rapidly the first sacral to the coccygeal, which is extremely slender.

Position and Constitution.—The plexus is formed on the back wall of the is. Of the nerves forming it, the upper ones emerge from the anterior sacral mina; the fifth sacral nerve appears between the last sacral and first coccygeal ebra; and the coccygeal nerve appears below the transverse process of that ebra. The nerves of distribution derived from the plexus are the following:—

1. Visceral branches.
2. Small sciatic nerve.
3. Perforating cutaneous nerve.
4. Pudic nerve.
5. Muscular branches.
6. Sacro-coccygeal nerve.

Omitting the visceral branches, all the nerves are distributed to the perineum. y two, the small sciatic and perforating cutaneous nerves, send branches to the r limb.

Visceral Branches.—Like the other spinal nerves, the fourth and fifth sacral coccygeal nerves are provided with fine *gray rami communicantes* from sacral gangliated cord, which joins them after a short course on the front of sacrum. The third (along with the second or fourth) sacral nerve in addition ls a considerable *white ramus communicans* or **visceral branch** inwards to the ic plexus and viscera.

Small Sciatic Nerve (n. cutaneus femoris posterior).—This nerve is complex n in origin and distribution (Fig. 511, p. 656). Springing from the junction of sacral and pudendal plexuses, it is derived from the first three or second and d sacral nerves. It is distributed to the lower limb and perineum, and is ciated with other nerves belonging to both regions. It arises from the back of roots of the sacral plexus in the pelvis. Its higher roots from the first and nd sacral nerves are intimately associated with the origin of the inferior gluteal ve; its lowest root from the third sacral nerve is associated with the origins of perforating cutaneous or pudic nerve. It enters the buttock through the great tic notch below the pyriformis, along with the sciatic artery and inferior gluteal

nerve. Proceeding downwards behind the great sciatic nerve, it enters the at the lower border of the gluteus maximus muscle, where it gives off consi branches. Becoming gradually smaller as it courses downwards over the ham

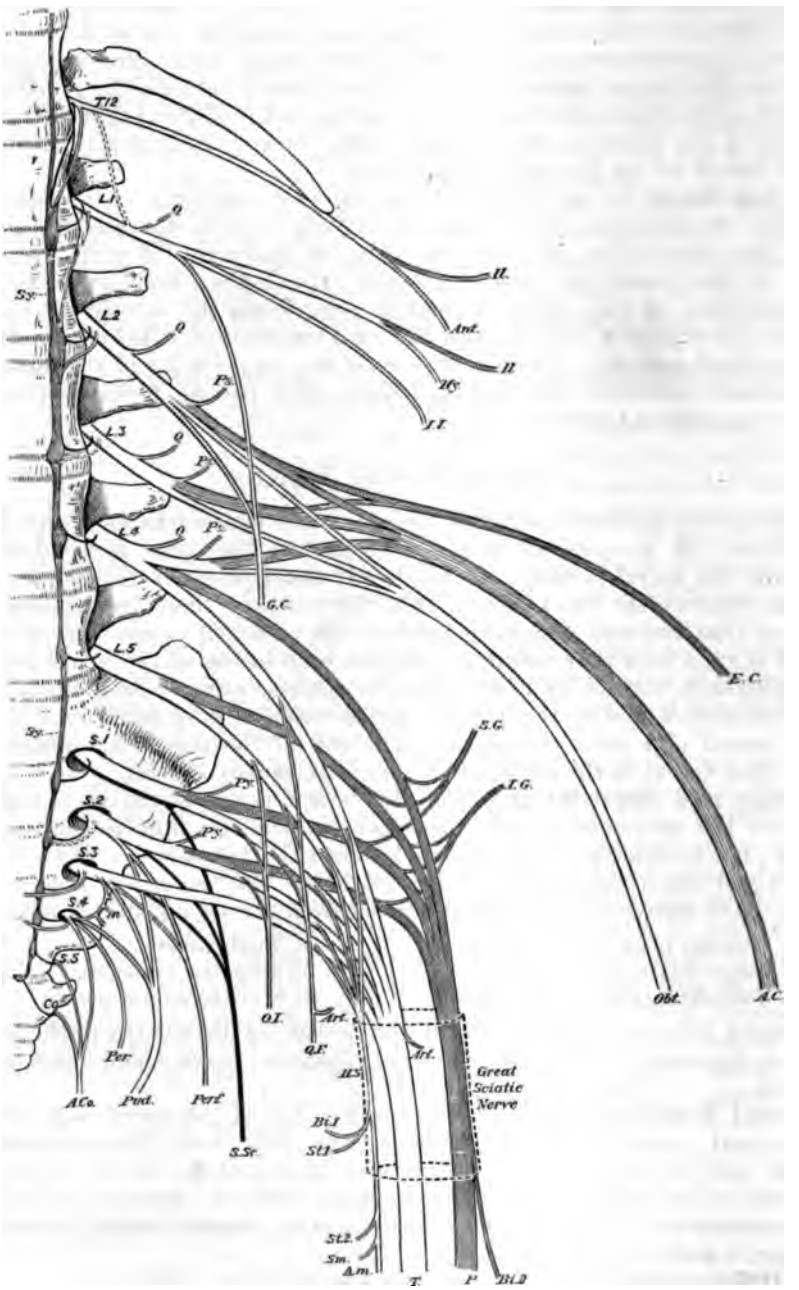


FIG. 511.—NERVES OF THE LUMBO-SACRAL PLEXUS.

Sy, Sympathetic cord; T.12, L.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, S.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, Co, Anterior primary divisions of the last the lumbar, sacral, and coccygeal nerves; Q, Nerves to quadratus lumborum; Ps, Nerves muscle; G.C, Genito-crural nerve; Il, Iliac branches of last thoracic and ilio-hypogastric ner Hypograstic branch of ilio-hypogastric nerve; I.I, Ilio-inguinal nerve; E.C, External cutaneo A.C, Anterior crural nerve; Obt, Obturator nerve; Py, Nerves to pyriformis muscle; O.I, obturator internus; Q.F, Nerve to quadratus femoris muscle; Art, Articular branch; S.G, gluteal nerve; I.G. Inferior gluteal nerve; P, Peroneal nerve; Bi.2, Nerve to short head of bicep T, Tibial nerve; Art, Articular branch; H.S, Nerve to the hamstring muscles; Bi.1, Nerves (long head), and St.1, to semi-tendinosus; St.2, Semi-tendinosus; Sm, Semi-membranosu *Adductor magnus*; S.Sc, Small sciatic nerve; Perf, Perforating cutaneous nerve; Pud, Pud *M*, *Muscular* branches; Per, Perineal branch of fourth sacral; A.Co, Anterior sacro-coccyge

scles to the popliteal space, it finally pierces the popliteal fascia in one or more aneous branches, which supply the skin over the calf of the leg for a variable tance (Fig. 509, p. 653).

Branches.—The small sciatic is a purely cutaneous nerve. It supplies branches the perineum, buttock, thigh, and leg.

The **perineal branch** (rr. perinæales; inferior pudendal nerve; long scrotal ve) arises from the small sciatic nerve at the lower border of the gluteus ximus muscle (Fig. 512, p. 658). It sweeps inwards towards the perineum, ng on the origin of the hamstring muscles below the ischial tuberosity, and omes subcutaneous after passing over the pubic arch. Its terminal branches ply the skin of the scrotum and root of the penis, or in the female the labium jus and clitoris, some of them being directed backwards towards the anus and tral point of the perineum. They communicate with the inferior hæmorrhoidal l perineal branches of the pudic nerve, and with the ilio-inguinal nerve. In its rse to the perineum the nerve gives off *collateral branches* to the skin of the per and inner part of the thigh.

The **gluteal branches** (rr. clunium inferiores) are large and numerous (Fig.), p. 653). They arise from the small sciatic nerve beneath the gluteus ximus, and become subcutaneous by piercing the fascia lata at different points ng its lower border. They supply the skin of the lower half of the buttock. e outermost branches, reaching to the back of the great trochanter, overlap the minal filaments of the gluteal branches of the external cutaneous nerve, and the sterior primary divisions of the first three lumbar nerves. The innermost branches, ich may pierce the great sacro-sciatic ligament, reach nearly to the coccyx, and : co-terminous in their distribution with the branches of the perforating cutaneous rve, which they reinforce and not infrequently replace.

The **femoral branches** are divisible into two sets—*internal* and *external*. They erce the fascia lata of the thigh at intervals, and supply the skin of the back of e thigh on its inner and outer sides respectively.

The **sural branches** are two or more slender nerves which pierce the fascia er the popliteal space, and are distributed for a variable extent to the skin of ie back of the leg. They may stop short over the popliteal space, or may extend far as the ankle. Usually they innervate the skin as far as the middle of the alf. They communicate with the external saphenous nerve.

In cases where the great sciatic nerve is naturally divided at its origin into tibial (internal popliteal) and peroneal (external popliteal) nerves (*e.g.* by the pyriformis muscle), the small sciatic nerve is also separated into two parts: a **dorsal part**, associated with the peroneal nerve and arising in common with the lower roots of the inferior gluteal nerve (usually from the first and second sacral nerves), and comprising the gluteal and external femoral branches; and a **ventral part**, associated with the tibial nerve and arising usually from the second and third sacral nerves, along with the perforating cutaneous and pudic nerves, and comprising the perineal and internal femoral branches.

Perforating Cutaneous Nerve (n. perforans ligamenti tuberoso-sacri Schwalbe), n. cutaneus clunium inferior medialis (Eisler)).—This nerve arises from the back of the second and third sacral nerves (Fig. 512, p. 658). At its origin it is associated with the lower roots of the small sciatic nerve. Passing downwards it pierces the great sacro-sciatic ligament, along with the coccygeal branch of the sciatic artery; and after winding round the lower border of the gluteus maximus muscle, or in some cases piercing its lower fibres, it becomes subcutaneous a little distance from the coccyx, and supplies the skin over the lower part of the buttock and the inner part of the fold of the nates.

The perforating cutaneous nerve is not always present. In a minority of cases it is associated at its origin with the pudic nerve. When absent as a separate nerve, its place is taken by (1) gluteal branches of the small sciatic nerve, or (2) a branch from the pudic nerve, or (3) a small nerve (n. perforans coccygeus major, Eisler), arising separately from the back of the third and fourth sacral nerves.

Muscular Branches.—Between the third and fourth sacral nerves (occasionally reinforced by the second, Eisler) a plexiform loop is formed, from which muscular *nerves are given off to the levator ani* (supplying the muscle on its pelvic *surface), coccygeus, and external sphincter.* The nerve to the external sphincter

(*perineal branch of fourth sacral*) pierces the great sacro-sciatic ligament and coccygeus muscle, to which it gives offsets, and appears in the ischio-rectal fossa between the gluteus maximus and the external sphincter. Besides supplying posterior fibres of the external sphincter, it distributes cutaneous offsets to the skin of the ischio-rectal fossa and the fold of the nates behind the anus. This nerve replaces in some instances the perforating cutaneous nerve.

Anterior Sacro-coccygeal Nerves (nn. ano-coccygei).—By the union of the remaining part of the fourth with the fifth sacral and coccygeal nerves, the so-called **coccygeal plexus** is formed. A fine descending branch of the fourth sacral nerve passes over or through the great sacro-sciatic ligament, to join the fifth sacral nerve. This fifth sacral nerve, joined by the descending branch of the fourth, descends alongside the coccyx and is again joined by the coccygeal nerve, so that a plexiform cord results, homologous with the inferior caudal nerve of tailed animals. Fine twigs arise from it, which pierce the sacro-sciatic ligament and supply the skin in the neighbourhood of the coccyx, internal to the perforating cutaneous nerves and behind the anus.

The Pudic Nerve.

The **pudic nerve** (n. pudendus) is the principal nerve for the supply of the perineum. It arises in the pelvis usually by three roots from the second, third, and

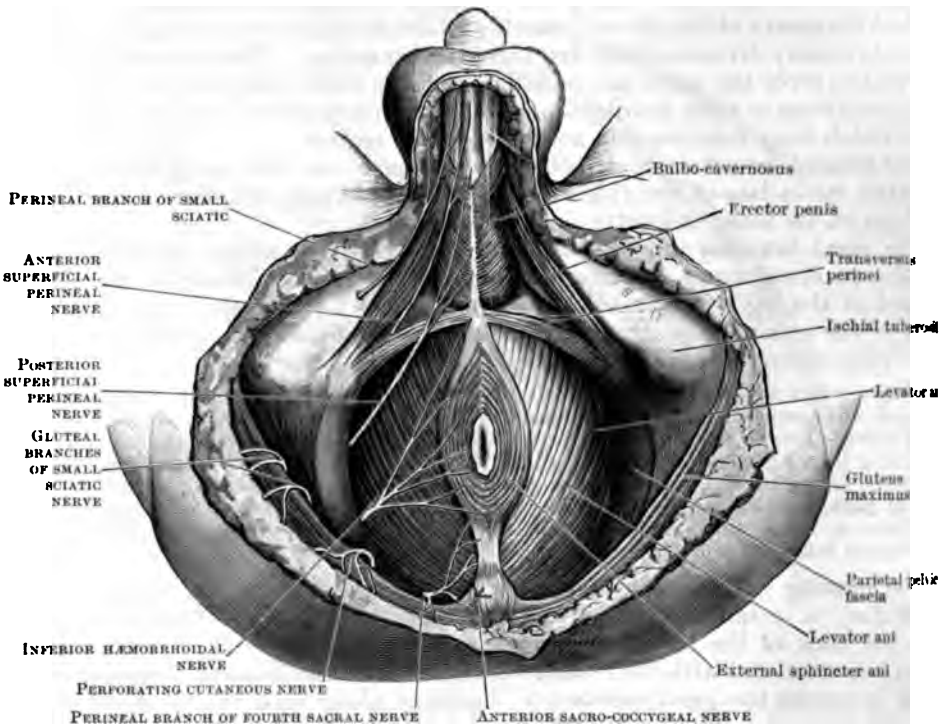


Fig. 512.—The Muscles and Nerves of the Male Perineum.

fourth sacral nerves (Fig. 511, p. 656). (Frequently one of its branches, the inferior hæmorrhoidal nerve, arises independently from the third and fourth sacral nerves.) The nerve passes to the buttock through the great sacro-sciatic foramen below the great sciatic nerve, and lies on the lesser sacro-sciatic ligament, or the spine of the ischium, internal to the internal pudic artery. It enters the perineum along with the pudic artery through the small sacro-sciatic foramen. In the perineum it is deeply placed in the outer wall of the ischio-rectal fossa, enclosed in a special sheath derived from the parietal pelvic fascia covering the inner surface of the obturator internus muscle. At the anterior limit of the ischio-rectal fossa, the nerve approaches the surface and divides at the base of the triangular ligament into its terminal branches, the perineal nerve and the dorsal nerve of the penis.

ranches of the pudic nerve are essentially the same in the two sexes. As branches are given off till the nerve enters the perineum, but sometimes or hæmorrhoidal nerve has an independent origin from the plexus, merely ying the pudic nerve in the first part of its course; and in exceptional perforating cutaneous nerve of the buttock is a branch of the pudic nerve.

ıferior hæmorrhoidal nerve (n. hæmorrhoidalis inferior) arises from the ·ve under cover of the gluteus maximus, at the posterior part of the tal fossa. In cases in which it has an independent origin from the plexus, ·rom the third and fourth sacral nerves. It crosses the ischio-rectal fossa ıy with the inferior hæmorrhoidal vessels, and separates into numerous —muscular, cutaneous, and communicating.

uscular branches end in the external sphincter ani muscle. The **cutaneous** supply the skin around the anus. The **communicating branches** connect or hæmorrhoidal with three other nerves—the perineal branches of the .tic, pudic, and fourth sacral nerves.

ɔerineal nerve (n. perineus), one of the two terminal branches of the ve, arises near the base of the triangular ligament. It almost immediately to two parts, superficial and deep.

ıperficial part is purely cutaneous and consists of two nerves, the posterior

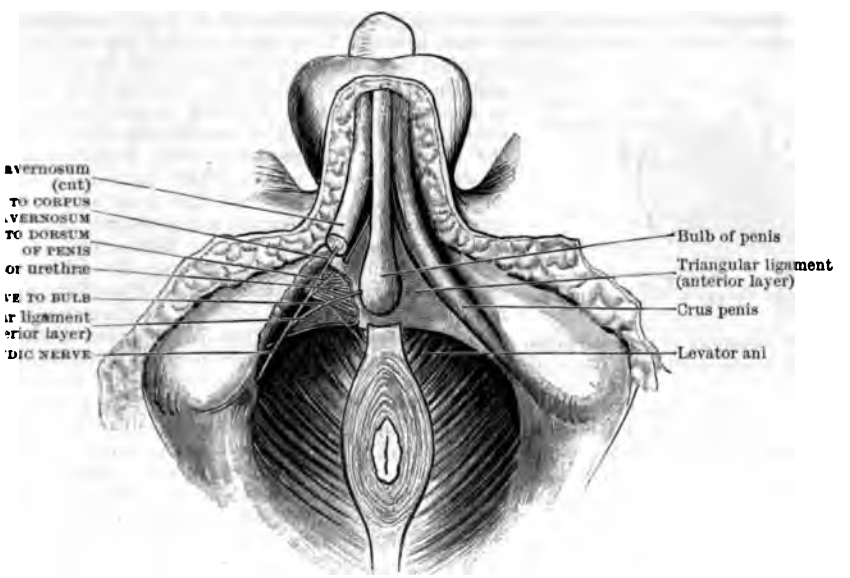


FIG. 513.—THE TRIANGULAR LIGAMENT OF THE PERINEUM.

al and the anterior or internal superficial perineal nerves, which pass, h the superficial perineal vessels, to the anterior part of the perineum.

rior or external superficial perineal nerve, at the anterior limit of the ischio- sa, usually passes over the base of the triangular ligament and over the us perinei muscle. The **anterior or internal superficial perineal nerve**, lying ɔly, pierces the base of the triangular ligament and goes underneath or the transversus perinei muscle. Becoming superficial in the anterior) triangle of the perineum, they are distributed to the skin of the scrotum n majus), and communicate with the perineal branch of the small sciatic l with the inferior hæmorrhoidal nerve.

leep part of the perineal nerve is mainly but not entirely muscular. forwards through the anterior part of the ischio-rectal fossa, it passes :he two layers of the triangular ligament towards the urethra. It supplies branches to the anterior parts of the levator ani and external sphincter, ınsversus perinei, erector penis (or clitoridis), bulbo-cavernosus (ejaculator sphincter vaginæ), and compressor urethræ. It terminates as the nerve lb, which, piercing the triangular ligament, enters the bulb of the urethra

and supplies the erectile tissue of the bulb and corpus spongiosum, as well as the mucous membrane of the urethra as far as the glans penis (or clitoridis).

The **dorsal nerve of the penis**, the other terminal branch of the pudic nerve, accompanies the internal pudic artery beneath the superficial layer of the triangular ligament. It passes forward close to the pubic arch, lying beneath the crus and erector penis (or clitoridis), and triangular ligament, and upon the compressor urethræ muscle; piercing the triangular ligament near its apex, at the outer side of the dorsal artery of the penis (or clitoris), it passes on to the dorsum of the penis or clitoris, to which it is distributed in its distal two-thirds, sending branches round the sides of the organ to reach its under surface. In the female the nerve is much smaller than in the male. The dorsal nerve of the penis supplies one branch, the **nerve to the corpus cavernosum**, as it lies beneath the triangular ligament. This is a slender nerve, which, piercing the triangular ligament, supplies the erectile tissue of the crus and corpus cavernosum.

Morphology of the Pudendal Plexus.—The structures occupying the perineum are placed in the ventral axis of the body, and comprise from before backwards, the penis and scrotum, or mons Veneris and vulva, the central point of the perineum, the anus and ischio-rectal fossæ, and the coccyx. They are placed on the mesial side of the attachment of the lower limbs—the penis or mons Veneris in relation to the preaxial border; the coccyx in relation to the postaxial border of the limb.

The nerves of the perineum, thus reaching the ventral axis of the trunk, are homologous with the anterior (ventral) terminations of other nerves. They are separated into two series. Mainly supplied through the pudendal plexus by the last four sacral and the coccygeal nerves, the perineum is also innervated to a minor extent by the first lumbar nerve through the ilio-inguinal nerve, which reaches the root of the penis and the scrotum. The region is thus supplied by two series of widely separated nerves, which have their meeting-place on the dorsum and side of the penis and scrotum. This junction of the ilio-inguinal and pudendal nerves constitutes the beginning of the **ventral axial area or line**, which extends peripherally along the inner side of the lower limb. Apart from this break in their distribution, a definite numerical order may be followed in the arrangement of the perineal nerves. The higher parts of the perineum are innervated by the higher spinal nerves; the lower parts, by the lower nerves. This is best exemplified in the distribution of the cutaneous nerves. The base of the penis and scrotum (or mons Veneris) is supplied by the first lumbar nerve (ilio-inguinal). The dorsal nerve of the penis (or clitoris), when traced back to the pudendal plexus, is found to come from the second, and to a less extent from the third sacral nerves; the scrotal nerves (perineal branches of the pudic and small sciatic) similarly arise from the third, and to a less extent from the second sacral nerves; the skin of the ischio-rectal fossa and anus is innervated by the inferior hæmorrhoidal (third and fourth sacral nerves), and the perineal branch of the fourth sacral nerve. The coccygeal plexus, lastly, supplies the skin round the coccyx (fourth and fifth sacral and coccygeal nerves). Judged from its nerve supply the perineum is to be regarded as occupying, for the most part, a position behind or more caudal than that of the lower limb in relation to the trunk. There is here a remarkable gap in the numerical sequence of the nerves supplying the ventral axis of the body. All the nerves between the first lumbar and the second sacral fail to reach the mid ventral line of the trunk and are wholly concerned in the innervation of the lower limb.

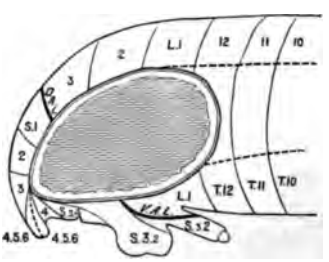


FIG. 514.—SCHEME of the innervation of the hinder portion of the trunk and of the perineum, and the interruption of the segmental arrangement of the nerves associated with the formation of the limb.

T.10, 11, 12, The areas of distribution of the lower thoracic nerves; L.1, 2, 3, The posterior primary divisions of the first three lumbar nerves; L.1, The ilio-inguinal nerve; S.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, The posterior primary divisions of the sacral and coccygeal nerves (6); S.3, 2, S.3, 2, Branches of pudic nerve to penis and scrotum; S.3, 4, Inferior hæmorrhoidal nerve; 4, Perineal branch of the fourth sacral nerve; 4, 5, 6, Anterior sacro-coccygeal nerve; D.A.L, Dorsal axial line; V.A.L, Ventral axial line.

At the preaxial border of the limb (groin) the first lumbar nerve, the highest nerve supplying the perineum, is concerned also in innervating the skin of the limb. At the postaxial border of the limb (fold of the nates and back of the thigh), the nerves which are the highest of those constituting the pudendal plexus (the second and third sacral nerves) are also implicated in innervating that border of the limb. The fourth sacral nerve is only concerned to a very slight extent in the innervation of the limb by means of the perineal branch, which reaches the beginning of its postaxial border; the last two spinal nerves are wholly unrepresented in the limb proper and end entirely in the trunk behind the limb.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPINAL NERVES.

I. **Origin of the Spinal Nerve Roots.**—The process of development of the spinal

ves commences by means of the outgrowth of the **dorsal** and **ventral roots** from the dullary tube. The two roots take origin in quite different ways.

The dorsal root is the first to appear,—before, during, or after the union of the dullary plates and the formation of the neural tube. It takes origin as a **cellular bud** m the dorsal surface of the medullary tube in one of three ways:—(1) It may arise m the junction of the medullary plate and surface epiblast before the closure of the dullary groove. (2) It may spring from the *neural crest*, a ridge on the dorsal aspect the medullary tube, after its closure is complete. (3) It may be simply a direct out-wth from the dorsal surface of the medullary tube. Pyriform in shape, the bud arges and becomes separated from the medullary tube, and projects ventrally in the ce between the myotome and the medullary tube. Each bud is separated by only a ght interval from its neighbour.

The cells (**neuroblasts**) composing the bud become rapidly spindle-shaped, and by the ddle of the fourth week give rise to *two sets of processes*; (1) a **central series**, which

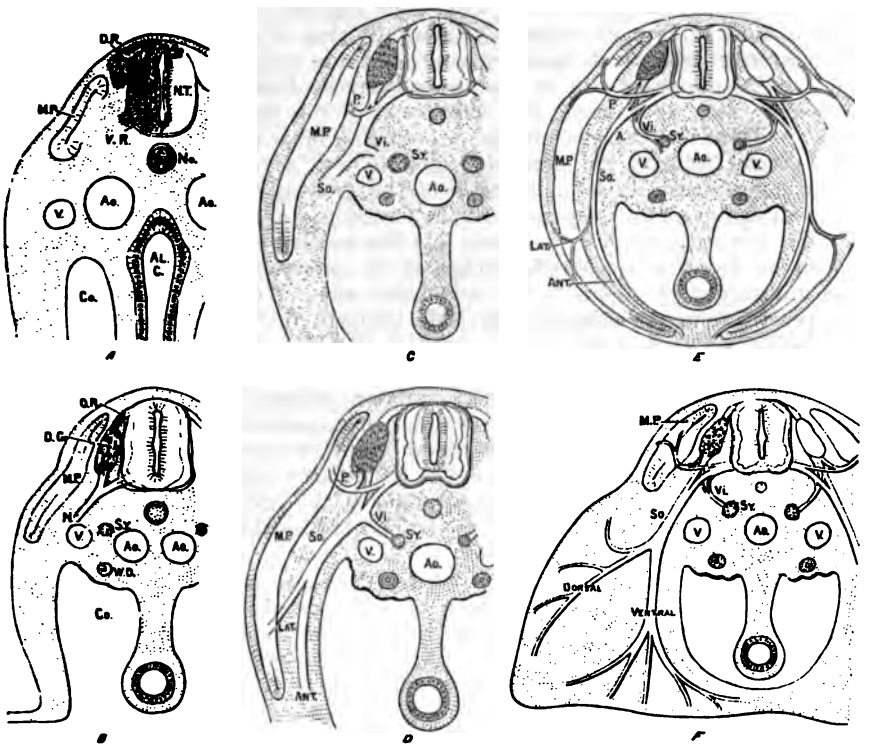


FIG. 515.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPINAL NERVES.

A, Formation of nerve roots.

D.R, Dorsal root.
V.R, Ventral root.
N.T, Neural tube.
No, Notochord.

Al.C, Alimentary canal.
Ao, Aorta.
V, Cardinal vein.
M.P, Muscle plate.

B, Formation of nerve trunk (N).

D.G, Dorsal ganglion.
Sy, Sympathetic cord.
W.D, Wolffian duct.
Co, Cœlom.

C, Formation of nerves.

, Somatic division.
, Visceral branch.
Posterior primary division.

D, E, Formation of subordinate branches.

Lat, Lateral, and
Ant, Anterior, branches.

F, Formation of nerve trunks in relation to the limb: dorsal and ventral trunks corresponding to lateral and anterior trunks in D and E.

ow backwards and are secondarily connected with the dorso-lateral aspect of the edullary tube as the fibres of the dorsal root; and (2) a **peripheral series**, which conitute the dorsal root fibres of the spinal nerve and join the ventral root, to form the inal nerve proper. The intermediate cellular mass remains as the **spinal ganglion.**

The **ventral root** of a spinal nerve arises in quite a different way, from cells (**neuro-asts**) in the substance of the medullary tube. In the account of the development of the inal cord it has been shown how the cellular constituents of the medullary tube are con-erted into two classes of cells: (1) **spongioblasts**, which produce the matrix (neuroglia) of ie spinal cord; and (2) **germ-cells** or **neuroblasts**, which produce the nerve-cells of the ray matter of the cord. The neuroblasts give rise to the axis-cylinder processes or

axons, which, penetrating the spongy tissue of the medullary tube and the outer lim membrane, find their way into the mesoblastic tissue on the ventro-lateral surface of tube. Fibrous from their earliest origin and derived from nerve-cells which remain wi the medullary tube, the axons of which the ventral root is composed become surrounde mesoblastic cells immediately on their emergence, which give rise to the sheaths of the ne The ventral root is a little later in its date of appearance than the dorsal root. It be to be evident at the twenty-fourth day and is completely formed by the twenty-eighth

II. **Formation of the Spinal Nerve.**—The fibres of the dorsal root ganglion the ventral root grow by extension from the cells with which they are respectively c nected, and meet in the space between the myotome and the side of the medullary t to form the **spinal nerve**. It has been already shown that in the adult there is a fun mental division of the spinal nerve into posterior and anterior primary divisions. In t process of development this separation is even more obvious. As the fibres of the dor and ventral roots approximate, they separate at the same time each into two unequ portions: the smaller parts of the two roots unite together to form the **posterior**, and t larger parts unite to form the **anterior primary division** of the spinal nerve.

The **posterior primary division**, curving outwards and dorsally, passes through t myotome and is connected with it. In the substance of the myotome it separates in branches as it proceeds towards the dorsal wall of the embryo. At a later stage, t branches are definitely arranged into an outer and an inner set.

The **anterior primary division** grows gradually in a ventral direction to reach t somato-splanchnopleuric angle, under cover of the growing myotome. It spreads out its distal end and eventually separates into two portions: a smaller, splanchnic, or viscer and a larger, somatic, or parietal portion. (1) The smaller, **splanchnic**, or **visceral port** grows inwards, dorsal to the Wolffian ridge, to be connected with the sympathetic co and the innervation of organs in the splanchnic area. This branch of the spinal ner becomes the **white ramus communicans** of the sympathetic. It is not present in the c of all the spinal nerves (cervical, lower lumbar, and upper sacral). It will be referred again in connexion with the sympathetic system. (2) The larger, **somatic**, or **parie portion** becomes the main part of the anterior primary division of the nerve. continues the original ventral course of the nerve, and, reaching the body wall, s divides into two terminal branches—a lateral branch, which grows outwards and dow wards and reaches the lateral aspect of the trunk, after piercing the myotome; and ventral or anterior branch, which grows onwards in the body wall to reach the ventr axis. This arrangement is met with in the trunk between the limbs and in the neck.

III. **Formation of Limb-plexuses.**—The method of growth of the spinal nerv just described, is modified in the regions where the limbs are developed. In relation t the limbs, which exist in the form of buds of cellular undifferentiated mesoblast befo the spinal nerves have any connexion with them, the development of the nerve proceed exactly in the way described up to the point of formation of somatic and splanchn branches. The **somatic branches** then stream out into the limb bud, passing into i below the ends of the myotomes and spreading out into a bundle of fibres at the bas attachment of the limb. Later on, the nerves separate each into a pair of definite trunks which are named **dorsal** and **ventral**, and which, dividing round a central core of mes blast, proceed to the dorsal and ventral surfaces respectively of the limb bud. While thi process is going on, a *secondary union* takes place between (parts of) adjacent dorsal an ventral trunks. Dorsal trunks unite with dorsal trunks, ventral trunks unite with ventr trunks, to form the nerves distributed ultimately to the surfaces and periphery of th limb. These **dorsal and ventral trunks** are homologous with the **lateral and ventr branches** of the somatic nerves in other regions.

Morphology of the Limb-plexuses.

The arrangement of the limb nerves is rendered complex and the significance of the plexu is obscured by the changes through which, coincidently, the nerves on the one hand and t parts supplied by them on the other hand have passed in the course of development.

Nature of the Limbs.—As already described, the mammalian limbs arise as flattened bu from the extremities of the **Wolffian ridge**. Each bud possesses a *preaxial* and a *postaxial bord* and a *dorsal* and a *ventral surface*, continuous with the dorsal and ventral aspects of the tru and homologous with its lateral and ventral surfaces. Each bud consists at first of a mass undifferentiated, unsegmented mesoblast, covered by epithelium. Around the central core mesoblast which produces the skeletal axis, the vessels and muscles of the limb are form *in situ*, the muscles as double dorsal and ventral strata, beneath the corresponding surfaces the bud.

Each limb bud is connected to the lateral and ventral aspects of the trunk, and is associa with a number of body segments, varying in the two extremities and in different anim

gh the mesoblastic material of which the limb bud is composed exhibits in itself no tal divisions at any period of its development, a clear indication of the segmental relations limbs is obtained from the arrangement of the limb nerves. Taking the nerves which the limbs as a guide, the segments engaged in the formation of the upper extremity are five cervical and first two thoracic. The lower extremity is related by its nerves to all ıbar and the first three sacral segments. In each limb, the segments at the preaxial and al borders are only partially concerned in limb formation.

as been already shown that the somatic branches of the nerves enter the substance of the mic limb and divide in their course into dorsal and ventral trunks, which supply the nd ventral surfaces of the limb bud. The higher nerves supply the preaxial border, the erves supply the postaxial border, while the nerves most centrally situated extend furthest s the periphery of the limb.

order to understand properly the constitution of the limb-plexuses, it is necessary further e a comparison of the surfaces and borders of the embryonic and adult limbs.

per Limb.—(*A*) **Borders.**—The **preaxial border** of the upper extremity extends from the of the clavicle, in the line of the cephalic vein, down the front of the shoulder, the outer the arm, forearm and hand, to the outer border of the thumb. The **postaxial border** s from the middle of the axilla along the inner side of the arm (in the line of the basilic he inner side of the forearm and hand, to the inner border of the little finger.

Surfaces.—The areas of the limb between these lines, anteriorly and posteriorly, correspond entral and dorsal surfaces of the embryonic limb bud. The **ventral surface** is represented front of the chest, arm, and forearm, and the palm of the hand. The **dorsal surface** is nted by the scapular and deltoid regions, the back of the arm, forearm, and hand.

wer Limb.—(*A*) **Borders.**—The **preaxial border** of the lower limb extends from the middle part's ligament down the inner side of the thigh and leg in the line of the internal ous vein, to the inner side of the great toe. The **postaxial border**, beginning at the coccyx, s along the fold of the nates and the outer side and back of the thigh and leg (in the line external saphenous vein) to the outer border of the foot and little toe.

Surfaces.—The areas between these lines correspond to the primitive dorsal and ventral s of the embryonic limb bud. The unequal amount of rotation in the parts of the lower bscures the relation of fœtal and adult surfaces, which are most easily made out in the le position of the limbs, with the thighs and knees flexed and the soles of the feet d. The **ventral surface** of the embryonic limb is represented by the inner side and the thigh, the back of the leg, and the sole of the foot. The **dorsal surface** is represented front of the thigh and buttock, the front of the leg, and the dorsum of the foot.

nposition of the Limb-plexuses.—In all mammals the same definite plan underlies the ıtion of the limb-plexuses. The nerves concerned are the anterior primary divisions of segmental spinal nerves, which (with certain exceptions at the preaxial and postaxial) are destined wholly and solely for the innervation of the limb. Each of the anterior y divisions engaged divides into a pair of **secondary trunks**, named **dorsal** or posterior, or anterior. The dorsal and ventral trunks again subdivide into **tertiary trunks**, which e with the corresponding subdivisions of neighbouring dorsal and ventral trunks to form **ves of distribution.** The combinations of *dorsal trunks* provide a series of nerves for the of that part of the limb which is derived from the *dorsal surface* of the embryonic limb he combinations of *ventral trunks* give rise to nerves of distribution to the regions onding to its *ventral surface.* The relation of the nerves derived from the limb-plexuses ıreas of the limbs is given in the accompanying tables :—

I. Upper Limb.

Origin.		Nerves.	Distribution.	
hial xus	Dorsal trunks (*Posterior cord*)	Posterior scapular	Scapular region and shoulder	Dorsal surface
		Posterior thoracic		
		Suprascapular		
		Subscapular (3)		
		Circumflex		
		(Lesser internal cutaneous (?))	Arm, inner side	
		(Intercosto-humeral (?))		
		Musculo-spiral	Back of arm, forearm, and hand	
	Ventral trunks (*Outer and inner cords*)	Nerve to subclavius	Front of chest	Ventral surface
		Anterior thoracic (2)		
		Musculo-cutaneous	Front of arm and forearm	
		Lesser internal cutaneous	Inner side of arm	
		Internal cutaneous	Front of arm and forearm	
		Median	Front of forearm and hand	
		Ulnar		

axons, which, penetrating the spongy tissue of the medullary tube and **the outer limiting** membrane, find their way into the mesoblastic tissue on the ventro-lateral **surface of the** tube. Fibrous from their earliest origin and derived from nerve-cells **which remain within** the medullary tube, the axons of which the ventral root is composed become surrounded by mesoblastic cells immediately on their emergence, which give rise to the sheaths of the nerve. The ventral root is a little later in its date of appearance than the dorsal root. It begins to be evident at the twenty-fourth day and is completely formed by the twenty-eighth day.

II. **Formation of the Spinal Nerve.**—The fibres of the dorsal root ganglion and the ventral root grow by extension from the cells with which they are respectively connected, and meet in the space between the myotome and the side of the **medullary** tube to form the **spinal nerve**. It has been already shown that in the adult there is a fundamental division of the spinal nerve into posterior and anterior primary divisions. In the process of development this separation is even more obvious. As the fibres of the dorsal and ventral roots approximate, they separate at the same time each into two unequal portions: the smaller parts of the two roots unite together to form the **posterior**, and the larger parts unite to form the **anterior primary division** of the spinal nerve.

The **posterior primary division**, curving outwards and dorsally, passes through the myotome and is connected with it. In the substance of the myotome it separates into branches as it proceeds towards the dorsal wall of the embryo. At a later stage, the branches are definitely arranged into an outer and an inner set.

The **anterior primary division** grows gradually in a ventral direction to reach the somato-splanchnopleuric angle, under cover of the growing myotome. It spreads out at its distal end and eventually separates into two portions: a smaller, splanchnic, or visceral; and a larger, somatic, or parietal portion. (1) The smaller, **splanchnic**, or **visceral portion** grows inwards, dorsal to the Wolffian ridge, to be connected with the sympathetic cord and the innervation of organs in the splanchnic area. This branch of the spinal nerve becomes the **white ramus communicans** of the sympathetic. It is not present in the case of all the spinal nerves (cervical, lower lumbar, and upper sacral). It will be referred to again in connexion with the sympathetic system. (2) The larger, **somatic**, or **parietal portion** becomes the main part of the anterior primary division of the nerve. It continues the original ventral course of the nerve, and, reaching the body wall, subdivides into two terminal branches—a lateral branch, which grows outwards and downwards and reaches the lateral aspect of the trunk, after piercing the myotome; and a ventral or anterior branch, which grows onwards in the body wall to reach the ventral axis. This arrangement is met with in the trunk between the limbs and in the neck.

III. **Formation of Limb-plexuses.**—The method of growth of the spinal nerves, just described, is modified in the regions where the limbs are developed. In relation to the limbs, which exist in the form of buds of cellular undifferentiated mesoblast before the spinal nerves have any connexion with them, the development of the nerve proceeds exactly in the way described up to the point of formation of somatic and splanchnic branches. The **somatic branches** then stream out into the limb bud, passing into it below the ends of the myotomes and spreading out into a bundle of fibres at the basal attachment of the limb. Later on, the nerves separate each into a pair of definite trunks, which are named **dorsal** and **ventral**, and which, dividing round a central core of mesoblast, proceed to the dorsal and ventral surfaces respectively of the limb bud. While this process is going on, a *secondary union* takes place between (parts of) adjacent dorsal and ventral trunks. Dorsal trunks unite with dorsal trunks, ventral trunks unite with ventral trunks, to form the nerves distributed ultimately to the surfaces and periphery of the limb. These **dorsal and ventral trunks** are homologous with the **lateral and ventral branches** of the somatic nerves in other regions.

Morphology of the Limb-plexuses.

The arrangement of the limb nerves is rendered complex and the significance of the plexuses is obscured by the changes through which, coincidently, the nerves on the one hand and the parts supplied by them on the other hand have passed in the course of development.

Nature of the Limbs.—As already described, the mammalian limbs arise as flattened buds from the extremities of the **Wolffian ridge**. Each bud possesses a *preaxial* and a *postaxial border*, and a *dorsal* and a *ventral surface*, continuous with the dorsal and ventral aspects of the trunk and homologous with its lateral and ventral surfaces. Each bud consists at first of a mass of undifferentiated, unsegmented mesoblast, covered by epithelium. Around the central core of mesoblast which produces the skeletal axis, the vessels and muscles of the limb are formed *in situ*, the muscles as double dorsal and ventral strata, beneath the corresponding surfaces of the bud.

Each limb bud is connected to the lateral and ventral aspects of the trunk, and is associated with a number of body segments, varying in the two extremities and in different animals

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) **Surfaces.**—The areas of the limb between these lines, anteriorly and posteriorly, correspond ventral and dorsal surfaces of the embryonic limb bud. The **ventral surface** is represented e front of the chest, arm, and forearm, and the palm of the hand. The **dorsal surface** is ented by the scapular and deltoid regions, the back of the arm, forearm, and hand.

wer Limb.—(*A*) **Borders.**—The **preaxial border** of the lower limb extends from the middle ıpart's ligament down the inner side of the thigh and leg in the line of the internal ıous vein, to the inner side of the great toe. The **postaxial border,** beginning at the coccyx, ls along the fold of the nates and the outer side and back of the thigh and leg (in the line external saphenous vein) to the outer border of the foot and little toe.

) **Surfaces.**—The areas between these lines correspond to the primitive dorsal and ventral es of the embryonic limb bud. The unequal amount of rotation in the parts of the lower ɔbscures the relation of fœtal and adult surfaces, which are most easily made out in the ile position of the limbs, with the thighs and knees flexed and the soles of the feet ed. The **ventral surface** of the embryonic limb is represented by the inner side and ɔf the thigh, the back of the leg, and the sole of the foot. The **dorsal surface** is represented e front of the thigh and buttock, the front of the leg, and the dorsum of the foot.

mposition of the Limb-plexuses.—In all mammals the same definite plan underlies the tution of the limb-plexuses. The nerves concerned are the anterior primary divisions of ı segmental spinal nerves, which (with certain exceptions at the preaxial and postaxial es) are destined wholly and solely for the innervation of the limb. Each of the anterior ry divisions engaged divides into a pair of **secondary trunks,** named **dorsal** or posterior, al or anterior. The dorsal and ventral trunks again subdivide into **tertiary trunks,** which ne with the corresponding subdivisions of neighbouring dorsal and ventral trunks to form **ırves of distribution.** The combinations of *dorsal trunks* provide a series of nerves for the ; of that part of the limb which is derived from the *dorsal surface* of the embryonic limb the combinations of *ventral trunks* give rise to nerves of distribution to the regions ponding to its *ventral surface.* The relation of the nerves derived from the limb-plexuses areas of the limbs is given in the accompanying tables :—

I. Upper Limb.

Origin.		Nerves.	Distribution.	
ıchial exus	**Dorsal trunks** (*Posterior cord*)	Posterior scapular	Scapular region and shoulder	**Dorsal surface**
		Posterior thoracic		
		Suprascapular		
		Subscapular (3)		
		Circumflex		
		(Lesser internal cutaneous (?))	Arm, inner side	
		(Intercosto-humeral (?))		
		Musculo-spiral	Back of arm, forearm, and hand	
	Ventral trunks (*Outer and inner cords*)	Nerve to subclavius	Front of chest	**Ventral surface**
		Anterior thoracic (2)		
		Musculo-cutaneous	Front of arm and forearm	
		Lesser internal cutaneous	Inner side of arm	
		Internal cutaneous	Front of arm and forearm	
		Median	Front of forearm and hand	
		Ulnar		

II. Lower Limb.

Origin.		Nerves.	Distribution.	
Lumbo-sacral Plexus	Dorsal trunks	Ilio-hypogastric (iliac branch)	Buttock	Dorsal surface
		Superior gluteal		
		Inferior gluteal		
		Nerve to pyriformis		
		Small sciatic		
		External cutaneous	Buttock and thigh, outer side and front	
		Genito-crural (crural branch)	Front of thigh	
		Anterior crural	Front and inner side of thigh, leg, and foot	
		Peroneal	Front of leg and foot	
	Ventral trunks	Ilio-hypogastric (hypogastric branch)	Abdominal wall (ventral surface)	Ventral surface
		Ilio-inguinal	Abdominal wall, thigh, and perineum	
		Genito-crural (genital branch)	Groin	
		Obturator	Thigh (inner side) and knee (back)	
		Nerve to obturator internus and superior gemellus	Buttock and back of thigh	
		Nerve to quadratus femoris and inferior gemellus		
		Nerve to hamstrings		
		Small sciatic	Back of thigh and perineum	
		Tibial	Back of knee, leg, and sole of foot	

In the regions of the limbs no anterior cutaneous branches, derived from the limb nerves, supply the trunk. The whole of the nerve is carried into the limb and is absorbed in its innervation, and the dorsal and ventral trunks forming the limb-plexuses are to be looked upon as homologous with the lateral and anterior trunks of an intercostal nerve. Two series of anomalies in relation to the formation and distribution of the nerves to the limbs must, however, be considered, because it has been suggested (Goodsir) that the nerves of the limbs are serially homologous with not the whole, but with only the lateral branches of the anterior primary divisions of the intercostal nerves.

(1) **Nerves in connexion with the primitive borders of the Limbs.—At the preaxial border of the upper limb**, at its root, the fourth cervical nerve, which supplies the anterior and lateral surfaces of the neck, is also distributed through the supraclavicular nerves to the skin of both ventral and dorsal surfaces of the limb. The nerves and surfaces are here not merely homologous, but in actual continuity.

At the preaxial border of the lower limb, similarly, the first lumbar nerve, by means of the ilio-hypogastric and ilio-inguinal branches, supplies on the one hand the buttock, in series with the lateral branches of the lower thoracic nerves, and, on the other hand, the lower part of the abdominal wall and the adjacent inner side of the thigh, in series with the anterior terminal branches of the lower thoracic nerves.

At the postaxial border of the upper limb the first and second thoracic nerves are concerned in supplying trunk segments as well as parts of the limb. The first thoracic nerve, besides supplying the limb through the inner cord of the plexus, also innervates at least the muscles of the first intercostal space; the second thoracic nerve is concerned in the innervation of the limb, principally by means of its lateral branch only, which, as the intercosto-humeral nerve, supplies the skin along the postaxial border of the limb and on its *dorsal side*. **At the postaxial border of the lower limb**, in the same way, the third and fourth sacral nerves, partially implicated in the innervation of the limb (through the tibial, small sciatic, perforating cutaneous nerve, and perineal branch of the fourth sacral nerve), are also engaged in supplying the trunk (perineum) through the pudic nerve. These peculiarities of arrangement of the nerves at the borders of the limbs may be explained on the supposition that the segment corresponding to the nerve named is only partially concerned in limb formation, and is, at the same time, implicated to a greater or less extent in the formation of structures belonging to the trunk.

(2) **The origin and distribution of the nerves at the postaxial border of the limbs** present a special difficulty. In the composition respectively of the brachial and lumbo-sacral plexuses, the first thoracic and third sacral nerves do not as a rule divide into ventral and dorsal trunks, but contribute only to the formation of the ventral series of nerves. A solution of this difficulty may be found in the examination of the areas of distribution of the nerves derived from the first thoracic and third sacral nerves. In the case of the brachial plexus (the inner cord of which

ceives normally the whole contribution of the first thoracic nerve) the lesser internal cutaneous, e inner branch of the internal cutaneous, and the dorsal branch of the ulnar nerve supply the rsal aspect of the limb on its postaxial border. These nerves are in serial homology with the tercosto-humeral and lateral trunks of intercostal nerves. In the case of the lumbo-sacral plexus nilarly, in which the third sacral nerve does not divide into ventral and dorsal trunks, the nall sciatic and tibial nerves containing the contribution from the third sacral nerves innervate, y means of the gluteal and external femoral branches of the former and the tibial communi- ating branch of the latter, the dorsal surface of the limb along the postaxial border, in series ith the perforating cutaneous nerve and the perineal branch of the fourth sacral.

These apparent anomalies appear to indicate that, instead of dividing into its proper dorsal nd ventral trunks, the entire contribution of the spinal nerve concerned is in these instances arried undivided along the postaxial border of the limb in association with the ventral trunks, nd that the dorsal subdivisions are thrown off successively as the plexus cords approach the eriphery. Indeed, in the case of the small sciatic nerve, Eisler has shown that, when the eroneal and tibial nerves are separated at their origin, its gluteal and external femoral branches rise from and are connected with the dorsal, and the perineal and internal femoral branches with the ventral trunk.

The Distribution of the Spinal Nerves to the Muscles and Skin of the Limbs.

By dissection, experiment, and clinical observation, it is conclusively proved that as a rule each nerve of distribution in the limb, whether to muscle or skin, is made up of fibres derived from more than one spinal nerve; and, further, that in cutaneous distribution a considerable overlapping occurs in the course of the several peripheral nerves. Moreover, the arrangement of the distribution of the nerves to skin and to muscles is not identical. In the case of the skin of the limbs, by the covering of the limb being drawn on to it from adjacent parts in the process of growth, cutaneous nerves are engaged, which are derived from sources not represented in the muscular innervation of the limbs. Again, among the muscles, some have undergone fusion, others have become rudimentary, and others again have altered their position in the limb. Bearing these qualifications in mind, it is possible to formulate a definite plan for the innervation of the skin and muscles of the upper and lower limb. The accompanying tables give an analysis of the distribution of the spinal nerves to the skin and muscles of the upper and lower limb respectively:—

I. Upper Limb.

A. Cutaneous Nerves.

1. Dorsal (Posterior) Surface.

Regions.		Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	Spinal Origins. *Postaxial Nerves.*
Scapular	Upper part (*preaxial*)	Posterior primary divisions, cervical	C. 4. 5. 6.	
		Cervical plexus, acromial	C. 3. 4.	
	Lower part (*postaxial*)	Posterior primary divisions, thoracic	T. 1.-7.	
		Intercostal nerves, lateral branches	T. 2. 3. 4.	
Deltoid	Upper part (*preaxial*)	Cervical plexus, acromial	C. 3. 4.	
		Circumflex	C. 5. 6.	
	Lower part (*postaxial*)	Intercostal nerves, lateral branches		T. 2. 3.
Upper arm	Outer side (*preaxial*)	Circumflex	C. 5. 6.	
		Musculo-spiral, upper external branch	C. (5). 6.	
	Inner side (*postaxial*)	Musculo-spiral, internal branch	C. 8.	
		Lesser internal cutaneous		T. 1.
		Intercosto-humeral		T. 2.

1. **Dorsal (Posterior) Surface**—*continued.*

Regions.		Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	*Postaxial Nerves.*
Forearm	Outer side (*preaxial*)	Musculo-spiral, upper external branch	C. (5). 6.	
		Musculo-spiral, lower external branch	C. 6. 7. 8.	
		Musculo-cutaneous, posterior branch	C. 5. 6.	
		Radial	C. 6. 7.	
	Inner side (*postaxial*)	Internal cutaneous, internal branch		C. 8. T. 1
		Ulnar, dorsal branch		C. 8.
Hand	Outer side (*preaxial*)	Radial	C. 6. 7.	
	Inner side (*postaxial*)	Ulnar		C. 8.

I. Upper Limb.

A. Cutaneous Nerves.

2. **Ventral (Anterior) Surface.**

Regions.		Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	*Postaxial Nerves.*
Chest	Upper part (*preaxial*)	Cervical plexus, supraclavicular branches	C. 3. 4.	
	Lower part (*postaxial*)	Intercostal nerves, anterior branches		T. 2.-7.
		Intercostal nerves, lateral branches		
Upper arm	Outer part (*preaxial*)	Circumflex	C. 5. 6.	
		Musculo-spiral, upper external branch	C. 5. 6.	
	Inner part (*postaxial*)	Internal cutaneous		C. 8. T. 1
		Lesser internal cutaneous		T. 1
		Intercosto-humeral		T.
Forearm	Outer part (*preaxial*)	Musculo-cutaneous, anterior branch	C. 5. 6.	
	Inner part (*postaxial*)	Internal cutaneous, anterior branch		C. 8. T. 1
Hand	Outer part (*preaxial*)	Musculo-cutaneous, ball of thumb	C. 5. 6.	
		Median, palmar branch	C. 6. 7.	
		„ digital branches	C. 6. 7. 8. T. 1.	
		„ thumb, outer side	C. 6. (7).	
		„ „ inner side „ index, outer side	C. 6. 7.	
		„ „ inner side „ middle, outer side	C (6). 7. 8. (T. 1).	
		„ „ inner side „ ring, outer side		C. 8. T. 1
	Inner part (*postaxial*)	Ulnar, palmar branch		T. 1.
		„ digital branches		T. 1.

I. Upper Limb.

B. Muscular Nerves.

1. Dorsal (Posterior) Surface.

Regions.	Muscles.	Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	Spinal Origins. *Postaxial Nerves.*
ulder — Upper part (*preaxial muscles*)	Trapezius	Cervical plexus	C. 3. 4.	
	Levator anguli scapulæ	Cervical plexus	C. 3. 4.	
		Posterior scapular	C. 5.	
	Rhomboidei	Posterior scapular	C. 5.	
	Serratus magnus	Posterior thoracic	C. 5. 6. 7.	
	Supraspinatus, Infraspinatus	Suprascapular	C. 5. 6.	
	Subscapularis	Short subscapular	C. 5. 6.	
		Lower „	C. 5. 6.	
	Teres major	Lower subscapular	C. 5. 6.	
Lower part (*postaxial muscles*)	Teres minor, Deltoid	Circumflex	C. 5. 6.	
	Latissimus dorsi	Long subscapular		C. 6. 7. 8.
er arm	Triceps	Musculo-spiral	C. (6). 7. 8.	
	Outer head	Musculo-spiral	C. (6). 7. 8.	
	Middle head	Musculo-spiral	C. 7. 8.	
	Inner head	Musculo-spiral	C. 7. 8.	
	Anconeus	Musculo-spiral	C. 7. 8.	
arm	Brachio-radialis	Musculo-spiral	C. 5. 6.	
	Extensor carpi radialis longior	Musculo-spiral	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	Extensor carpi radialis brevior	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. (8).	
	Supinator radii brevis	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6.	
	Extensor communis digitorum	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	„ minimi digiti	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	„ carpi ulnaris	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	Extensor longus pollicis	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	„ brevis pollicis	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	
	„ indicis	Posterior interosseous	C. (5). 6. 7. 8.	

I. Upper Limb.

B. Muscular Nerves.

2. Ventral (Anterior) Surface.

Regions.	Muscles.	Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	Spinal Origins. *Postaxial Nerves.*
Upper part (*preaxial muscles*)	Sterno-mastoid	Cervical plexus	C. 2.	
	Omo-hyoid, Sterno-hyoid	Ansa hypoglossi	C. 1. 2. 3.	
toral	Subclavius	Brachial plexus	C. 5. 6.	
ion	Pectoralis major	Anterior thoracic nerves	C. 5. 6. 7. 8. T. 1.	
Lower part (*postaxial muscles*)	Clavicular part	Anterior thoracic nerves	C. 5. 6.	
	Sternal part	Anterior thoracic nerves	C. 5. 6. 7. 8. T. 1.	
	Pectoralis minor	Anterior thoracic nerves	C. 7. 8. T. 1.	

2. **Ventral (Anterior) Surface**—*continued.*

Regions.		Muscles.	Nerves.	Spinal Origin: *Preaxial Nerves.*	*Postax Nerv*
Upper arm	Outer part (*preaxial*)	Biceps	Musculo-cutaneous	C. 5. 6.	
		Brachialis anticus	Musculo-cutaneous Musculo-spiral	C. (5). 6.	
		Coraco-brachialis	Musculo-cutaneous	C. 7.	
	Inner part (*postaxial*)	Axillary arches	Internal anterior thoracic, or lesser internal cutaneous, or inter-costo-humeral	C. 8. T. 1.	
Forearm	Outer part (*preaxial*)	Pronator radii teres	Median	C. 6.	
		Flexor carpi radialis	Median	C. 6.	
		Palmaris longus	Median		
		Flexor sublimis digitorum	Median		
		Flexor profundus digitorum	Anterior inter-osseous: Ulnar	C. 7. 8. T. 1. C. 8. T. 1.	
		Flexor carpi ulnaris	Ulnar	C. 8. T. 1.	
	Inner part (*postaxial*)	Flexor longus pollicis	Anterior inter-osseous	C. 7. 8. T. 1.	
		Pronator quadratus	Anterior inter-osseous	C. 7. 8. T. 1.	
Hand	Outer part (*preaxial*)	Abductor pollicis	Median	C. 6. 7.	
		Opponens pollicis	Median	C. 6. 7.	
		Flexor brevis pollicis	Median	C. 6. 7.	
		Two outer lumbricales	Median	C. 6. 7.	
		Two inner lumbricales	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).	
		Interossei	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).	
		Adductores pollicis (transversus et obliquus)	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).	
		Abductor minimi digiti	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).	
	Inner part (*postaxial*)	Opponens minimi digiti	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).	
		Flexor brevis minimi digiti	Ulnar	C. 8. (T. 1).	

II. Lower Limb.

A. Cutaneous Nerves.

1. Dorsal Surface.

(*Front and outer side of thigh, buttock, front of leg, dorsum of foot.*)

Regions.		Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	*Postax Nerve*
Front of thigh and front part of buttock (*preaxial nerves*)	Thigh	Genito-crural, crural branch	L. 1. 2.	
		Anterior crural, internal branch	L. 2. 3.	
		Anterior crural, middle branch	L. 2. 3.	
		External cutaneous	L. 2. 3.	
	Buttock	Twelfth thoracic, iliac branch	T. 12.	
		Ilio-hypogastric, iliac branch	L. 1.	
		Posterior primary divisions, lumbar	L. 1. 2. 3.	
		Posterior primary divisions, sacral		S. 1.
Outer side of thigh and buttock, back and lower part (*postaxial nerves*)		Posterior primary divisions, coccygeal		Co
		Small sciatic: gluteal, and femoral branches		S. 1.
Leg	Inner side (*preaxial*)	Internal saphenous	L. 3. 4.	
		Patellar branch	L. 3. 4.	
	Outer side (*postaxial*)	Musculo-cutaneous	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
		Peroneal, sural branches	L. (4). 5. S. 1.	
Dorsum of foot	Inner side (*preaxial*)	Internal saphenous	L. 3. 4.	
		Anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. (S. 1).	
	Outer side (*postaxial*)	Musculo-cutaneous	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
		External saphenous	S. 1. (2).	

II. Lower Limb.

A. Cutaneous Nerves.

2. Ventral Surface.

(*Inner side and back of thigh, back of leg, and sole of foot.*)

Regions.	Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	Spinal Origins. *Postaxial Nerves.*
side ck of — Inner side of thigh (*preaxial*)	Ilio-inguinal	L. 1.	
	Obturator	L. 2. 3. (4).	
Back of thigh (*postaxial*)	Small sciatic, femoral branches		S. 1. 2. 3.
f leg	Peroneal, sural branches	L. (4). 5. S. 1.	
	Peroneal, communicans fibularis		
	Small sciatic		S. 1. 2. 3.
	External saphenous		S. 1. (2).
Inner side (*preaxial*)	Internal saphenous	L. 3. 4.	
	Posterior tibial, calcanean		S. 1. 2.
	Internal plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
	Great toe, inner side	L. 4. 5.	
	„ „ outer side	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
	Second toe, inner side		
foot	„ „ outer side		
	Third toe, inner side	L. 5. S. 1.	
	„ „ outer side		
	Fourth toe, inner side		
	External plantar		
	Fourth toe, outer side	S. 1. 2.	
Outer side (*postaxial*)	Fifth toe, inner side		
	„ „ outer side		
	External saphenous	S 1. (2).	

II. Lower Limb.

B. Muscular Nerves.

1. Dorsal Surface.

and outer side of thigh, buttock, front and outer side of leg, dorsum of foot.)

Regions.	Muscles.	Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves.*	Spinal Origins. *Postaxial Nerves.*
f thigh (*preaxial*)	Pectineus	Anterior crural	L. 2. 3.	
	Sartorius			
	Iliacus		L. 2. 3. 4.	
	Psoas			
	Quadriceps extensor			
	Vastus internus		L. 3. 4.	
	Rectus femoris			
	Crureus			
	Vastus externus			
and outer side of thigh taxial)	Tensor fasciæ femoris	Superior gluteal	L. 4. 5. S. 1	
	Gluteus minimus			
	„ medius			
	„ maximus	Inferior gluteal	L. 5. S. 1. 2.	
	Biceps, short head	Peroneal		
	Pyriformis	Sacral plexus		S. 1. 2.

1. **Dorsal Surface**—*continued.*

Regions.		Muscles.	Nerves.	Spinal Origins. *Preaxial Nerves*
Front of leg	Inner side (*preaxial*)	Tibialis anticus	Anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.
		Extensor proprius hallucis		
		Extensor longus digitorum		
		Peroneus tertius		
	Outer side (*postaxial*)	Peroneus longus	Musculo-cutaneous	
		Peroneus brevis		
Dorsum of foot		Extensor brevis digitorum	Anterior tibial	

II. Lower Limb.

B. Muscular Nerves.

2. **Ventral Surface.**

(*Inner side and back of thigh, back of leg, and sole of foot.*)

Regions.		Muscles.	Nerves.	Spinal Origin. *Preaxial Nerves.*	*Post Ner*
Thigh and buttock	Thigh, inner side (*preaxial*)	Adductor longus	Obturator	L. 2. 3.	
		Gracilis		L. 2. 3. 4.	
		Adductor brevis		L. 3. 4.	
		Obturator externus			
		Adductor magnus			
	Thigh, outer side (*postaxial*)	Adductor magnus	Nerve to hamstrings	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
		Semi-membranosus		L. 5. S. 1. 2.	
		Semi-tendinosus		S. 1. 2. 3.	
		Biceps, long head			
	Buttock	Quadratus femoris and superior gemellus	Sacral plexus	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
		Inferior gemellus and obturator internus		S. 1. 2. 3.	
Back of leg		Plantaris	Tibial	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
		Popliteus			
		Flexor longus digitorum	Posterior tibial	L. 5. S. 1.	
		Tibialis posticus			
		Flexor longus hallucis		L. 5. S. 1. 2.	
		Soleus			
		Soleus	Tibial	S. 1. 2.	
		Gastrocnemius (each head)			
Sole of foot	Inner side (*preaxial*)	Abductor hallucis	Internal plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	
		Flexor brevis digitorum			
		Flexor brevis hallucis			
		First lumbricalis			
	Outer side (*postaxial*)	Second, third, and fourth lumbricales	External plantar	S. 1. 2.	
		Flexor accessorius			
		Adductores hallucis			
		Interossei			
		Flexor brevis minimi digiti			
		Abductor minimi digiti			

A. **Innervation of the Muscles of the Limbs.**—The following laws appear to be applicable he upper and lower limbs alike :—

1. *No limb-muscle receives its nerve-supply from posterior primary divisions.*

2. *The dorsal and ventral strata of muscles are always supplied by the corresponding dorsal and ral branches of the nerves concerned. The ventral muscular stratum is more extensive than the al; the ventral nerves are the more numerous, and the additional nerves are postaxially placed.* spinal nerves supplying muscles of the upper limb are C. 5, 6, 7, 8 (dorsal), and C. 5, 6, 7, 8, (ventral); the nerves for the muscles of the lower limb are L. 2, 3, 4, 5, S. 1, 2 (dorsal), and , 3, 4, 5, S. 1, 2, 3 (ventral).

3. *The dorsal and ventral trunks of the nerves are distributed in the limb in a continuous, ental manner*; so that, "of two muscles, that nearer the head end of the body tends to be plied by the higher nerve, and that nearer the tail end by the lower nerve" (Herringham).

4. *The nerves placed most centrally in the plexus extend furthest into the limb, and the more xial nerves terminate sooner in the limb than the more postaxial nerves.*

Upper Limb.

Dorsal Surface.		Ventral Surface.	
Muscles of shoulder .	C. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.	Muscles of chest .	C. 5, 6, 7, 8, T. 1.
„ arm . .	C. 6, 7, 8.	„ arm .	C. 5, 6, 7.
„ forearm .	C. 6, 7.	„ forearm .	C. 6, 7, 8, T. 1.
		„ hand .	C. 6, 7, 8 (T. 1).

Lower Limb.

Muscles of thigh and buttock . . .	L. 2, 3, 4, 5, S. 1, 2.	Muscles of thigh .	L. 2, 3, 4, 5, S. 1, 2, 3.
Muscles of leg and foot	L. 4, 5, S. 1.	„ leg .	L. 4, 5, S. 1, 2.
		„ foot .	L. 5, S. 1, 2.

The only exception to this rule is on the ventral (anterior) surface of the upper arm, where a pression of the muscle elements leads to an absence of the regular series of segmental nerves 8, T. 1) on its postaxial border. These nerves reappear in the forearm, and the occasional

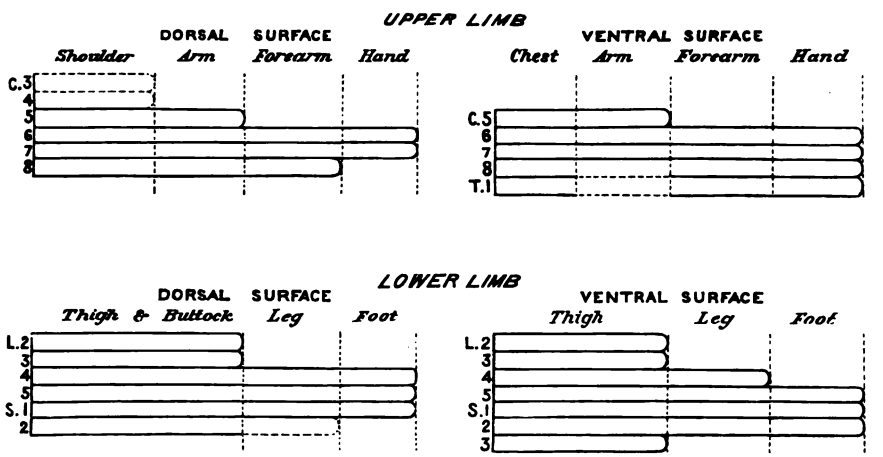

FIG. 516.—SCHEME of the segmental distribution of the muscular nerves of the upper and lower limbs.

illary arches" may be regarded as the muscular elements usually suppressed, and, when ent, supplied by these nerves.

Muscles with a Double Nerve-supply.—The existence of more than one nerve to a muscle icates usually that the muscle is composite and is the representative of originally separate nents, belonging to more than one segment or to both surfaces of the limb. In the case of pectoralis major, subscapularis and flexor profundus digitorum, adductor magnus, and soleus, ts of the same (ventral or dorsal) stratum have fused, to form muscles innervated from the esponding ventral or dorsal nerves. The other muscles having a double nerve-supply—chialis anticus, biceps flexor cruris, and (sometimes) pectineus—are examples of fusion at the axial or postaxial border of muscular elements derived from the dorsal and ventral surfaces of limb, which are correspondingly innervated by branches from both dorsal and ventral series: the brachialis anticus is innervated by the musculo-cutaneous and musculo-spiral nerves; the eps flexor cruris, by the peroneal (short head) and tibial (long head) nerves; and the pectineus, the anterior crural and (sometimes) obturator nerves.

B. **Innervation of the Skin of the Limbs.**—While the scheme of cutaneous innervation of limbs is fundamentally segmental, yet the arrangement is confused and complicated by ious causes. The growth of the limb from the trunk has caused the skin to be drawn out r it like a stretched sheet of india-rubber (Herringham), and at the same time the extent of dorsal area of the limb is increased at the expense of the ventral area. The central nerves of plexus remain buried deeply in the substance of the limb, only coming to the surface towards periphery. The proximal parts of both surfaces of the limb thus become innervated by

cutaneous nerves otherwise not necessarily concerned in the innervation of the limbs. Herringham has shown that—(A) *Of two spots on the skin, that nearer the preaxial border tends to be supplied by the higher nerve.* (B) *Of two spots in the preaxial area, the lower tends to be supplied by the lower nerve; and of two spots in the postaxial area, the lower tends to be supplied by the higher nerve.* In other words, from the root of the limb down the preaxial border to its distal extremity, and up the postaxial border to the root of the limb again, there is a definite numerical sequence of spinal nerves supplying skin areas through nerves of the limb-plexuses. A similar numerical sequence in the arrangement of the nerves is also found extending over the dorsal and ventral surfaces of the limbs from preaxial to postaxial border, except in certain situations.

On the dorsal and ventral surfaces of both upper and lower limbs there is a hiatus, for a certain distance, in the numerical sequence of the spinal nerves in their cutaneous distribution, explicable on the ground that the central nerves of the plexus, which fail to reach the surface in these situations, are replaced by cutaneous branches from neighbouring nerves. This hiatus has been named the *axial area or line.*

In the upper limb, *the dorsal axial area or line* extends from the middle line of the back, opposite the vertebra prominens, to the insertion of the deltoid.

The ventral axial area or line extends anteriorly from the middle line of the trunk, at the manubrio-sternal joint, across the chest, down the front of the arm and forearm to the wrist.

In the lower limb, *the dorsal axial area or line* may be traced from the middle line of the back over the posterior superior iliac spine, across the buttock and thigh, to the head of the fibula.

A ventral axial area or line can also be traced from the root of the penis along the inner side of the thigh and knee, and down the back of the leg to the heel.

These areas or lines represent the meeting-place and overlapping of nerves, which are not in numerical sequence; and it is only at the peripheral parts of the limbs, on the dorsal and ventral surfaces, that the nerves appear in numerical sequence from the preaxial to the postaxial border. In the case of the upper limb the hiatus is caused, in both surfaces of the limb, by the absence of cutaneous branches of the seventh cervical nerve; in the case of the lower limb the hiatus is due to the absence of branches from the fifth lumbar nerve on both surfaces of the limb, and the absence of branches from the fourth lumbar nerve, in addition, on the dorsal surface.

Understanding the significance of these dorsal and ventral axial areas or lines, and at the same time bearing in mind the overlapping which occurs in the cutaneous distribution of each spinal nerve, the areas of skin supplied through the limb-plexuses can be mapped out with considerable precision, as indicated in the following tables:—

A. Upper Limb.

Cutaneous Distribution.

	Nerves.	Spinal Origin.	Distribution.
Preaxial border from neck to hand ↓	Supraclavicular nerves	C. 3. 4.	Chest, shoulder, deltoid, and scapular regions.
	Circumflex . . .	C. 5. 6.	Deltoid region, outer side of arm.
	Musculo-spiral (upper external)	C. (5). 6.	Outer side and back of arm and forearm.
	Musculo-spiral (lower external)	C. 6. 7. 8.	Outer side and back of elbow and forearm.
	Musculo-cutaneous .	C. 5. 6.	Outer side of forearm, in front and behind.
Hand — Dorsum	Radial . . .	C. 6. 7.	Outer side of dorsum of hand.
	Ulnar . . .	C. 8.	Inner side of dorsum of hand.
Hand — Palm	Musculo-cutaneous .	C. 5. 6.	Ball of thumb.
	Median . . .	C. 6. 7.	Outer side of palm of hand.
	Ulnar . . .	T. 1.	Inner side of palm of hand.
Digits . .	Median . . .	C. 6. 7. 8. T. 1.	Thumb C. 6. 7. First finger, C. 6. 7. 8. Second „ C. 7. 8. T. 1.
	Ulnar . . .	C. 8. T. 1.	Third „ C. 8. T. 1. Fourth „ Fifth „ T. 1.
Postaxial border from hand to chest ↑	Internal cutaneous .	C. 8. T. 1.	Inner side of forearm, in front and behind.
	Musculo-spiral (internal)	C. 8.	Inner side of arm.
	Lesser internal cutaneous	T. 1.	
	Intercosto-humeral .	T. 2.	
	Intercosto-humeral .	T. 2.	Axillary folds.
	Third intercostal .	T. 3.	
	Fourth „ .	T. 4.	

B. Lower Limb.

Cutaneous Distribution.

Nerves.	Spinal Origin.	Distribution.
Iliac branch of twelfth thoracic	T. 12.	Outer side of buttock.
Iliac branch of ilio-hypogastric	L. 1.	Outer side of buttock.
Ilio-inguinal	L. 1.	Groin and over Scarpa's triangle.
l border Genito-crural	L. 1. 2.	Front of thigh, upper third.
unk to External cutaneous	L. 2. 3.	Front and outer side of thigh.
ot Anterior crural (middle and internal)	L. 2. 3.	Front and inner side of thigh, lower two-thirds.
Obturator	L. 2. 3. (4).	Inner side of thigh, middle third.
Anterior crural (internal saphenous)	L. 3. 4.	Knee and leg, inner side and front.
Internal saphenous	L. 3. 4.	Inner side of foot.
Dorsum Anterior tibial	L. 4. 5. S. (1).	Interval between first and second toes.
Musculo-cutaneous	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	Dorsum of foot and toes.
External saphenous	S. 1. (2).	Outer side of foot.
Internal plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1.	Inner part of sole.
ole External plantar	S. 1. 2.	Outer part of sole.
Posterior tibial (calcanean)	S. 1. 2.	Heel and back part of sole.
Internal and external plantar	L. 4. 5. S. 1. S. 1. 2.	Great toe, L. 4. 5. S. 1. Second toe, L. 4. 5. S. 1. Third „ L. 5. S. 1. Fourth „ L. 5. S. 1. 2. Fifth „ S. 1. 2.
al border External saphenous	S. 1. (2).	Outer side of foot and leg, lower third.
foot to Small sciatic	S. 1. 2. 3.	Back of leg, thigh, and buttock.
cyx Perforating cutaneous	S. 2. 3.	Buttock (fold of nates, inner half).
Sacro-coccygeal	S. 4. 5. Co. 1.	Anal fold.

Variations in the Position of the Limb-plexuses.

different kinds of variations occur in relation to the limb-nerves.

ndividual variations, in both the extent of origin and in the area of distribution of a rve, are not uncommon; these variations are usually concomitant with compensatory is in adjacent nerves, and are due to the fibres of a given spinal nerve taking an l course in the trunk of another nerve of distribution and effecting a communication proper nerve peripherally. In this way the variations in the origin and distribution ntercosto-humeral nerve may be explained; and, similarly, the ulnar nerve may have its fibres carried as far as the forearm incorporated with the median and transferred to ommunication between the two nerves in that region.

'ariations in the limb-plexus, in relation to the vertebral column, are the chief cause of is in the constitution of the limb-nerves. These variations affect more or less the whole nerves in the plexus.

brachial plexus is subject only to very slight variation in position and arrangement. be reinforced at the upper end by a slender trunk from the fourth cervical nerve, and, quently, by an intra-thoracic communication between the second and first thoracic The presence of one or other of these nerves is an indication of a slight tendency a cephalic or caudal shifting of the whole plexus in relation to the spinal cord. It is, , never sufficient to cause the exclusion to any extent of the nerves normally implicated. ience of a cervical rib may coincide with little or no change in the relation of the nerves. the inclusion of the second thoracic nerve in the plexus may be, as already stated, n individual variation, a change in the path to the limb of the intercosto-humeral Concomitant variations occur among groups of nerves, however, which indicate a certain to variation in the position of the whole plexus. At one end, the suprascapular and cutaneous nerves may arise from the fourth and fifth, fifth alone, or fifth and sixth nerves. At the other end of the plexus, the musculo-spiral may or may not receive a n the first thoracic nerve, and this addition is rather more likely to occur when the horacic nerve is implicated in the plexus.

lumbo-sacral plexus shows a very considerable variability in position and constitution. cords concomitant variations in the plexus in 18 per cent of the cases examined by him.

The variations occur within wide limits. The plexus may begin at the eleventh or twelfth thoracic or first lumbar nerve. The last nerve in the great sciatic cord may be the second, third, or fourth sacral nerve. The position of the n. furcalis is a guide to the arrangement of the plexus. It may be formed by the third, third and fourth, fourth, fourth and fifth, or fifth lumbar nerves. The resulting variations are illustrated by the following extreme cases:—

	(1) *Prefixed Variety.*	(2) *Postfixed Variety.*
Nervus furcalis . . .	L. 3 and 4 (double).	L. 5.
Obturator	L. 1, 2, 3.	L. 2, 3, 4, 5.
Anterior crural . . .	T. 12, L. 1, 2, 3, 4.	L. 2, 3, 4, 5.
Tibial	L. 3, 4, 5, S. 1, 2.	L. 5, S. 1, 2, 3, 4.
Peroneal	L. 3, 4, 5, S. 1.	L. 5, S. 1, 2, 3.

Those variations in the constitution of the lumbo-sacral plexus are most numerous which are due to the inclusion of nerves more caudally placed. Thus, out of twenty-two variations in the position of the *n. furcalis*, in nineteen Eisler found it formed by the fifth lumbar nerve; in two cases only, by the third lumbar nerve. There is further evidence that variations in the position of the plexus are accompanied by variations in the vertebral column itself. Out of the twenty-two abnormal plexuses examined by Eisler, sixteen were coincident with abnormal arrangement of the associated vertebræ.

Significance of the Limb-plexuses.

From the above considerations, it is obvious that something more than convenience of transit for the spinal nerves to skin and muscles is secured by the formation of the limb-plexuses. It has been shown that by their combinations in the plexuses, every spot or area of skin in the limbs is innervated by more than one spinal nerve; and generally, also, each limb-muscle is supplied by more than one spinal nerve. Each cutaneous area and each limb-muscle is thus brought into relationship with a wider area of the spinal cord than would occur if the plexuses were non-existent. A simultaneous record of sensation is thus transmitted from any given point on the surface of the limb through more than one dorsal root; and a more ready co-ordination of muscular movement is brought about by the transmission of motor impulses from the ventral root of a given spinal nerve to more than one muscle at the same time. In a word, a plexus exists to supply the whole limb and the limb as a whole, as an organ which has its different active parts connected with the central nervous system by means of the limb-plexus.

THE CRANIAL NERVES.

The series of cranial nerves is arranged in twelve pairs, which present striking differences in origin, in distribution, and in functions.

Number.	Name.	Function.	Superficial Attachment to Brain.
I.	**Olfactory** . .	Smell	Olfactory bulb.
II.	**Optic** . . .	Sight	Optic thalamus.
III.	**Oculo-motor** .	Motor to the muscles of eyeball and orbit	Crus cerebri.
IV.	**Trochlear** . .	Motor to superior oblique muscle of eyeball	Superior medullary velum.
V.	**Trigeminal** . .	Sensory to face, tongue, and teeth; motor to muscles of mastication	Pons Varolii.
VI.	**Abducent** . .	Motor to external rectus muscle of eyeball	Junction of pons and medulla.
VII.	**Facial** . . .	Motor to muscles of scalp and face, sensory to tongue	Posterior border of pons Varolii.
VIII.	**Auditory** . .	Hearing and equilibrium . .	Posterior border of pons Varolii
IX.	**Glosso-pharyngeal**	Sensory to tongue and pharynx .	Medulla oblongata.
X.	**Pneumogastric** .	Sensory to pharynx, œsophagus and stomach, and respiratory organs	Medulla oblongata.
XI.	**Spinal accessory**	(*a*) **Accessory to vagus.**—Motor to muscles of palate, pharynx, œsophagus, stomach and intestines, and respiratory organs; inhibitory for heart	Medulla oblongata.
		(*b*) **Spinal part**: motor to trapezius and sterno-mastoid muscles	Spinal cord.
XII.	**Hypoglossal** .	Motor to muscles of the tongue	Medulla oblongata.

The deep cerebral connexions of the cranial nerves are dealt with in the ction which treats of the Brain (pp. 514 and 540). Certain general points in nnexion with these nerves are also touched upon in the chapter introductory to e Nervous System (p. 443).

The First or Olfactory Nerve.

The olfactory nerve (n. olfactorius) consists of several parts: (1) a series of fine rves, which arise from (2) the **olfactory bulb**. This again is connected by (3)

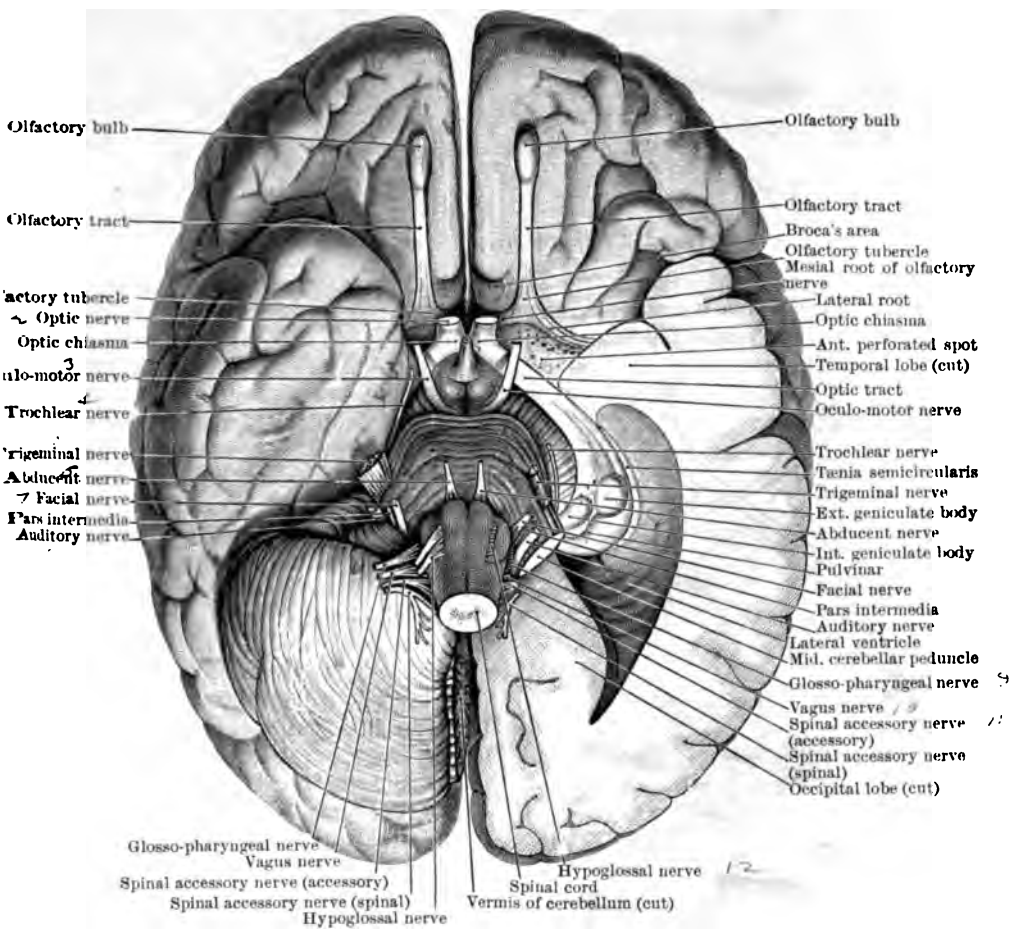

Fig. 517.—View of the Under Surface of the Brain.
With the lower portion of the temporal and occipital lobes, and the cerebellum on the left side removed, to show the origins of the cranial nerves.

e **olfactory tract** with the brain, to which it is attached by (4) two **roots** (Fig. 517).

The anatomy of the roots, tract, and bulb of the olfactory nerve are described sewhere (pp. 569 and 587).

The **olfactory nerves**, about twenty in number, arise from the under surface of ie olfactory bulb. The fibres are non-medullated. Piercing the cribriform plate f the ethmoid bone, enveloped in sheaths of dura mater, they are distributed in he nasal cavity as the nerves of smell. The fibres form fine plexuses over a limited rea on the upper portion of the nasal septum, and to even a less extent over the nter wall of the nose.

The Second or Optic Nerve.

The optic nerve (n. opticus) arises from the brain by means of the **optic tract** Fig. 551). This takes origin from the external and internal geniculate bodies,

situated on the under surface of the optic thalamus at its posterior end, and also from the brachium of the upper of the two corpora quadrigemina (*vide* pp. 532 and 551). The optic tract reaches the base of the brain after sweeping round

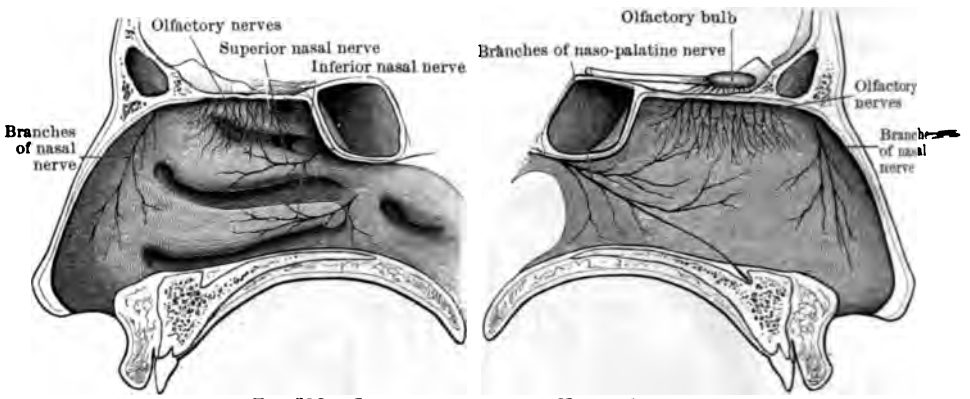

FIG. 518.—INNERVATION OF THE NASAL CAVITY.

between the crus cerebri and the hippocampal convolution of the temporal lobe. The two optic tracts converge in front of the inter-peduncular space, internal to the anterior perforated spot and the termination of the internal carotid artery, and unite to form the **optic chiasma** or **commissure**. This adheres to the under surface of the floor of the third ventricle in front of the tuber cinereum, and gives rise at each end to the **optic nerve**. The optic nerve, directed outwards and forward, pierces the dura mater, and passes from the cranial cavity into the orbit through the optic foramen in company with the ophthalmic artery. In the orbit the nerve is imbedded in the fat behind the eyeball, and is surrounded by the ocular muscles. It is connected with the globe of the eye at a point one-eighth of an inch on the inner side of the axis of the eyeball. After piercing the fibrous and vascular coats, the nerve spreads out at the **optic disc** to form the innermost layer of the **retina**. In the orbit the nerve is crossed by the ophthalmic artery and the nasal nerve, and nearer to its termination it is surrounded by the ciliary vessels and nerves, and by the capsule of Tenon. It is pierced obliquely on its under surface by the central artery of the retina.

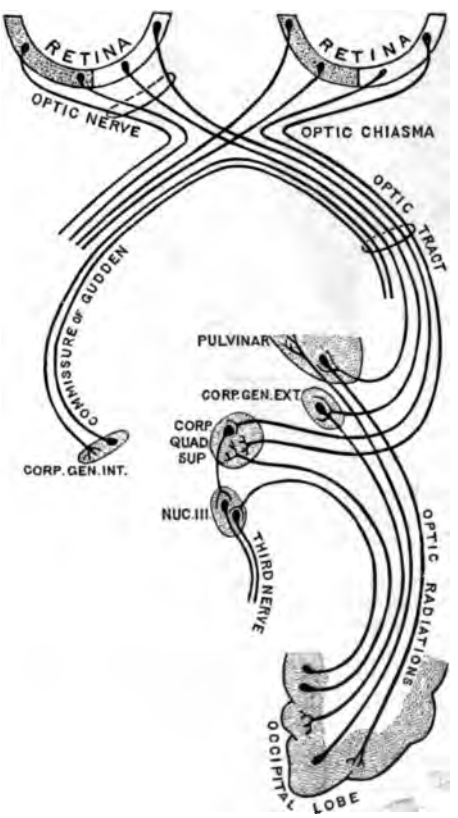

FIG. 519.—DIAGRAM OF THE CENTRAL CONNEXIONS OF THE OPTIC NERVE AND OPTIC TRACT.

Decussation in the Optic Commissure.—In the optic commissure the fibres of the two optic tracts separate, the inner half of each tract decussating to form the mesial half of the opposite optic nerve. The other, outer half of each tract, continues its course to form the outer half of the optic nerve on the same side. At the back of the commissure another bundle of fibres is found passing from tract to tract behind the decussating fibres, and known as **Gudden's commissure** (see p. 552).

THE THIRD OR OCULO-MOTOR NERVE.

The oculo-motor nerve (n. oculo-motorius) arises from the brain, in the region *of the posterior* perforated spot, by several radicles emerging from the oculo-motor

:us, on the inner side of the crus cerebri, just in front of the pons Varolii (Fig. '). Passing forwards between the posterior cerebral and superior cerebellar eries, the nerve pierces the dura mater on the outer side of the posterior clinoid ocess, in a small triangular space between the free and attached borders of the ıtorium cerebelli. Beneath the dura mater the nerve courses through the outer ll of the cavernous sinus, and enters the orbit through the sphenoidal fissure

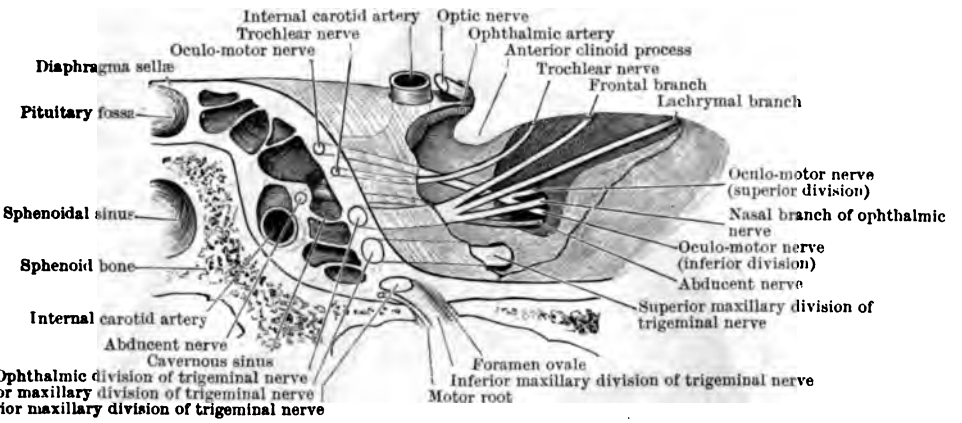

FIG. 520.—RELATIONS OF STRUCTURES IN THE CAVERNOUS SINUS AND SPHENOIDAL FISSURE.

d between the two heads of the external rectus muscle. As it enters the orbit divides into upper and lower branches, separated by the nasal nerve.

Branches.—The **superior branch** of the nerve supplies two muscles of the orbit the superior rectus and the levator palpebræ superioris.

The **inferior branch** sses forwards, and after ving branches to the ernal and inferior recti, ds in the inferior oblique ıscle. The short root of e ciliary ganglion arises m the terminal branch ich goes to the last-med muscle.

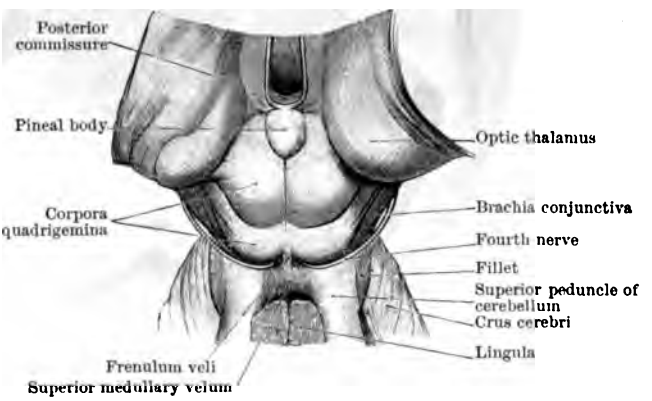

FIG. 521.—DORSAL SURFACE OF THE MID-BRAIN, to show the origin of the trochlear (fourth) nerve.

Communications.—1. In e cavernous sinus the third rve communicates with the vernous plexus on the in-rnal carotid artery. 2. In e cavernous sinus it also ceives a slender communi-tion from the ophthalmic vision of the fifth nerve. 3. The **short root of the ciliary ganglion** passes upwards om the branch of the nerve which supplies the inferior oblique muscle.

THE FOURTH OR TROCHLEAR NERVE.

The trochlear nerve (n. trochlearis or patheticus) emerges from the dorsal ırface of the mid-brain. It springs at the side of the *frenulum* from the ıterior end of the superior medullary velum, just behind the corpora quadri-emina (for deep origin, see p. 540). It is extremely slender, and of consider-ıle length. Passing round the crus cerebri, the nerve appears in the base of e brain behind the optic tract, in the interval between the crus cerebri internally d the temporal lobe of the cerebrum externally. Continued forwards to the base the skull, it pierces the free border of the tentorium cerebelli, on the outer side

of the third nerve, and proceeds forwards in the outer wall of the cavernous sinus, to the sphenoidal fissure lying between the third and ophthalmic nerves. It enters the orbit above the muscles of the eyeball, and terminates in the orbital (superior) surface of the superior oblique muscle.

Communications.—In the cavernous sinus the nerve receives (1) a communicating

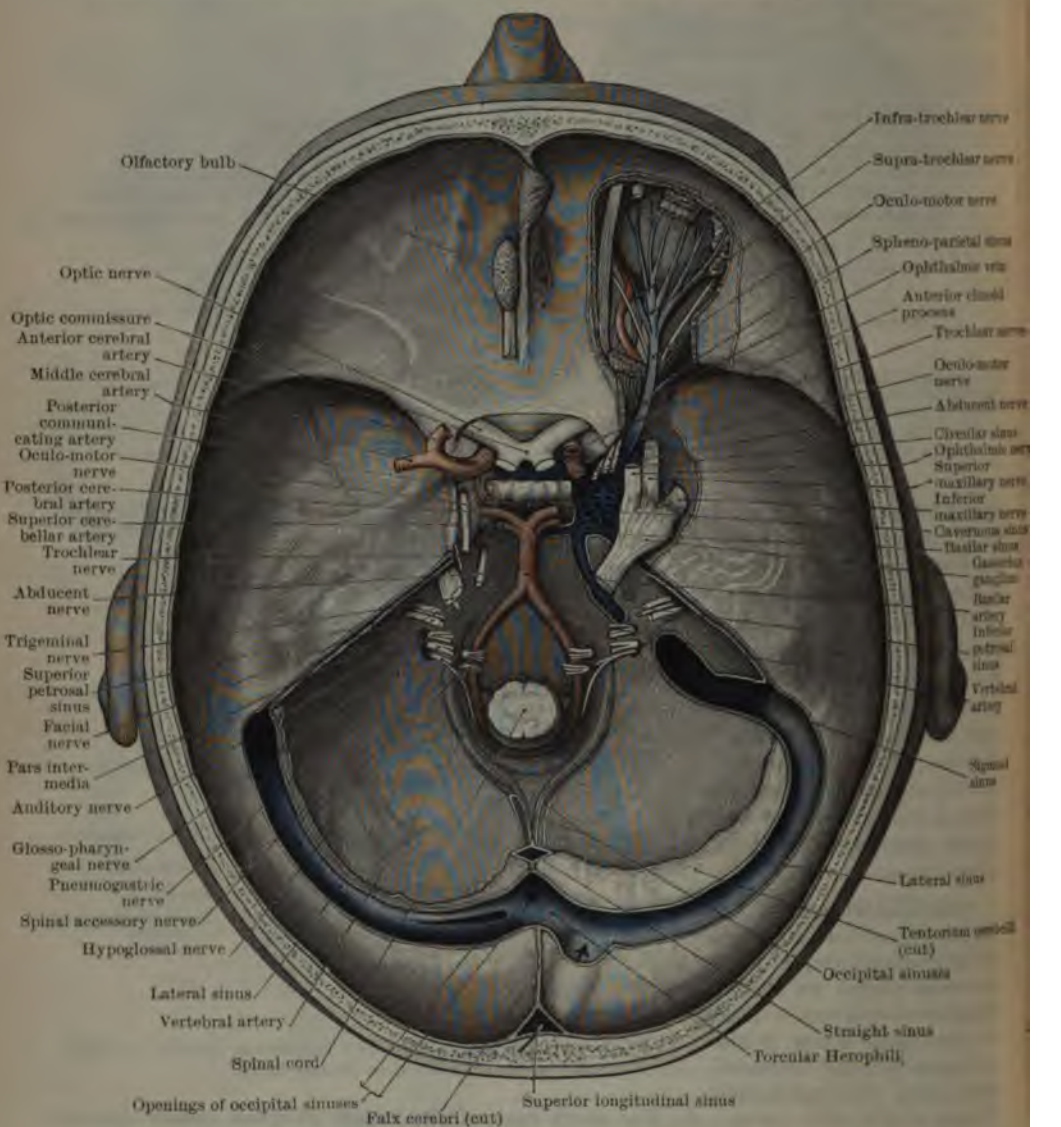

FIG. 522.—THE BASE OF THE SKULL, to show the dura mater, sinuses, arteries, and nerves.

branch from the cavernous or carotid plexus on the internal carotid artery, and (2) a slender filament from the ophthalmic division of the fifth nerve.

THE FIFTH, TRIGEMINAL OR TRIFACIAL NERVE.

The trigeminal nerve (n. trigeminus) arises from the surface of the pons Varolii in its outer part by two roots, a large **sensory root** (portio major) and a small **motor root** (portio minor) (Fig. 517, p. 675). The two roots proceed forwards in the posterior fossa of the base of the skull, and piercing the dura mater beneath the attachment *of the tentorium* cerebelli to the superior border of the petrous portion of the

emporal bone, enter a cavity in the dura mater (cavum Meckelii) over the apex of ne petrous bone. The large sensory root gradually conceals the small motor root n its course forwards, and expands beneath the dura mater into a large flattened anglion,—the **Gasserian ganglion** (ganglion semilunare). This ganglion occupies n impression on the apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and from it hree large trunks arise—the ophthalmic r first, the superior maxillary or second, nd the inferior maxillary or third ivisions of the nerve. The small notor root of the nerve passes forward eneath the Gasserian ganglion, and is holly incorporated with the inferior naxillary division of the nerve.

Ophthalmic Division (n. ophthalmicus).—The ophthalmic nerve passes orwards to the orbit through the middle ossa of the base of the skull, beneath he dura mater. It lies in the outer all of the cavernous sinus, at a lower evel than the fourth nerve, and reaches he orbit through the sphenoidal fissure Fig. 520).

In the wall of the cavernous sinus the phthalmic nerve gives off (1) a small ecurrent branch to the dura mater (n. entorii), (2) communicating branches to he cavernous plexus of the sympathetic n the internal carotid artery, and (3) mall communicating twigs to the trunks f the third, fourth, and sixth nerves.

In the sphenoidal fissure the nerve ivides into three main branches—achrymal, frontal, and nasal (Fig. 524).

The **lachrymal nerve** (n. lacrymalis) nters the orbit through the outer angle f the sphenoidal fissure, above the rbital muscles. Passing forwards beeath the periosteum to the anterior art of the orbit, the nerve ends by upplying branches (*a*) to the lachrymal gland, (*b*) to the conjunctiva, and (*c*) o the skin of the outer canthus of he eye.

The lachrymal nerve *communicates* in the orbit with the orbital branch of the superior maxillary nerve, and on the face, by its terminal branches, with the temporal branches of the facial nerve (Fig. 523).

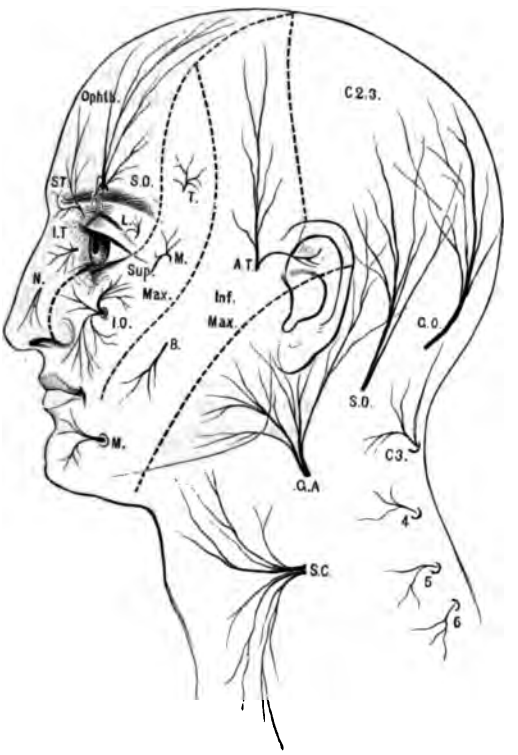

FIG. 523.—DISTRIBUTION OF SENSORY NERVES TO THE HEAD AND NECK.

Ophth, Ophthalmic division of the fifth nerve; St, Supra-trochlear branch; S.O, Supra-orbital branch; I.T, Infra-trochlear branch; L, Lachrymal branch; N, External nasal branch; Sup.Max, Superior maxillary division; T, Temporal branch; M, Malar branch; I.O, Infra-orbital branch; Inf.Max, Inferior maxillary division; A.T, Auriculo-temporal branch; B, Buccal branch; M, Mental branch; C2, 3, Branches of the second and third cervical nerves; G.O, Great occipital nerve; S.O, Small occipital nerve; G.A, Great auricular nerve; S.C, Superficial cervical nerve; C3, Least occipital nerve: 4, 5, 6, Posterior primary division of 4th, 5th, and 6th cervical nerves.

The **frontal nerve** (n. frontalis), entering the orbital cavity through the sphenoidal fissure, courses forwards above the ocular muscles, and divides at a variable point into two branches—a larger supra-orbital and a smaller supra-trochlear nerve. The **supra-orbital nerve** (n. supra-orbitalis) passes directly forwards, and leaves the orbit through the supra-orbital groove or foramen to reach the forehead. It gives off the following secondary branches: (1) the principal branches (rr. frontales) are distributed to the forehead and scalp, reaching backwards as far as the vertex; (2) small branches supply the upper eyelid; and (3) twigs are distributed to the frontal sinus. On the forehead the supra-orbital nerve communicates with the temporal branches of the facial nerve. The **supra-trochlear nerve** (n. supra-trochlearis) courses obliquely forwards and inwards over the tendon

of the superior oblique muscle to reach the inner side of the **supra-orbital arch**. Leaving the cavity of the orbit, the nerve is distributed to the skin of the mesial part of the forehead, the root of the nose, and the inner canthus of the eye.

It *communicates* with the infra-trochlear branch of the nasal nerve, either before or after leaving the orbital cavity.

The **nasal nerve** (n. naso-ciliaris) enters the orbit through the sphenoidal fissure, between the heads of the external rectus muscle, and between the two divisions of the third nerve (Fig. 520, p. 677). It crosses the orbital cavity obliquely to reach the anterior ethmoidal foramen, lying in its course below the superior rectus and superior oblique muscles, and above the optic nerve and internal rectus muscle. The nerve is transmitted through the anterior ethmoidal foramen into the cranial cavity, where it lies on the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone. It enters the nasal cavity through the nasal fissure, and terminates by dividing into internal and external branches. The internal division supplies the mucous membrane over the upper and anterior part of the nasal septum (rr. mediales). The external branch, after supplying collateral offsets to the outer wall of the nose (rr. laterales), finally appears on the face between the nasal bone and lateral cartilage, and supplies branches to the skin of the lower part and tip of the nose.

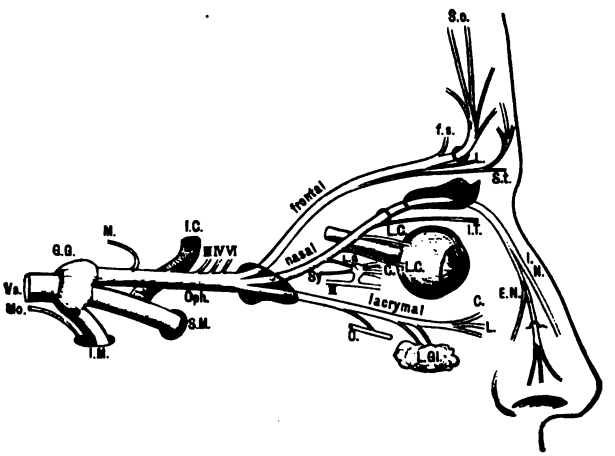

FIG. 524.—SCHEME OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE OPHTHALMIC NERVE.

Vs, Trigeminal nerve, afferent root; Mo, Efferent root; G.G, Gasserian ganglion; M, Meningeal branch; I.C, Branch to internal carotid artery; Oph, Ophthalmic nerve; S.M, Superior maxillary nerve; I.M, Inferior maxillary nerve; III, Communication to oculo-motor nerve; IV, To trochlear nerve; VI, To abducent nerve. Frontal nerve; f.s, Branches to frontal sinus; S.o, Supra-orbital nerve; S.t, Supra-trochlear nerve; L, Branches to upper eyelid. Nasal nerve; L.G, Long root to lenticular ganglion; Sy, Root from sympathetic (on carotid artery); III, Short root from motor oculi nerve; C, Short ciliary branches; L.C, Long ciliary nerves; I.T, Infra-trochlear nerve; E.N, External, and I.N, Internal nasal nerves. Lachrymal nerve; O, Orbital branch of superior maxillary nerve; L.Gl, Lachrymal gland; C, Conjunctival branch; L, Branch to eyelids and face.

The **branches** of the nasal nerve may be divided into three sets, arising (*a*) in the orbit, (*b*) in the nose, and (*c*) on the face.

In the orbit the branches are given off in three situations—external to, over, and internal to the optic nerve. (*a*) As the nasal nerve lies external to the optic nerve it gives off the **long root of the ciliary ganglion** (radix longa). (*b*) As it crosses the optic nerve **two long ciliary branches** (nn. ciliaris longi) arise and pass forwards alongside the optic nerve to the eyeball. (*c*) On the inner side of the optic nerve the **infra-trochlear nerve** (n. infra-trochlearis) arises, a slender branch which courses forward beneath the pulley of the superior oblique muscle to the front of the orbit. It ends on the face by supplying the skin of the root of the nose and the eyelids, and communicates either in the orbit or on the face with the supra-trochlear nerve. On the face it also communicates with infra-orbital branches of the facial nerve.

In the nose the **internal nasal branch** supplies the mucous membrane of the fore-part of the nasal septum; the **external nasal branch** supplies the fore-part of the outer wall of the nose.

On the face the terminal filaments of the nerve are distributed to the skin of the lower half and tip of the nose. The superficial terminal branch communicates with the infra-orbital branches of the facial nerve (Fig. 523).

The **ciliary** or **lenticular ganglion** (ganglion ciliare) is associated with the nasal branch of the ophthalmic nerve and with the lower division of the third nerve. It is a small reddish ganglion, placed between the external rectus muscle

l the optic nerve, and in front of the ophthalmic artery. Its *roots* are three in nber: (1) **sensory** or long (radix longa), derived from the nasal branch of the ıthalmic nerve; (2) **motor** or short (radix brevis), derived from the inferior ision of the third nerve; and (3) **sympathetic**, a slender filament from the ernous plexus on the internal carotid artery, which may exist as an independent t or may be incorporated with the long root from the nasal nerve. The branches m the ganglion are twelve to fifteen **short ciliary nerves** (nn. ciliares breves), ich pass to the eyeball in two groups above and below the optic nerve. They ply the coats of the eyeball, including the iris and ciliary muscles. *The circular es of the iris* and the *ciliary muscle* are innervated by the third nerve; *the dial fibres of the iris* by the sympathetic.

Superior Maxillary Division of the Fifth Nerve (n. maxillaris).—This large rve courses forwards from its origin in the Gasserian ganglion through the middle sa of the base of the skull, beneath the dura mater, and in relation to the lower rt of the cavernous sinus (Fig. 520, p. 677). Passing through the foramen undum in the root of the pterygoid process, it traverses the spheno-maxillary sa. It enters the orbit as the infra-orbital nerve, through the spheno-maxillary

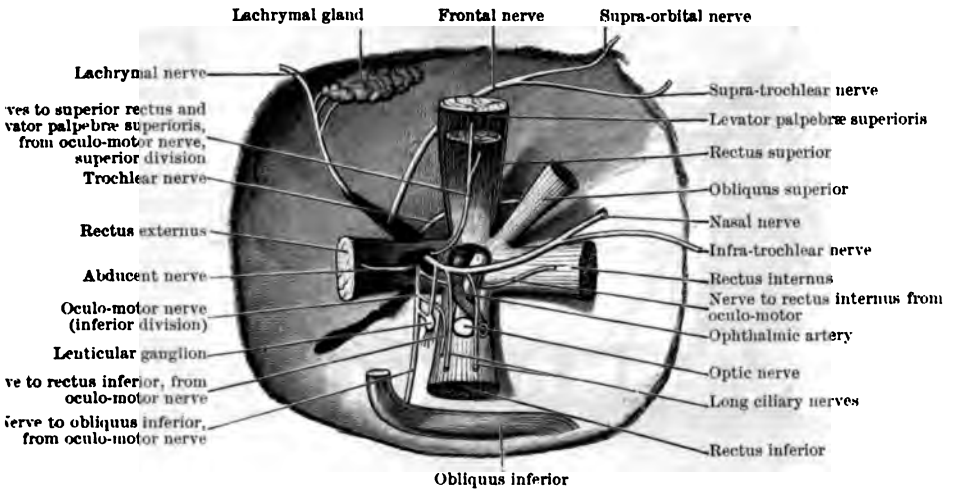

FIG. 525.—SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE NERVES WHICH TRAVERSE THE CAVITY OF THE ORBIT.

ıure, and occupying successively the infra-orbital groove and canal, it finally pears on the face through the infra-orbital foramen (Fig. 526).

The branches and communications of this nerve occur (*a*) in the cavity of the nium, (*b*) in the spheno-maxillary fossa, (*c*) in the infra-orbital canal, and (*d*) the face.

In the cavity of the cranium the nerve gives off a minute **recurrent branch** (n. ningeus) to the dura mater of the middle fossa of the base of the skull.

In the spheno-maxillary fossa the nerve gives off—(1) two short thick **spheno-latine nerves** (nn. spheno-palatini), the short or sensory roots of the spheno-latine (Meckel's) ganglion. (2) A **posterior dental nerve**, which may be double n. alveolares superiores), descends through the pterygo-maxillary fissure to the ter side of the upper jaw, and proceeds forwards along the alveolar arch, in mpany with the posterior dental artery. It supplies the gum and the upper olar teeth by branches which perforate the bone to reach the alveoli. The nerve rms a fine plexus joined by the middle dental nerve before finally reaching the eth. (3) A small **orbital branch** (n. zygomaticus) enters the orbital cavity through ıe spheno-maxillary fissure, and proceeding along the outer wall, communicates ith the lachrymal nerve, and passes through the orbital canal in the malar bone, here it divides into malar and temporal branches. The **malar branch** (n. zygo-ıatico-facialis) appears on the face, after traversing the malar bone, and supplies he skin over that bone. It communicates with the malar branches of the facial erve. The **temporal branch** (n. zygomatico-temporalis) perforates the zygomatic

surface of the malar bone, and is distributed, after piercing the temporal fascia, to the skin over the fore-part of the temple. It communicates with the temporal branches of the facial nerve. It may be very minute, and not pass further than the temporal fascia, between the two layers of which it may form a communication with the facial nerve. (4) The **infra-orbital nerve** (n. infra-orbitalis) is the terminal branch of the superior maxillary nerve, which enters the orbit through the spheno-maxillary fissure and traverses the infra-orbital canal to reach the face.

In the infra-orbital canal the infra-orbital nerve supplies one and sometimes two branches to the teeth—the **middle** and **anterior dental nerves** (rr. alveolares superiores medius and anterior). The former may be only a secondary branch of the latter nerve, or they may arise independently from the infra-orbital nerve. However formed, the nerves descend in bony canals in the wall of the antrum of Highmore (to the lining of which branches are given), and reach the alveolar arch, where they form minute plexuses and supply the teeth (joining posteriorly with the branches of the posterior dental nerve). The anterior dental nerve supplies the incisor and canine teeth; the middle dental nerve supplies the premolar teeth.

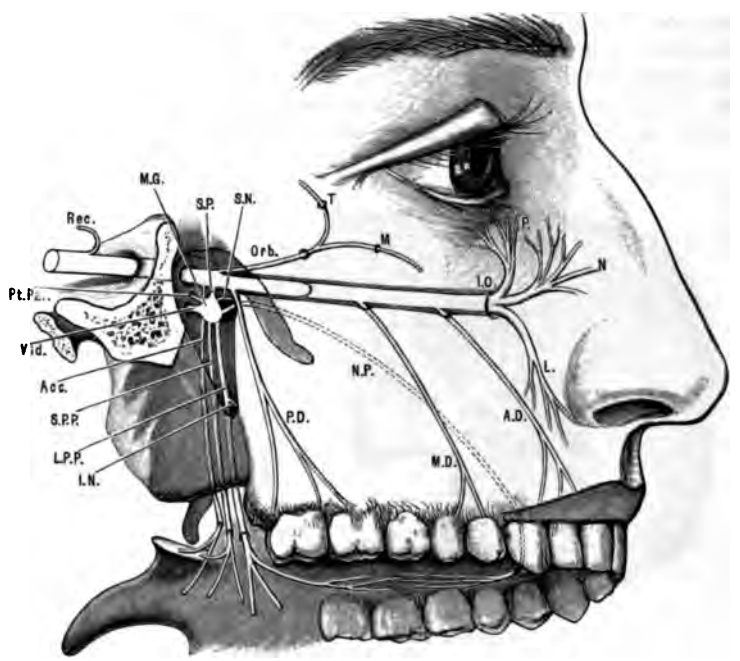

FIG. 526.—SCHEME OF THE COURSE AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE SUPERIOR MAXILLARY NERVE.

Rec, Recurrent branch in the middle fossa of the skull; M.G, Meckel's ganglion in the spheno-maxillary fossa; S.P, Spheno-palatine nerves; S.N, Superior nasal branch; Orb, Orbital nerve; T, Temporal, and M, Malar branches; I.O, Infra-orbital nerve, appearing on the face; P, Palpebral; N, Nasal, and L, Labial branches; A.D, Anterior dental branch; M.D, Middle dental branch; N.P, Naso-palatine nerve; P.D, Posterior dental branch; I.N, Inferior nasal branch; L.P.P, Large posterior palatine nerve; S.P.P, Small posterior palatine nerve; Acc, Accessory posterior palatine nerve; Vid, Vidian nerve; Pt.Pal, Pterygo-palatine branch.

After emerging on the face from the infra-orbital foramen, the infra-orbital nerve divides into a number of radiating branches arranged in three sets—(*a*) **palpebral**, for the lower eyelid; (*b*) **nasal**, for the skin of the side of the nose; and (*c*) **labial**, for the cheek and upper lip. These branches form communications with the infra-orbital branches of the facial nerve, and give rise to the *infra-orbital plexus* (Fig. 523, p. 679).

The **spheno-palatine** or **Meckel's ganglion** (g. spheno-palatinum) occupies the upper part of the spheno-maxillary fossa. It is a small reddish-gray ganglion, suspended from the superior maxillary nerve by the two **spheno-palatine branches** which constitute its sensory roots. The **motor** and **sympathetic roots** of the ganglion are derived from the **vidian nerve**. This nerve is formed in the cavity of the skull upon the cartilage filling up the foramen lacerum medium, by the union of the *great superficial petrosal nerve* from the geniculate ganglion of the facial nerve (emerging from the temporal bone through the hiatus Fallopii) with the *great deep petrosal nerve*, a branch of the carotid plexus of the sympathetic on the internal carotid artery. The vidian nerve passes through the vidian canal to the spheno-maxillary fossa, where it ends in Meckel's ganglion.

The branches from the ganglion are seven in number. (*a*) The **pterygo-palatine** or **pharyngeal** branch passes backwards through the pterygo-palatine canal to supply the mucous membrane of the roof of the pharynx.

(*b*) The **posterior palatine nerves**, three in number, are directed downwards to the palate through the posterior palatine canals. The **large posterior palatine nerve** emerges on the under surface of the palate through the large posterior palatine canal, and at once separates into numerous branches for the supply of the mucous membrane of the soft and the hard palate. Its anterior filaments communicate with branches of the naso-palatine nerve. The main nerve gives off, as it lies in the posterior palatine canal, a **small inferior nasal nerve** which enters the nasal cavity and supplies the mucous membrane of the lower part of the outer wall of the nose. The **small posterior palatine nerve** descends through the small posterior palatine canal, and, piercing the tuberosity of the palate bone, is distributed to the mucous membrane of the soft palate, uvula, and tonsil. It possibly conveys motor fibres to the levator palati and azygos uvulæ muscles. The **accessory posterior palatine nerves** are one or more small twigs which pass through accessory posterior palatine canals, and supply branches to the mucous membrane of the tonsil, soft palate, and uvula.

(*c*) The branches directed inwards from Meckel's ganglion enter the nasal cavity through the spheno-palatine foramen. They are two in number—the superior nasal and the naso-palatine. The **superior nasal nerve** is a small nerve destined for the mucous membrane of the upper and back part of the outer wall of the nose. The **naso-palatine nerve**, after passing through the spheno-palatine foramen, crosses the roof of the nose, and extends obliquely downwards and forwards along the nasal septum, grooving the vomer in its course, to reach the incisor foramen near the front of the hard palate. The nerves pass through the subordinate mesial foramina (of Scarpa), the left nerve in front of the right. In the incisor foramen the two nerves communicate together. They then turn backwards and supply the mucous membrane of the hard palate. They communicate posteriorly with terminal filaments of the large posterior palatine nerves. In its course through the nasal cavity the naso-palatine nerve furnishes collateral branches to the mucous membrane of the roof and septum of the nose (Fig. 518, p. 676).

(*d*) The **orbital branches**, one or more minute branches, pass upwards to the periosteum of the orbit from Meckel's ganglion.

Inferior Maxillary Nerve (n. mandibularis).—The inferior maxillary nerve is formed by the union of two roots: a large **sensory root**, from the Gasserian ganglion, and the small **motor root** of the trigeminal nerve, which is wholly incorporated with this trunk. The two roots pass together beneath the dura mater of the middle fossa of the base of the skull to the foramen ovale, through which they emerge into the pterygoid region. Outside the skull they combine to form a single trunk, which soon separates into anterior and posterior divisions.

At its emergence from the skull the nerve is deeply placed beneath the middle of the zygomatic arch, and is concealed by the ramus of the lower jaw, and by the temporal, masseter, and external pterygoid muscles.

The branches of the inferior maxillary nerve may be divided into two series—(1) those derived from the undivided nerve, and (2) those derived from the terminal divisions of the nerve.

The branches of the undivided nerve are two in number. (*a*) A small **recurrent branch** (n. spinosus) arises just outside the skull, and accompanying the middle meningeal artery through the foramen spinosum, supplies the dura mater. (*b*) In the pterygoid region a small branch arises for the supply of the **internal pterygoid muscle**. This nerve forms a connexion with the otic ganglion.

The terminal divisions of the nerve are a small anterior and a large posterior trunk.

The small **anterior trunk** passes downwards and forwards beneath the external pterygoid muscle, and separates into the following branches:—(1) A branch for the external pterygoid muscle (n. pterygoideus externus), which supplies it on its deep surface; (2) a branch to the masseter muscle (n. massetericus), which passes over the upper border of the external pterygoid and through the sigmoid notch of the lower jaw; (3) and (4) two branches to the temporal muscle (nn. temporales pro-

fundi, anterior et posterior), which also ascend above the **external pterygoid** muscle; and (5) the **buccal nerve** (n. buccinatorius), which passes obliquely forwards between the two heads of the external pterygoid to reach the buccinator muscle. This nerve is sensory, and its fibres are in part distributed to the skin of the cheek (communicating with buccal branches of the facial nerve); they are also in part distributed to the mucous membrane of the inside of the mouth, to reach which they pierce the fibres of the buccinator muscle. The buccal nerve usually supplies a third branch to the temporal muscle, after emerging between the two heads of the external pterygoid muscle (Fig. 523, p. 679).

The large **posterior trunk** extends downwards a short way beneath the external pterygoid muscle. After giving off by two roots the auriculo-temporal nerve, it ends by dividing into two, the lingual and the inferior dental nerves.

The **auriculo-temporal nerve** (n. auriculo-temporalis) is formed by the union of two roots which embrace the middle meningeal artery. The nerve passes backwards beneath the external pterygoid muscle and between the internal lateral ligament and the neck of the lower jaw. Entering the substance of the parotid gland, it is directed upwards to the temple over the zygoma in company with the temporal artery. It is finally distributed as a cutaneous nerve of the temple and scalp, and reaches almost to the vertex of the skull.

The auriculo-temporal nerve gives off the following branches:—(1) A small branch to the temporo-maxillary articulation. (2) Branches to the parotid gland. (3) A twig for the supply of the skin of the external auditory meatus (and membrana tympani). (4) Branches to the upper half of the pinna on its outer aspect. (5) Terminal branches to the skin of the temple and scalp.

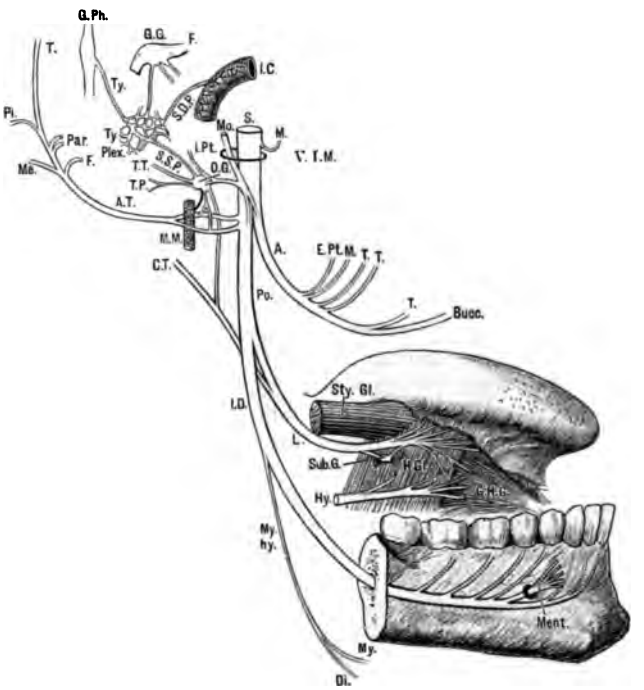

FIG. 527.—SCHEME OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE INFERIOR MAXILLARY NERVE.

V.I.M, Inferior maxillary nerve; S, Afferent, and Mo, Efferent roots; M, Meningeal branch; O.G, Otic ganglion; I.Pt, Nerve to internal pterygoid; S.S.P, Small superficial petrosal nerve; T.T, Nerves to tensor tympani, and T.P, Tensor palati; Ty.Plex, Tympanic plexus; I.C, Internal carotid artery; S.D.P, Small deep petrosal nerve; G.G, Geniculate ganglion; F, Facial nerve; Ty, Tympanic branch; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal nerve; M.M, Middle meningeal artery; A.T, Auriculo-temporal nerve; F, Communication with facial nerve; Par, Nerve to parotid gland; Me, Branch to meatus of ear; Pi, Branch to pinna; T, Temporal branch; A, Anterior division of inferior maxillary nerve; E.Pt, Nerves to external pterygoid; M, Masseter; T.T.T, Temporal, and Bucc, Buccinator muscles; Po, Posterior division of inferior maxillary nerve; L, Lingual nerve; C.T, Chorda tympani nerve; Sub.G, Sub-maxillary ganglion; Hy, Hypoglossal nerve; I.D, Inferior dental nerve; My.hy, Mylohyoid nerve; My, Nerve to mylohyoid; Di, Nerve to digastric (anterior belly); Ment., Mental Branch; Sty.Gl, Stylo-glossus; H.Gl, Hyoglossus; G.H.G, Genio-hyoglossus muscles.

It has the following **communications** with other nerves:—(1) Important communications are effected by the roots of the nerve, which are separately joined by small branches from the otic ganglion. (2) The parotid branches of the nerve are connected with branches of the facial nerve in the substance of the gland. (3) The temporal branch of the nerve is in communication superficially with the temporal branches of the facial nerve.

The **lingual nerve** (n. lingualis) is the smaller of the two terminal branches

of the posterior division of the inferior maxillary nerve. It proceeds downwards in front of the inferior dental nerve, beneath the external pterygoid muscle, to its lower border. After passing between the internal pterygoid muscle, and the ramus of the lower jaw, it crosses beneath the mucous membrane of the floor of the mouth in the interval between the mylohyoid and hyoglossus muscles and beneath the duct of the submaxillary gland. It sweeps forwards and inwards to the side of the tongue, to the mucous membrane over the anterior two-thirds of which it is distributed.

Two nerves communicate with the lingual nerve in its course to the tongue :—(1) The **chorda tympani branch** of the facial nerve joins it beneath the external pterygoid muscle, and is incorporated with it in its distribution to the tongue. (2) The **hypoglossal nerve** forms larger or smaller loops of communication with the lingual nerve as they course forwards together over the hyoglossus muscle.

Besides supplying the aforesaid branches to the mucous membrane over the sides and dorsum of the tongue in its anterior two-thirds, the lingual nerve supplies the mucous membrane of the outer wall and floor of the mouth. It also assists, along with the chorda tympani nerve, in forming the roots of the submaxillary ganglion.

The **submaxillary ganglion** (ganglion submaxillare) is a minute reddish ganglion placed on the hyoglossus muscle, between the lingual nerve and the duct of the submaxillary gland. It is suspended from the former by two trunks, consisting for the most part of fibres of the lingual and chorda tympani nerves which at this point become separated from the lingual nerve and incorporated with the ganglion. The **roots** of the ganglion are—(1) an afferent root, derived from the lingual nerve; (2) an efferent root, derived from the chorda tympani; and (3) a sympathetic root, from the sympathetic plexus upon the facial artery.

The **branches from the ganglion** are distributed to the submaxillary gland and Wharton's duct, and by fibres which become reunited with the trunk of the lingual nerve, to the sublingual gland.

The **inferior dental nerve** (n. alveolaris inferior) is larger than the lingual nerve. It passes from beneath the lower border of the external pterygoid muscle to reach the interval between the ramus and internal lateral ligament of the lower jaw. Entering the inferior dental canal through the inferior dental foramen, it traverses the substance of the ramus and body of the lower jaw, distributing branches in its course to the teeth. A fine plexus is formed by the dental branches before they finally supply the teeth.

Branches and Communications.—(1) The **mylohyoid nerve** is a small branch arising just before the inferior dental nerve passes through the inferior dental foramen. Grooving the ramus of the jaw in its course, it descends into the submaxillary triangle on the superficial aspect of the mylohyoid muscle. Concealed in this situation by the submaxillary gland and the facial artery, it is distributed to the mylohyoid and anterior belly of the digastric muscles. (2) The **mental branch** of the inferior dental nerve is a trunk of considerable size arising from the main nerve in the inferior dental canal. It emerges from the lower jaw through the mental foramen, and is distributed by many branches to the chin and lower lip. It communicates beneath the facial muscles with the supra-mandibular branches of the facial nerve (Fig. 523, p. 679). (3) The **incisor branch** is the terminal part of the inferior dental nerve remaining after the origin of the mental branch. It supplies the incisor and canine teeth.

The **otic ganglion** (g. oticum) is situated beneath the inferior maxillary nerve just below the foramen ovale. Like the other ganglia described above, it possesses three roots :—(1) A *motor root*, derived from the nerve to the internal pterygoid muscle; (2) a *sensory root*, formed by the *small superficial petrosal nerve* from the tympanic plexus (through which communications are effected with the tympanic branch of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, and a branch from the geniculate ganglion of the facial nerve); (3) a *sympathetic root*, from the plexus on the middle meningeal artery (Fig. 527).

Five branches arise from the ganglion—three communicating and two motor branches. The three **communicating nerves** are fine branches which join respectively

the vidian nerve, the roots of the auriculo-temporal, and the chorda tympani nerve. The two **motor nerves** supply the tensor tympani and tensor palati muscles.

Summary.—The trigeminal, the largest and most complex of the cranial nerves, is (1) the chief sensory nerve for the face, the anterior half of the scalp, the orbit and eyeball, the nose and nasal cavity, the lips, teeth, mouth, and two-thirds of the tongue; (2) the motor fibres of the nerve supply the muscles of mastication, the mylohyoid and anterior belly of the digastric, possibly the levator palati and azygos uvulæ (through Meckel's ganglion), and the tensor tympani and tensor palati muscles (through the otic ganglion); (3) through the ganglia placed on the three divisions of the nerve, not only are important organs, areas, and muscles innervated, but communications are also effected with the sympathetic system, with the third nerve (lenticular ganglion), facial nerve (spheno-palatine and otic ganglia), and glosso-pharyngeal nerve (otic ganglion).

In its distribution to the skin of the face the branches of the fifth nerve present two striking peculiarities:—(1) While the branches to the skin reach the surface at many points and in diverse ways, the three main divisions are severally, by their branches, responsible for the supply of three clearly demarcated cutaneous areas (Fig. 523, p. 679). (2) By numerous communications with the facial nerve, sensory fibres are given to the muscles of expression supplied by the facial nerve.

The Sixth or Abducent Nerve.

The abducent nerve (n. abducens) issues from the brain at the lower border of the pons Varolii, just above the pyramid of the medulla oblongata (for deep origin see p. 524). It is directed forwards, and pierces the dura mater in the posterior fossa of the base of the skull alongside the dorsum sellæ (Fig. 522, p. 678). It then occupies the inner wall of the cavernous sinus and is placed on the outer side of the internal carotid artery. It passes through the sphenoidal fissure below the third and nasal nerves and between the two heads of the external rectus muscle (Fig. 520, p. 677). In the cavity of the orbit it supplies the external rectus muscle on its inner (ocular) surface.

Communications.—In the wall of the cavernous sinus the sixth nerve receives two communicating filaments:—(1) From the carotid plexus of the sympathetic, and (2) from the ophthalmic division of the trigeminal nerve.

The Seventh or Facial Nerve.

The facial nerve (n. facialis) emerges from the brain at the posterior border of the pons Varolii, below the trigeminal nerve and internal to the auditory nerve (for deep origin, see p. 522). Between it and the latter nerve is the minute **pars intermedia** of Wrisberg (Fig. 517, p. 675). The nerve passes outwards through the internal auditory meatus, courses through the aqueduct of Fallopius in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, emerges in the base of the skull by the stylo-mastoid foramen and passes forwards through the parotid gland to supply the muscles of the face. *In the internal auditory meatus* the nerve is placed upon the auditory nerve, the *pars intermedia* intervening. *In the aqueduct of Fallopius* the nerve first passes backwards on the inner side of the tympanum, and then downwards behind the tympanum, in the inner wall of the tympanic antrum. *In the parotid gland* the nerve crosses superficially the external carotid artery and the temporo-maxillary vein. *On the face* its branches radiate from the anterior border of the parotid gland and enter the deep surface of the facial muscles.

Branches and Communications.—(i.) *In the internal auditory meatus* the *pars intermedia* (n. intermedius), lying between the facial and auditory, sends communicating branches to both nerves. The branch to the auditory nerve probably separates from it again to join the geniculate ganglion of the facial nerve.

(ii.) *In the aqueduct of Fallopius* the **geniculate ganglion** (g. geniculi) is formed at the point where the facial nerve bends backwards (geniculum n. facialis). It is an oval swelling on the nerve, and is joined by a branch from the upper (vestibular) trunk of the auditory nerve, by which it probably receives fibres of the *pars intermedia*. From the ganglion three small nerves arise:—(1) The **large superficial petrosal nerve** passes forwards through the hiatus Fallopii to the middle fossa of the *base of the skull*. On the upper surface of the foramen lacerum medium it

by the **great deep petrosal nerve** from the sympathetic plexus on the internal
l artery to form the **vidian nerve**, which, after traversing the vidian canal,
ı Meckel's ganglion. (2) A minute nerve pierces the temporal bone and joins
npanic branch of the glosso-pharyngeal in the substance of the bone. By
ınion the **small superficial petrosal nerve** is formed, which pierces the temporal
nd ends in the otic ganglion. (3) The **external superficial petrosal nerve** is a
ɜ inconstant branch which joins the
thetic plexus on the middle meningeal

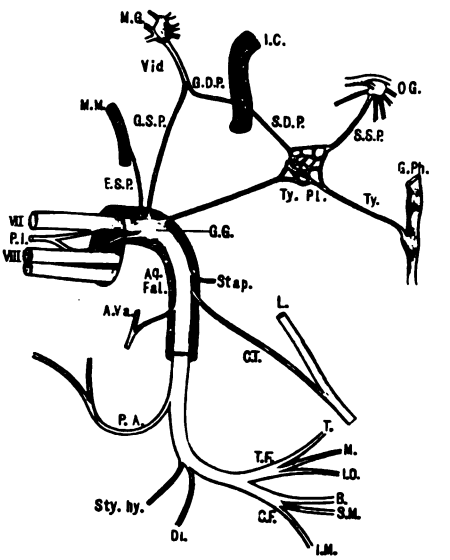

FIG. 528.— THE FACIAL NERVE WITH ITS BRANCHES AND COMMUNICATIONS IN THE AQUEDUCT OF FALLOPIUS.

VII, Facial nerve; P.I, Pars intermedia; VIII, Auditory nerve; Aq.Fal, Aqueduct of Fallopius; G.G, Geniculate ganglion; E.S.P, External superficial petrosal nerve; M.M, Middle meningeal artery; G.S.P, Great superficial petrosal nerve: G.P.D, Great deep petrosal nerve; I.C, Internal carotid artery; Vid, Vidian nerve; M.G, Meckel's ganglion; Ty. Pl, Tympanic plexus; S.D.P, Small deep petrosal nerve; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal nerve; Ty, Tympanic branch; S.S.P, Small superficial petrosal nerve; O.G, Otic ganglion; Stap, Nerve to stapedius; C.T, Chorda tympani nerve; L, Lingual nerve; A.Va, Communication with auricular branch of vagus; P.A, Posterior auricular nerve; Sty.hy, Nerve to stylo-hyoid; Di, Nerve to digastric (posterior belly); T.F, Temporo-facial division; C.F, Cervico-facial division; T. Temporal; M, Malar; I.O, Infra-orbital; B. Buccal; S.M, Supra-mandibular, and I.M, Infra-mandibular branches.

the course of the facial nerve in the
part of the aqueduct of Fallopius,
the tympanum, three branches arise—
e small nerve to the **stapedius muscle**,
passes forwards to the tympanum. (2)
orda tympani nerve (probably associated
he *pars intermedia*), which enters the
nic cavity through the *iter chordæ*
us, passes over the membrana tympani
e handle of the malleus, and leaves
rity through the *iter chordæ anterius*
h the pterygoid region. Beneath the
ıl pterygoid muscle it becomes incor-
l with the lingual branch of the in-
maxillary nerve, and in its further
is inseparable from that nerve. It
s a root to the sub-maxillary ganglion,
finally distributed (probably as a
ɔf taste) to the side and dorsum of
gue in its anterior two-thirds. The
tympani nerve receives beneath the
ıl pterygoid muscle a fine communica-
ɔm the otic ganglion. (3) Before it
the aqueduct of Fallopius a fine **com-
ing branch** arises from the facial nerve
the auricular branch of the pneumo-
nerve.

) *In the neck* the facial nerve gives off
ıuscular branches: (1) and (2) small
es supply the stylo-hyoid and the
ɔr belly of the digastric, the latter
ɔometimes communicating with the
ɔharyngeal. (3) The **posterior auricular**
ends backwards and upwards over
erior border of the mastoid process
vith the posterior auricular artery.
les into two branches—an *auricular*
for the retrahens aurem and the intrinsic muscles of the pinna, and an
l branch for the posterior belly of the occipito-frontalis muscle. The
ɔr auricular nerve communicates with the great auricular, small occipital,
icular branch of the pneumogastric nerves in its course.

In the parotid gland the facial nerve spreads out in an irregular series of
es (**pes anserinus**), indefinitely divided into a temporo-facial and a cervico-
ivision. Communications occur in the substance of the gland between the
unks and the great auricular and auriculo-temporal nerves.

temporo-facial division gives off three series of subordinate branches
adiate forwards and upwards from the parotid gland.

The **temporal branches** are of large size, and, sweeping out of the parotid gland
e zygomatic arch, are distributed to the orbicularis palpebrarum, frontalis,
tor supercilii, attrahens, and attollens aurem. The temporal branches com-

municate in their course with the auriculo-temporal, temporal (of the superior maxillary), lachrymal, and supra-orbital branches of the trigeminal nerve.

2. The **malar branches** are small, and sometimes are inseparable from the temporal or infra-orbital nerves. Extending forwards across the malar bone, they supply the orbicularis palpebrarum and zygomatic muscles, and communicate with the malar branch of the superior maxillary nerve.

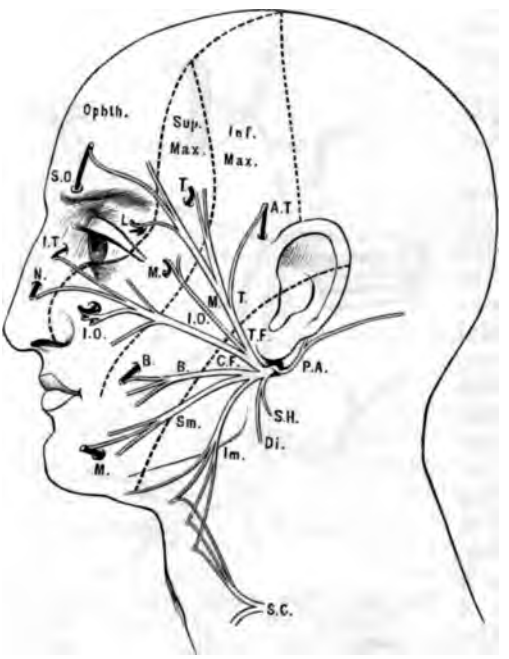

FIG. 529.—DISTRIBUTION OF FACIAL NERVE OUTSIDE THE SKULL, AND COMMUNICATIONS WITH TRIGEMINAL NERVE ON THE FACE.

Facial nerve.—P.A, Posterior auricular nerve; S.H, Nerve to stylo-hyoid; Di, Nerve to digastric (posterior belly); T.F, Temporo-facial division; T, Temporal; M, Malar; I.O, Infra-orbital branches; C.F, Cervico-facial division; B, Buccal; Sm, Supra-mandibular; Im, Infra-mandibular branches.

Trigeminal nerve.—Ophth, Ophthalmic division; S.O, Supra-orbital; I.T, Infra-trochlear; N, External nasal; L, Lachrymal branches. Sup. Max, Superior maxillary division; T, Temporal; M, Malar; I.O, Infra-orbital branches. Inf. Max, Inferior maxillary division; A.T, Auriculo-temporal; B, Buccal; M, Mental branches; S.C, Superficial cervical nerve.

3. The **infra-orbital branches** are of considerable size. Passing forwards over the masseter muscle in company with Stenson's duct, they supply the orbicularis palpebrarum, the zygomatici, buccinator, and the muscles of the nose and upper lip. The **infra-orbital plexus** is formed by the union of these nerves with the infra-orbital branch of the superior maxillary nerve below the lower eyelid. Smaller communications occur with the infra-trochlear and nasal nerves on the side of the nose.

The **cervico-facial division** of the facial nerve also supplies three series of secondary branches.

1. The **buccal branch** (or branches) extends forwards to the angle of the mouth to supply the muscles converging to the mouth, including the buccinator. It communicates with the buccal branch of the inferior maxillary nerve in front of the anterior border of the masseter muscle.

2. The **supra-mandibular branch** passes along the lower jaw to the interval between the lower lip and chin, and supplies the depressor anguli oris, depressor labii inferioris, and orbicularis oris. It communicates with the mental branch of the inferior dental nerve.

3. The **infra-mandibular branch** emerges from the parotid gland near its lower end, and sweeps forwards below the angle of the jaw to the front of the neck. It supplies the platysma myoides, and forms loops of communication with the superficial cervical nerve from the cervical plexus.

THE EIGHTH OR AUDITORY NERVE.

The auditory nerve (n. acusticus) arises from the brain by two roots, mesial and lateral. The **mesial root** (radix vestibularis) emerges between the olive and the restiform body. The **lateral root** (radix cochlearis), continuous through the cochlear nucleus with the striæ acusticæ of the fourth ventricle, winds round the outer side of the restiform body (for deep connexions, see p. 519). The two roots become incorporated to form the trunk of the nerve, which is attached to the brain on the outer side of the facial nerve and pars intermedia at the posterior border of the pons Varolii (Fig. 517, p. 675).

The nerve extends outwards through the internal auditory meatus, lying beneath the facial nerve and pars intermedia (Fig. 522, p. 678). In the meatus its two component parts separate from one another, forming a superior or vestibular trunk continuous with the mesial root, and an inferior or cochlear trunk continuous with

eral root. These trunks again subdivide, and piercing the lamina cribrosa, the several parts of the labyrinth.

e **superior** or **vestibular trunk** (n. vestibuli) in the internal auditory meatus y receives fibres from the *pars intermedia*, and gives off a communicating branch

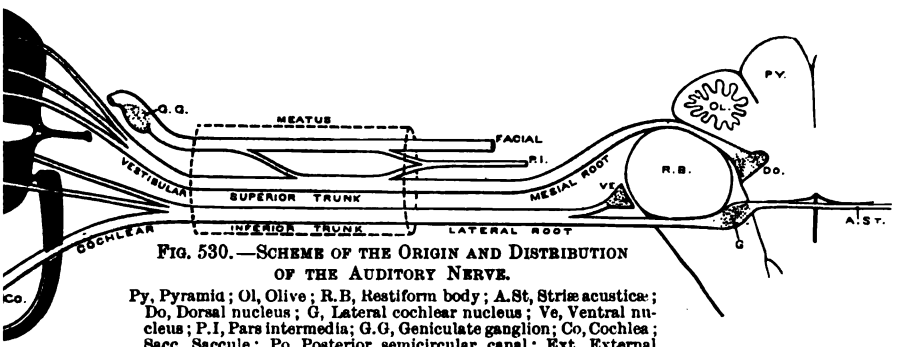

FIG. 530.—SCHEME OF THE ORIGIN AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE AUDITORY NERVE.

Py, Pyramid; Ol, Olive; R.B, Restiform body; A.St, Striæ acusticæ; Do, Dorsal nucleus; G, Lateral cochlear nucleus; Ve, Ventral nucleus; P.I, Pars intermedia; G.G, Geniculate ganglion; Co, Cochlea; Sacc, Saccule; Po, Posterior semicircular canal; Ext, External semicircular canal; Sup, Superior semicircular canal; Utr, Utricle.

geniculate ganglion of the facial nerve. It then separates into three terminal ies which pierce the lamina cribrosa, and supply (1) the macula acustica of ricle and the ampullæ of (2) the **superior** and (3) **external semicircular canals**.

e **inferior** or **cochlear trunk** (n. cochleæ) gives off branches (1) to the a acustica of the **saccule**, (2) to the ampulla of the **posterior semicircular canal**,) is continued through the lamina cribrosa to the labyrinth as the **cochlear** which is distributed through the modiolus and osseous spiral lamina to the of Corti in the cochlea.

h the vestibular and cochlear nerves contain among their fibres collections of nerve rming in each nerve a distinct ganglion—the **vestibular ganglion** (g. vestibulare) on tibular trunk, and the **spiral ganglion of the cochlea** (g. spirale) on the cochlear trunk.

THE NINTH OR GLOSSO-PHARYNGEAL NERVE.

e glosso-pharyngeal nerve (n. glosso-pharyngeus) (Fig. 517, p. 675) arises from in by five or six fine radicles which emerge from the medulla oblongata between ve and the restiform body, close to the facial nerve above, and in series with ots of the pneumogastric nerve below (for deep connexions, see p. 517). The s combine to form a nerve which extends outwards to the jugular foramen, h which it passes, along with the pneumogastric and spinal accessory nerves, veloped in a separate sheath of dura mater (Fig. 522, p. 678). Reaching the he nerve arches downwards and forwards to the interval between the hyoid nd the lower jaw. It lies at first between the internal carotid artery and ternal jugular vein, and then between the internal and external carotid s, in its course to the side of the pharynx. It sweeps round the stylo- geus muscle and the stylo-hyoid ligament, and disappears beneath the ssus muscle, to reach its termination in the tongue.

e branches of the nerve may be classified in three series according to their —(i.) in the jugular foramen; (ii.) in the neck; (iii.) in relation to the tongue.

the jugular foramen there are two enlargements upon the trunk of the nerve jugular and petrous ganglia. The **jugular ganglion** (g. superius) is small, does plicate the whole width of the nerve, and may be fused with the petrous on, or even absent altogether. No branches arise from it.

e **petrous ganglion** (g. petrosum) is distinct and constant. It is placed he nerve at the lower part of its course through the jugular foramen.

anches and Communications of the Petrous Ganglion.—The **tympanic branch** (n. nicus, Jacobson's nerve) is the most important offset from this ganglion. It through a small canal in the bridge of bone between the jugular foramen e carotid canal to reach the cavity of the tympanum, where it breaks up into es, to form, along with branches from the carotid plexus of the sympathetic on ernal carotid artery (**small deep petrosal nerve**), the **tympanic plexus** for the supply mucous lining of the tympanum, mastoid cells, and Eustachian tube (Fig. 528,

p. 687). The fibres of the tympanic branch of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve become reunited to form, by their union with a small nerve from the geniculate ganglion of the facial nerve, the **small superficial petrosal nerve** in the substance of the temporal bone. This passes forwards through the temporal bone, and eventually joins the otic ganglion.

Besides forming the tympanic branch, the petrous ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve communicates with three other nerves—(1) with the superior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic; (2) with the auricular branch of the pneumogastric; and (3) sometimes with the ganglion of the root of the pneumogastric.

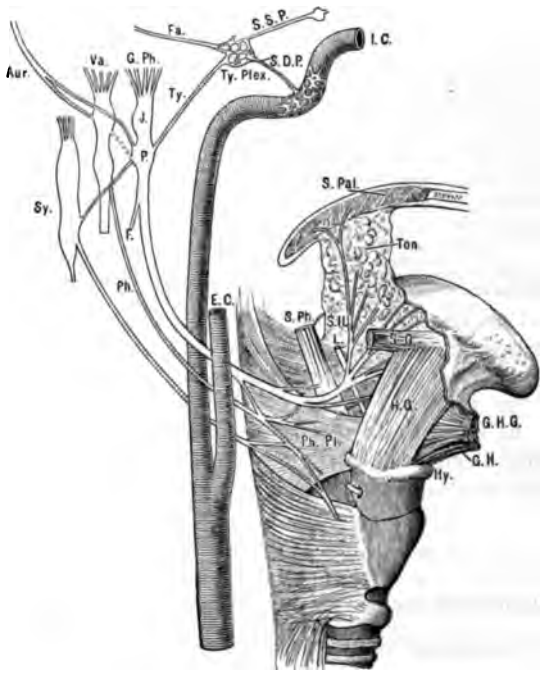

FIG. 531.—SCHEME OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE GLOSSO-PHARYNGEAL NERVE.

G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal nerve; J, Jugular, and P, Petrous ganglia; Ty, Tympanic branch (Jacobson's nerve); Ty.Plex., Tympanic plexus; Fa, Root from geniculate ganglion of facial nerve; S.S.P, Small superficial petrosal nerve to the otic ganglion; S.D.P, Small deep petrosal nerve; I.C, Internal carotid artery; Va, Pneumogastric nerve; Aur., Auricular branch (Arnold's nerve); Sy., Superior cervical sympathetic ganglion; F, Communicating branch to facial nerve; Ph, Pharyngeal branch of vagus; E.C, External carotid artery; Ph.Pl, Pharyngeal plexus; S.Ph, Stylo-pharyngeus muscle; S.H.L, Stylo-hyoid ligament; H.G, Hyo-glossus; S.G, Stylo-glossus; Ton, Tonsil; S. Pal., Soft palate; G.H.G, Genio-hyoglossus; G.H, Genio-hyoid; Hy, Hyoid bone.

In the neck the glosso-pharyngeal nerve gives off two branches. (1) As it crosses over the **stylo-pharyngeus muscle** it supplies the nerve to that muscle, which sends fibres through it to reach the mucous membrane of the pharynx. (2) The **pharyngeal branches** of the nerve supply the mucous membrane of the pharynx directly after piercing the superior constrictor muscle, and indirectly after joining, along with the pharyngeal offsets from the pneumogastric and the superior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic, in the formation of the **pharyngeal plexus**.

The **terminal branches** of the nerve supply the mucous membrane of the tongue and adjacent parts. A **tonsillitic branch** forms a plexus (circulus tonsillaris) to supply the mucous membrane covering the tonsil, the adjacent part of the soft palate, and the pillars of the fauces. **Lingual branches** supply the mucous membrane of the dorsal third and lateral half of the tongue, extending backwards to the glosso-epiglottidean folds and the front of the epiglottis.

THE TENTH OR PNEUMOGASTRIC NERVE.

The pneumogastric or vagus nerve (n. vagus) arises from the brain by numerous radicles attached to the front of the restiform body of the medulla oblongata, in series with the glosso-pharyngeal nerve above and the spinal accessory nerve below it (for deep connexions, see p. 517). Uniting to form a single trunk, the roots of the nerve pass outwards to the jugular foramen, through which they emerge into the neck.

In the jugular foramen the nerve occupies the same sheath of dura mater as the spinal accessory nerve, and is placed behind the glosso-pharyngeal nerve. Two ganglia are present on the trunk in this situation. The higher and smaller is the **ganglion of the root** (g. jugulare); the lower and larger is the **ganglion of the trunk** of the nerve (g. nodosum).

In the neck the pneumogastric nerve pursues a vertical course in front of the spinal column. It occupies the carotid sheath, lying between and behind the *internal* and common carotid arteries and the internal jugular vein. It enters the

horax behind the large veins: *on he right side,* after crossing over he subclavian artery; *on the left ide,* in the interval between the eft common carotid and subclavian rteries.

In the thorax the nerves ccupy the superior and posterior nediastinal spaces, and their re-ations are different on the two ides. (*a*) *In the superior media-tinum* the *right nerve* continues s course alongside the innominate rtery and the trachea, and behind he right innominate vein and perior vena cava, to the back of ne root of the lung. The *left erve* courses downwards between ne left common carotid and sub-avian arteries, and behind the ft innominate vein and the hrenic nerve. It passes over the rtic arch, and then proceeds to ne back of the root of the left ng. (*b*) *In the posterior media-inum* the pneumogastric nerves e concerned in the formation of vo great plexuses—the pulmon-y and the œsophageal. Behind ne root of each lung the nerve eaks up to form the large **sterior pulmonary plexus**, from ne lower end of which two nerves nerge on each side. These nerves n the right side pass obliquely ver the vena azygos major; on ne left side they cross the thoracic orta. Both series reach the œso-hagus, and divide into small nastomosing branches which form he **œsophageal plexus**. At the esophageal opening of the dia-hragm the two nerves become eparated from the plexus, and ntering the abdomen—the left nerve in front of the œsophagus, the right nerve behind it—they ter-minate by supplying the stomach and other abdominal organs.

The communications and branches of the pneumogastric nerve may be described as (i.) gan-glionic, (ii.) cervical, (iii.) thoracic, and (iv.) abdominal (Fig. 532).

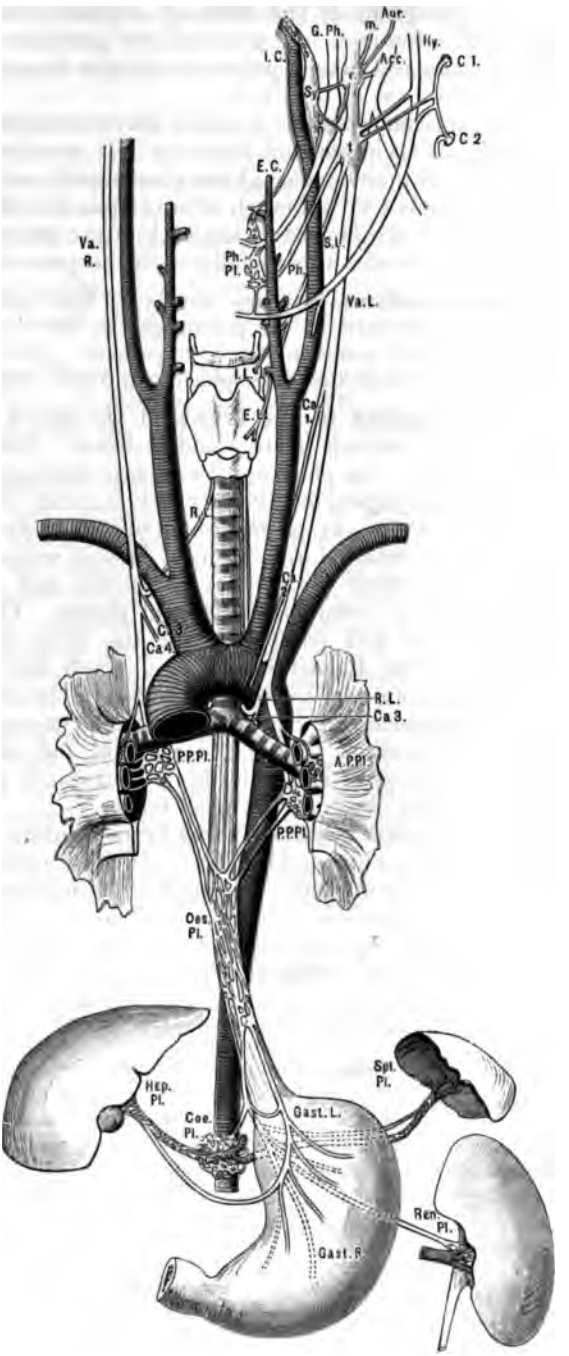

FIG. 532.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PNEUMOGASTRIC NERVE.

Var.R, Va.L, Right and left vagi; r, Ganglion of the root and connexions with Sy, Sympathetic, superior cervical ganglion; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal; Acc, Spinal accessory nerve; m, Meningeal branch; Aur, Auricular branch; t, Ganglion of the trunk and connexions with Hy, Hypoglossal nerve; C1, C2, Loop between the first two cervical nerves; Sy, Sympathetic; Acc, Spinal accessory nerve; Ph, Pharyngeal branch; Ph.Pl, Pharyngeal plexus; S.L, Superior laryngeal nerve; I.L, Internal laryngeal branch; E.L, External laryngeal branch; I.C, Internal, and E.C, External carotid arteries; Ca1, Superior cervical cardiac branch; Ca2, Inferior cervical cardiac branch; R.L, Recurrent laryngeal nerve; Ca3, Cardiac branches from recurrent laryngeal nerves; Ca4, Thoracic cardiac branch (right vagus); A.P.Pl, Anterior, and P.P.Pl, Posterior pulmonary plexuses; Oes.Pl, Œsophageal plexus; Gast.R, and Gast.L, Gastric branches of vagus (right and left); Coe.Pl, Cœliac plexus; Hep.Pl, Hepatic plexus; Spl.Pl, Splenic plexus; Ren.Pl, Renal plexus.

The **ganglion of the root** (g. jugulare) is small and spherical. It occupies the jugular foramen, and gives off two branches—meningeal and auricular.

The **meningeal branch** passes backwards to supply the dura mater of the posterior fossa of the base of the skull.

The **auricular branch** (Arnold's nerve) ascends to the ear in a fissure between the jugular and stylo-mastoid foramina. It receives near its origin a twig from the tympanic branch of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, and usually communicates with the facial nerve by a branch arising from the latter in the aqueduct of Fallopius. The nerve is distributed to the back of the pinna and the external auditory meatus, and communicates superficially with the posterior auricular nerve.

Communications.—Besides supplying the meningeal and auricular branches, the ganglion of the root of the pneumogastric nerve receives communications from (1) the superior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic; (2) the spinal accessory nerve; and (3) the petrous ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve (sometimes).

The **ganglion of the trunk** of the nerve (g. nodosum), placed immediately below the preceding, is large and fusiform. Like the previous ganglion, it supplies two branches—the pharyngeal and superior laryngeal nerves.

The **pharyngeal branch** receives its fibres (through the ganglion) from the spinal accessory nerve. It passes obliquely downwards and inwards to the pharynx between the internal and external carotid arteries, and combines with the pharyngeal nerves from the glosso-pharyngeal and superior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic to form the **pharyngeal plexus**. From this plexus the muscles of the pharynx and soft palate (except the stylo-pharyngeus and tensor palati) are supplied. The **lingual branch** is a small nerve which separates itself from the plexus and joins the hypoglossal nerve in the anterior triangle of the neck.

The **superior laryngeal nerve** (n. laryngeus superior) passes obliquely downwards and inwards, behind the external and internal carotid arteries, towards the thyroid cartilage. It divides in its course into two unequal parts—a larger internal and a smaller external laryngeal nerve.

The **internal laryngeal nerve** (ramus internus) passes inwards into the larynx between the middle and inferior constrictor muscles of the pharynx and through the thyro-hyoid membrane. It supplies the mucous membrane of the larynx, reaching upwards to the epiglottis and base of the tongue, and forms communications beneath the ala of the thyroid cartilage with the branches of the inferior laryngeal nerve.

The **external laryngeal nerve** (ramus externus) passes downwards upon the inferior constrictor muscle of the pharynx. It supplies branches to that muscle, and ends in the crico-thyroid muscle.

Communications.—Besides supplying these pharyngeal and laryngeal nerves, the ganglion of the trunk of the pneumogastric has the following communications with other nerves: (1) with the superior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic; (2) with the hypoglossal; (3) with the loop between the first and second cervical nerves; and (4) with the accessory part of the spinal accessory nerve. This part of the nerve applies itself to the ganglion, and thereby supplies to the vagus nerve the inhibitory fibres for the heart, as well as the motor fibres for the pharynx, œsophagus, stomach and intestines, larynx and respiratory organs.

Branches of the Pneumogastric in the Neck.—In the neck the pneumogastric nerve supplies cardiac branches and (on the right side) the inferior or recurrent laryngeal nerve (Fig. 532).

The **cardiac branches are superior and inferior.** *On the right side* both cardiac branches pass downwards into the thorax behind the subclavian artery, and proceed alongside the trachea to join the deep cardiac plexus. *On the left side* the two nerves separate on reaching the thorax. The *superior nerve* passes deeply alongside the trachea to join the deep cardiac plexus. The *inferior nerve* accompanies the pneumogastric nerve over the aortic arch, along with the superior cervical cardiac branch of the sympathetic, to end in the superficial cardiac plexus.

The **right inferior laryngeal nerve** arises at the root of the neck, as the pneumogastric nerve crosses over the first part of the subclavian artery. It hooks round the artery, and passes obliquely upwards and inwards behind the subclavian.

ommon carotid, and the inferior thyroid artery and the thyroid body. It finally ppears beneath the lower border of the inferior constrictor muscle, and ends pplying the muscles of the larynx. In its course it gives off the following ches:—

1) **Cardiac branches** arise as the nerve winds round the subclavian artery, and se downwards alongside the trachea to end in the deep cardiac plexus.

2) **Communicating branches** to the inferior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic from the nerve behind the subclavian artery.

3) **Muscular branches** supply the trachea, œsophagus, and the inferior constrictor ie pharynx.

4) **Terminal branches** supply the muscles of the larynx (except the crico-thyroid) communicate beneath the ala of the thyroid cartilage with branches of the rnal laryngeal nerve.

Branches of the Vagus in the Thorax.—In the thorax the pneumogastric 'e forms the great pulmonary and œsophageal plexuses. The right nerve, in tion, furnishes cardiac branches; and the left nerve gives off the inferior or rrent laryngeal nerve.

The **left inferior laryngeal nerve** differs from the nerve of the right side only ts point of origin and in the early part of its course. It springs from the mogastric nerve as it crosses the aortic arch, and, after hooking round the external to the *ligamentum arteriosum*, it passes upwards in the superior iastinum in the interval between the trachea and œsophagus to the neck. In neck its course and relations are similar to those of the nerve of the right side. branches of the nerve are the same as those of the right nerve. The **cardiac ches** are larger, and, arising below the aortic arch, proceed to the deep cardiac us.

Cardiac branches from the right pneumogastric nerve arise in the superior iastinum, and pass downwards alongside the trachea to join the deep cardiac us. On the *right side* thoracic cardiac branches are thus supplied from both trunk of the nerve and its recurrent branch; *on the left side* the cardiac branches he thorax arise solely from the recurrent branch.

Abdominal Branches.—After the formation of the œsophageal plexus the pneumogastric nerves resume their course, and passing along with the gullet ugh the diaphragm, terminate by supplying the stomach. The *right nerve* rs the abdominal cavity behind the gullet, and is distributed to the posterior ace of the stomach. It sends communicating offsets to the cœliac, splenic, and l plexuses. The *left nerve* applies itself to the anterior surface and lesser cur- ire of the stomach, to which it is distributed. It sends communicating offsets g the lesser curvature of the stomach to the right pneumogastric, and between layers of the small omentum to the hepatic plexus.

THE THORACIC PLEXUSES.

Cardiac Plexuses.—The cardiac branches of the pneumogastric nerve (both ical and thoracic) combine with the cervical cardiac branches of the sympathetic orm the superficial and deep cardiac plexuses.

The **superficial cardiac plexus** is placed in the hollow of the aortic arch, erficial to the pericardium. It contains a small ganglion (**ganglion of Wrisberg**), is joined by two small nerves—(1) the cardiac branch from the superior ical ganglion of the sympathetic, and (2) the inferior cervical cardiac branch he pneumogastric—both of the left side—which reach it after passing over the h of the aorta.

Branches and **Communications.**—From the plexus branches of communication s (1) to the left half of the **deep cardiac plexus**, between the aortic arch and the urcation of the pulmonary artery; (2) to the left **anterior pulmonary plexus** ng the left branch of the pulmonary artery; (3) the branches of distribution to heart extend along the pulmonary artery to join the **anterior** or **right coronary xus**, which supplies the substance of the heart in the course of the right onary artery.

The **deep cardiac plexus** is much the larger. It is placed behind the arch of the aorta, on the sides of the trachea, just above its bifurcation. It consists of two lateral parts, joined together by numerous communications around the termination of the trachea. The two portions of the plexus are different in their constitution and distribution. The *right half* of the plexus is joined by both the cervical and thoracic branches of the right pneumogastric and by the branches of the right inferior laryngeal nerve, as well as by branches from the superior, middle, and inferior cervical ganglia of the sympathetic. The *left half* of the plexus is joined by the superior cervical cardiac branch of the left pneumogastric, by branches from the left inferior laryngeal nerve, and by branches from the middle and inferior cervical ganglia of the left sympathetic; it also receives a contribution from the superficial cardiac plexus.

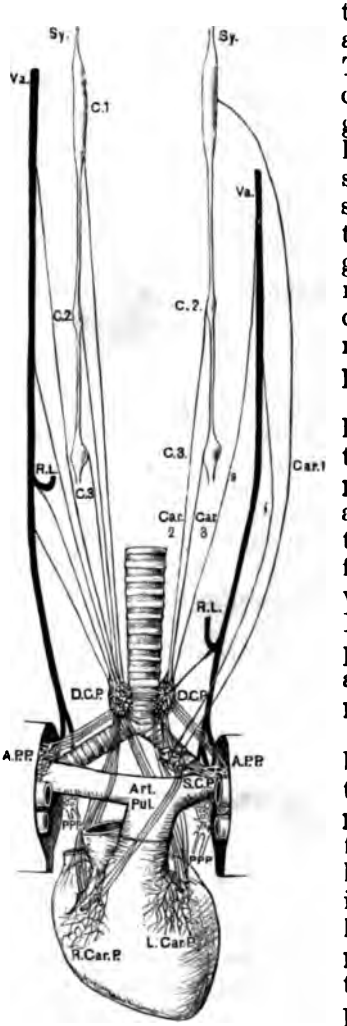

FIG. 533.—THE CONSTITUTION OF THE CARDIAC PLEXUSES.

Sy, Cervical sympathetic cord; C.1, Superior, C.2, Middle, and C.3, Inferior cervical ganglia; Car. 1, Superior, Car. 2, Middle, and Car. 3, Inferior cervical cardiac sympathetic branches; Va, Pneumogastric nerve; R.L, Recurrent laryngeal nerve; s, Superior, and i, Inferior cervical cardiac branches of vagus; D.C.P, Deep cardiac plexus; S.C.P, Superficial cardiac plexus; A.P.P, Anterior pulmonary plexus; P.P.P, Posterior pulmonary plexus; R.Car.P, Right, and L.Car.P, Left coronary plexuses; Art.Pul, Pulmonary artery.

The deep cardiac plexus is distributed to the heart and lungs. The *right half* of the plexus for the most part constitutes the **anterior** or **right coronary plexus**, reaching the heart alongside the ascending aorta, and is distributed to the heart substance in the course of the right coronary artery. It is reinforced by fibres from the superficial cardiac plexus, which reach the heart along the pulmonary artery. Fibres from the right half of the deep cardiac plexus pass also to join the **posterior** or **left coronary plexus**, and others extend outwards to join the **anterior pulmonary plexus** of the right side.

The *left half* of the deep cardiac plexus, reinforced by fibres from the superficial cardiac plexus, is distributed to the heart in the form of the **left** or **posterior coronary plexus**, which is joined by a few fibres behind the pulmonary artery from the right half of the plexus, and supplies the heart substance in the course of the left coronary artery. The left half of the plexus contributes also to the **left anterior pulmonary plexus** by fibres which extend outwards to the root of the lung along the left branch of the pulmonary artery.

Pulmonary Plexuses.—As already stated, the pneumogastric nerve on each side, on reaching the back of the root of the lung, breaks up into numerous plexiform branches for the formation of the posterior pulmonary plexus. From each nerve a few fibres pass to the front of the root of the lung, above its upper border, to form the much smaller anterior pulmonary plexus.

The **anterior pulmonary plexus** on each side is joined by a few fibres from the corresponding part of the deep cardiac plexus, and on the left side from the superficial cardiac plexus as well. It surrounds and supplies the constituents of the root of the lung anteriorly.

The **posterior pulmonary plexus**, placed behind the root of the lung, is formed by the greater part of the pneumogastric nerve reinforced by fine branches from the second, third, and fourth thoracic ganglia of the sympathetic. Numerous branches proceed from it in a plexiform manner *along the* bronchi and vessels into the substance of the lung.

Œsophageal Plexus (plexus læ). — The œsophagus in the rax is supplied by the pneumo- tric nerve both in the superior l posterior mediastinum. *In superior mediastinum* it receives nches from the pneumogastric ve on the right side, and from recurrent laryngeal branch on left side.

In the posterior mediastinum s surrounded by the œsophageal xus, formed from the trunks of pneumogastric nerves emerg- ; from the posterior pulmonary xus, which form a large plexus rounding the gullet. This part he œsophagus also receives fibres m the great splanchnic nerve l ganglion. From the œsophageal xus branches supply the mus- ar wall and mucous membrane the œsophagus.

Pericardiac branches are also plied from the plexus to the terior surface of the peri- dium.

The Eleventh or Spinal Accessory Nerve.

The spinal accessory nerve (n. cessorius) consists of two es- ntially separate parts, different th in origin and in distribution. ne portion is **accessory to the gus nerve**, and arises, in series th the fibres of that nerve, from e side of the medulla oblongata. ne other, **spinal portion**, arises m the lateral aspect of the inal cord, between the ventral d dorsal roots of the spinal rves, its origin extending from e level of the accessory portion low as the origin of the sixth rvical nerve (for the deep origin, e p. 516). Successively joining gether, the rootlets form a trunk hich ascends in the subdural ace of the spinal cord, behind ne ligamentum denticulatum, to ne foramen magnum. There the

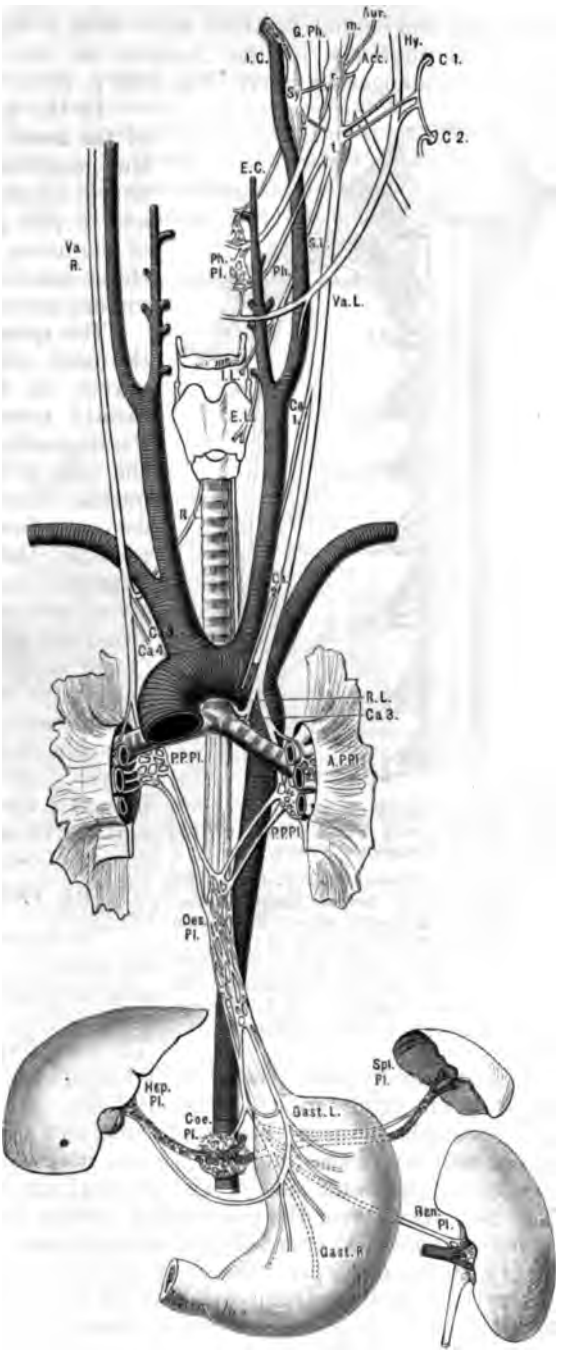

FIG. 534.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PNEUMOGASTRIC NERVE.

Va.R, Va.L, Right and left vagi; r, Ganglion of the root and connexions with Sy, Sympathetic, superior cervical ganglion; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal; Acc, Spinal accessory nerve; m, Meningeal branch; Aur, Auricular branch; t, Ganglion of the trunk and connexions with Hy, Hypoglossal nerve; C1, C2, Loop between the first two cervical nerves; Sy, Sympathetic; Acc, Spinal accessory nerve; Ph, Pharyngeal branch; Ph.Pl, Pharyngeal plexus; S.L, Superior laryngeal nerve; I.L, Internal laryngeal branch; E.L, External laryngeal branch; I.C, Internal, and E.C, External carotid arteries; Ca1, Superior cervical cardiac branch; Ca2, Inferior cervical cardiac branch; R.L, Recurrent laryngeal nerve; Ca3, Cardiac branches from recurrent laryngeal nerves; Ca4, Thoracic cardiac branch (right vagus); A.P.Pl, Anterior, and P.P.Pl, Posterior pulmonary plexuses; Oes.Pl, Œsophageal plexus; Gast.R, and Gast.L, Gastric branches of vagus (right and left); Coe.Pl, Cœliac plexus; Hep.Pl, Hepatic plexus; Spl.Pl, Splenic plexus; Ren.Pl, Renal plexus.

accessory and spinal portions unite into a single trunk, which leaves the cranial cavity through the jugular foramen in the same compartment of dura mater as the pneumogastric nerve (Fig. 522, p. 678).

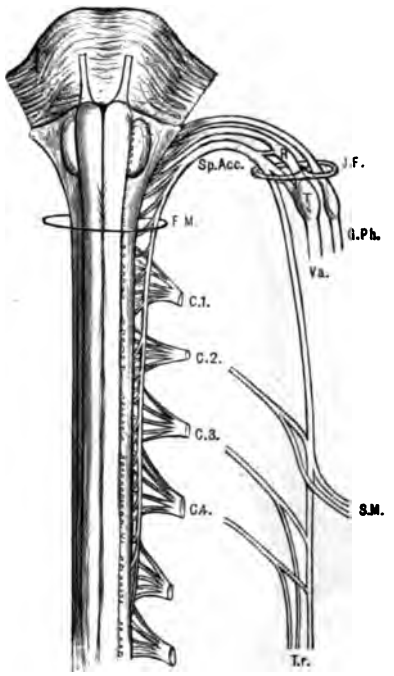

FIG. 535.—SCHEME OF THE ORIGIN, CONNEXIONS, AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE SPINAL ACCESSORY NERVE.

Sp.Acc, Spinal accessory nerve; C.1-4, First four cervical nerves (dorsal roots); Va, Pneumogastric nerve; R, Ganglion of the root; T, Ganglion of the trunk; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal nerve; S.M, Nerves to sterno-cleido-mastoid; Tr, Nerves to trapezius; F.M, Foramen magnum; J.F, Jugular foramen.

In the jugular foramen the **accessory portion of the nerve** (after furnishing a small branch to the ganglion of the root of the pneumogastric nerve) applies itself to the ganglion of the trunk, and in part joins the ganglion, in part the trunk of the nerve beyond the ganglion. By means of these connexions the pneumogastric receives viscero-motor and cardio-inhibitory fibres.

The **spinal portion** of the nerve extends into the neck, where at first it lies along with other nerves, in the interval between the internal carotid artery and the internal jugular vein. Passing obliquely downwards and outwards over the vein, it descends beneath the sterno-mastoid muscle, which it supplies as it pierces it on its deep surface. After crossing the posterior triangle the nerve ends by supplying the trapezius muscle on its under surface. The spinal portion of the nerve *communicates* in three situations with nerves from the cervical plexus—(1) in or beneath the sterno-mastoid, with the branch for the muscle derived from the second cervical nerve; (2) in the posterior triangle, with branches from the third and fourth cervical nerves; (3) beneath the trapezius, with the branches for the muscle derived from the third and fourth cervical nerves.

THE TWELFTH OR HYPOGLOSSAL NERVE.

The hypoglossal nerve (n. hypoglossus) arises by numerous radicles from the front of the medulla oblongata between the pyramid and the olive (Fig. 517, p. 675) (for deep origin, see p. 515). The root fibres arrange themselves in two bundles which separately pierce the dura mater, and unite in the anterior condyloid foramen, or after emerging from the skull. In the neck the nerve arches downwards and forwards towards the hyoid bone, and then turns inwards among the supra-hyoid muscles to the tongue. At first it is placed deeply, along with other cranial nerves, on the outer side of the internal carotid artery; it then curves forwards and downwards over the two carotid arteries lying beneath the digastric and stylo-hyoid muscles. As it crosses the external carotid artery it hooks round the occipital artery. Above the great cornu of the hyoid bone the nerve conceals the lingual artery; and it then disappears between the mylo-hyoid and hyo-glossus muscles to reach the tongue, in the muscular substance of which it terminates.

Communications.—In its course the hypoglossal nerve has the following communications with other nerves:—Near the base of the skull it is connected by small branches with (1) the superior cervical ganglion of the sympathetic; (2) the ganglion of the trunk of the pneumogastric; (3) by a larger branch, with the loop between the first two cervical nerves; (4) as it crosses the external carotid artery it receives a communication from the pharyngeal plexus (*lingual branch of the vagus*); and (5) beneath the mylo-hyoid muscle, at the anterior border of the hyo-glossus, it forms loops of communication with the lingual branch of the inferior maxillary nerve.

The **branches** of the nerve are:—(1) Recurrent; (2) Descending; (3) Thyro-*hyoid*; and (4) Lingual.

The recurrent branch passes from the nerve near its origin to supply the dura ater of the posterior fossa of the base of the skull. It probably derives its fibres om the communication with the first and second cervical nerves.

The descending hypoglossal nerve (n. descendens) is the chief branch given off in e neck. It arises from the hypoglossal nerve as it crosses the internal carotid tery, and descends in the anterior triangle in front of the carotid sheath. It is ined about the middle of the neck by the **descending cervical nerve** (from the cond and third cervical nerves). By their union the **hypoglossal loop** (ansa

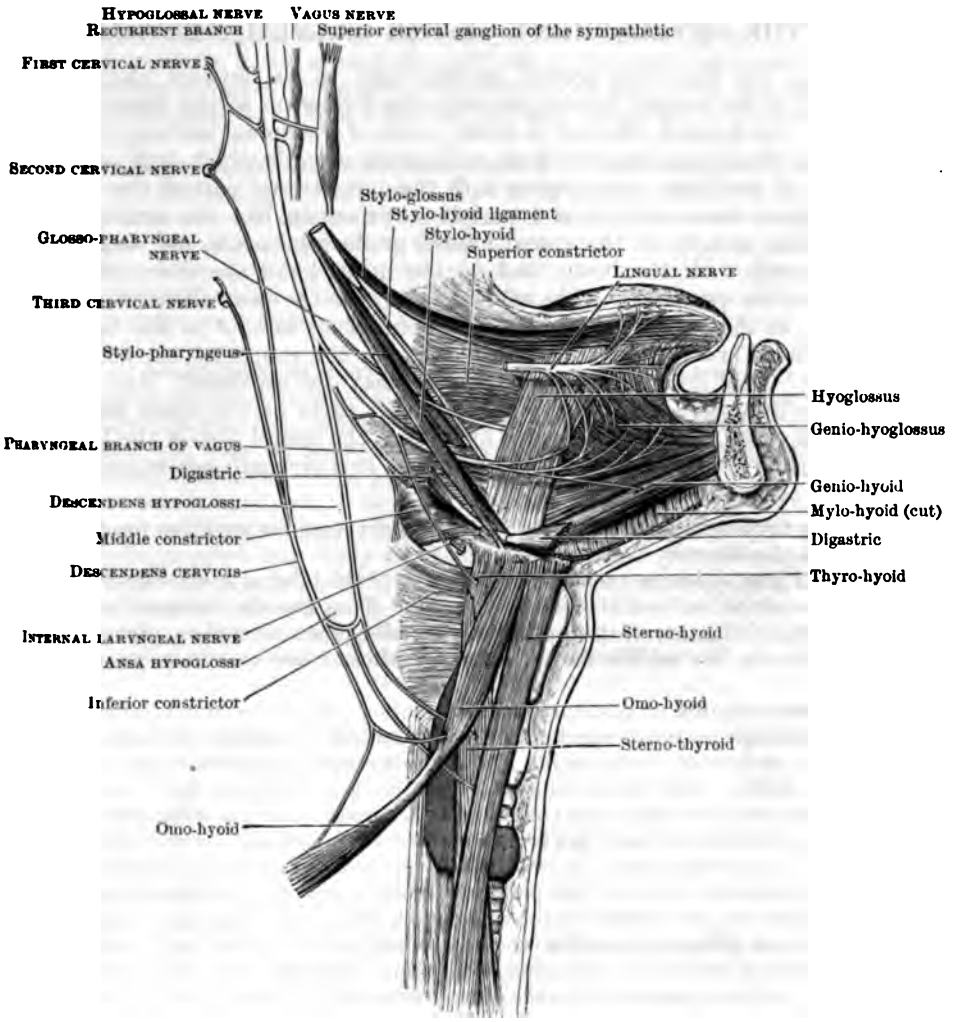

Fig. 536.—The Muscles of the Hyoid Bone and Styloid Process, and the Extrinsic Muscles of the Tongue with their Nerves.

ypoglossi) is formed, from which branches are distributed to the majority of the infra-hyoid muscles—both bellies of the omo-hyoid, the sterno-hyoid, and the sterno-thyroid. The descending hypoglossal nerve derives its fibres from the communication to the hypoglossal nerve from the loop between the first and second cervical nerves; so that the ansa hypoglossi is made up of fibres of the first three cervical nerves.

The **nerve to the thyro-hyoid muscle** is a small branch which arises from the hypoglossal nerve before it passes beneath the mylo-hyoid muscle. It descends behind the great cornu of the hyoid bone to reach the muscle. When traced backwards this nerve is found associated with the loop between the first and second cervical nerves.

The **lingual branches** of the hypoglossal nerve are distributed to the hyo-glossus, genio-hyoid, and genio-hyo-glossus, and to all the intrinsic muscles of the tongue. The nerve to the genio-hyoid is said to be derived from the loop between the first and second cervical nerves. It is not known if these two nerves are implicated in the innervation of the proper muscles of the tongue, but it appears certain that the muscles named—the genio-hyoid, thyro-hyoid, sterno-hyoid, omo-hyoid, and sterno-thyroid—are not supplied by the hypoglossal, but only by cervical nerves, the genio-hyoid by the first two, the other muscles by the first three cervical nerves.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CRANIAL NERVES.

Omitting the first and second nerves, there is an obvious likeness in the development of the several cranial nerves to the formation of the dorsal, afferent or sensory, and the ventral, efferent or motor, roots of the spinal nerves. The **afferent roots** of the cranial nerves arise from collections of cells which bud off from the alar lamina of the brain, homologous with the dorso-lateral part of the spinal cord. These cells give rise to central and peripheral processes, like the similar processes from the dorsal ganglia of the spinal nerves, producing on the one hand the root fibres connected with the brain, and on the other hand the fibres of the nerve proceeding to the periphery. The **efferent roots**, like the ventral roots of the spinal nerves, arise as the peripheral processes of neuroblasts located in the basal lamina of the primitive brain, which is homologous with the ventro-lateral portion of the spinal cord. The different efferent nerves may be separated into two series, according as they arise from the mesial or lateral parts of the basal lamina. The third, fourth, sixth, and twelfth nerves arise from the mesial part of the lamina; the efferent fibres of the fifth, seventh, ninth, tenth, and eleventh nerves arise from the lateral part of the lamina.

The **olfactory nerves** are associated in their development with the formation of the nasal pit and the olfactory bulb.

The **nasal pits** appear in each side of the front of the head at a little later period than the formation of the lens and the auditory vesicle. They become converted into the nasal cavities by the formation of the pre-oral visceral clefts and arches,—fronto-nasal and ethmo-vomerine in the middle line, and lateral ethmoid and maxillary processes at the sides (p. 38).

The **Rhinencephalon** or **olfactory bulb** is a hollow outgrowth from each telencephalon or cerebral hemisphere, which appears in the first month. It grows forwards into relation with the deep surface of the nasal pit. In many animals (as in the horse) the olfactory bulb remains hollow; but in the human subject it loses its lumen and becomes a solid bulb (**olfactory bulb**) connected to the brain by a narrow stalk, the **olfactory tract**.

The **epithelium of the nasal pit** is responsible for the formation of the olfactory nerves. There are two views as to the mode of their development from the epithelial cells. Both views admit the proliferation of the epithelium of the nasal pit so as to produce *neuroblasts*. According to the one view these neuroblasts detach themselves from the epithelial surface, and constitute **an olfactory ganglion** which becomes applied to and incorporated with the olfactory bulb. The cells of the ganglion become bi-polar, and the peripheral axons constitute the *olfactory nerves*, while the central axons (in the second month) proceed backwards to the brain along the olfactory tract. According to the other view (based on Disse's investigations), the proliferating cells of the nasal epithelium remain in the wall of the nasal pit, and become the *olfactory cells* of the nasal cavity, with peripheral processes projecting to the surface of the epithelium. Their central axons become the olfactory nerve fibres which end in the olfactory bulb, forming dendrites associated with the dendritic processes of the nerve-cells of the bulb. The central axons of these latter cells develop into the fibres of the olfactory tract.

The **optic nerve** is developed wholly from the brain. Its formation begins with the outgrowth of the optic vesicle, a paired hollow outgrowth from the ventral surface of the thalamencephalon. The epiblastic invagination of the lens, growing inwards from the surface of the head, causes the collapse of the vesicle and its conversion into the **optic cup**, the narrow tube connecting the vesicle to the brain becoming the **optic stalk**. This stalk becomes solid, and forms the basis of the optic tract, optic commissure, and optic nerve. The optic cup, bilaminar in form, and by its edge clasping the lens, is embedded in mesoblastic tissue, which gives rise to the envelopes of the eyeball, etc. The *outer*

er of the optic cup produces the layer of hexagonal pigment cells of the retina. The s of the *inner layer* produce the tissue of the retina proper. They form neuroblasts h peripheral and central processes. The peripheral processes are converted into retinal ve tissues; the central processes extend backwards along the optic stalk, and give rise the fibrous structure of the optic nerve, optic commissure, and optic tract. Spongio- sts in the inner lamina of the optic cup produce the sustentacular tissue of the retina üller's fibres). The mesoblastic tissue surrounding the optic cup and lens gives rise to rest of the structure of the eyeball, the formation of which is described in the section ich deals with the organs of sense.

The **oculo-motor nerve** arises, like the ventral root of a spinal nerve, from a group neuroblasts in the mesial part of the basal lamina of the mid-brain. The peripheral res extend forwards, to end around the optic cup in the mesoblastic tissue, from which eye muscles are derived. Numerous cells are carried along with the cell processes in ir course, and these have been described as being concerned in the formation of the iary ganglion.

The **trochlear nerve** also arises from a group of neuroblasts occupying the mesial rt of the basal lamina of the mid-brain, close to its junction with the hind-brain. The ripheral processes do not emerge directly from the brain, but extend dorsally from their gin along the side of the brain to its dorsal aspect, where they appear, after decussating th the fibres of the opposite nerve, just behind the quadrigeminal lamina.

The **trigeminal nerve** is developed by means of a large dorsal and a small ventral ot. Their origin to a large extent resembles the mode of formation of the roots of a nal nerve.

The large **dorsal (afferent) root** is formed by means of a cellular bud from the alar mina of the hind-brain. This bud separates from the brain, and forms the Gasserian nglion. Its cells becoming bipolar, like the cells of a spinal ganglion, are secondarily nected with the brain by means of their central processes; while the peripheral pro- sses, separating into three groups, proceed along the fronto-nasal and maxillary processes, d along the mandibular arch, to form the three main divisions of the nerve. Numerous ls accompany each main division in its course from the ganglion, and form eventually e subordinate ganglia—the *ciliary* on the ophthalmic nerve, the *spheno-palatine* on the perior maxillary nerve, and the *otic ganglion* on the inferior maxillary nerve.

The small **ventral (efferent) root** of the trigeminal nerve, like the motor ventral root a spinal nerve, is later in its appearance than the sensory root. It arises as the peri- neral fibres of a group of neuroblasts occupying the lateral part of the basal lamina of e hind-brain, which proceed directly to the surface to join the inferior maxillary division the nerve.

The **abducent nerve** resembles in its mode of development the oculo-motor and ochlear nerves with which in its origin it is in series. It is formed by the peripheral ocesses of a group of neuroblasts in the mesial part of the basal lamina in the upper rt of the hind-brain. These processes pierce the part of the brain in which, at a later age, the fibres of the pyramid are developed. They then proceed to the mesoblastic ssue round the optic cup, which is destined to form the eye muscles.

The **facial nerve** has developmentally a double origin. (1) In connexion with e formation of the auditory nerve a group of cells becomes separated from the alar mina of the hind-brain opposite the auditory vesicle. This group becomes separated to three parts, of which the middle portion is the rudiment of the **geniculate ganglion** r afferent root). (2) The **efferent root** of the nerve arises from a group of neuroblasts the lateral part of the basal lamina of the hind-brain, in series with efferent fibres of e vago-glosso-pharyngeal nerves; after a tortuous course within the brain its fibres nerge beneath the above-mentioned cellular mass, opposite the auditory vesicle. They e joined by the ganglionic root, and in their course round the auditory vesicle become mbedded in the auditory capsule (aqueduct of Fallopius). The chorda tympani nerve ppears early as a branch of the facial nerve. It is probable that the pars intermedia, he geniculate ganglion, and the chorda tympani nerve together represent the **dorsal fferent element** in the constitution of this nerve.

The **auditory nerve** arises as a cellular bud from the alar lamina of the hind-brain, orsal to the efferent portion of the facial nerve and opposite to the auditory vesicle, and n close association with the latter.

Becoming separated from the brain, the cellular mass separates into three portions, of hich the middle part is associated with the facial nerve and pars intermedia (as the eniculate ganglion), while the mesial and lateral parts are converted into the mesial vestibular) and lateral (cochlear) ganglia and roots of the auditory nerve. The cells

becoming bipolar, their central processes are secondarily connected with the brain on the dorsal (lateral) aspect of the facial nerve; the peripheral processes proceed to the auditory vesicle, to which they are distributed as the vestibular and cochlear nerves. Numerous cells are carried along with the nerve trunks into relation with the auditory capsule, and constitute the vestibular and cochlear ganglia.

The **glosso-pharyngeal** and **pneumogastric nerves** are developed from the side of the hind-brain, both in the same way, and each by two roots. A collection of cells separates itself from the alar lamina of the hind-brain behind the auditory vesicle to form the **ganglionic afferent root.** The ganglion of the pneumogastric is much larger than that of the glosso-pharyngeal. Each ganglion becomes divided into two parts, a proximal and a distal portion, connected together by a commissural band of fibres. The proximal ganglion (jugular ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal; ganglion of the root of the pneumogastric) is secondarily connected by centripetal fibres to the hind-brain. From the distal ganglion (petrous ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal; ganglion of the trunk of the pneumogastric) peripheral fibres grow outwards to form the nerve trunk.

Each nerve is also provided with a small **efferent root,** consisting of nerve fibres, arising from a collection of neuroblasts in the lateral part of the basal lamina of the hind-

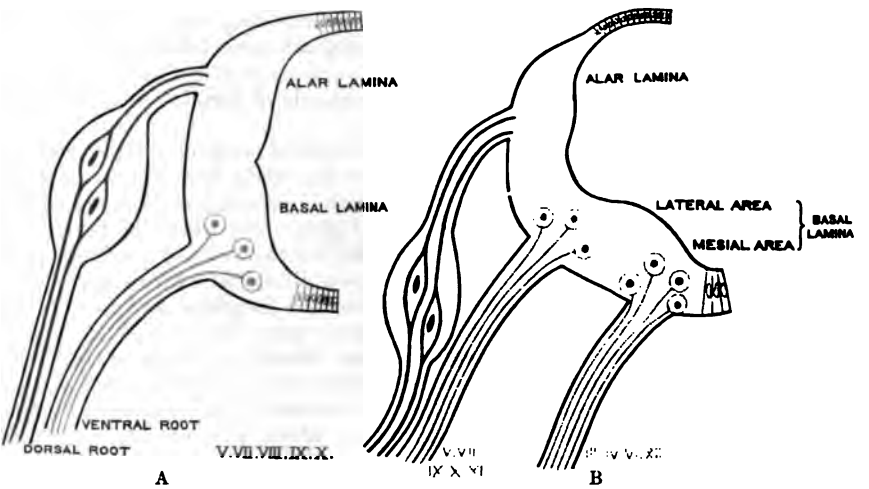

FIG. 537.—COMPARISON OF ORIGINS OF NERVE ROOTS FROM SPINAL CORD AND HIND-BRAIN (after His).
A. Spinal cord; B. Hind-brain.

brain, and emerging beneath the ganglionic root at the junction of the alar and basal laminæ (in series with the fibres of the efferent root of the facial nerve above and of the spinal accessory nerve below).

The **spinal accessory nerve** arises in two parts—one medullary, the other spinal. The **medullary** (accessory) portion develops as the processes of a series of neuroblasts in the lateral portion of the basal lamina of the hind-brain, which emerge in series with the efferent roots of the glosso-pharyngeal and pneumogastric nerves. The **spinal portion** arises as the processes of a group of neuroblasts in the ventral part of the medullary tube (anterior cornu), which, turning outwards, emerge as a series of roots on the lateral aspect of the spinal cord.

The **hypoglossal nerve** is developed, not in series with the nerves above mentioned, but like the third, fourth, and sixth nerves, from the mesial part of the basal lamina of the hind-brain, in the space between the glosso-pharyngeal and other nerves above, and the first cervical nerve below. It is formed as a series of peripheral processes from a collection of neuroblasts occupying the hind-brain. **Froriep's ganglion** is a transitory collection of nerve cells developed from the alar lamina of the hind-brain on the dorsal aspect of the nerve, and represents in a rudimentary condition its dorsal ganglionic root. It gives off no branches and soon disappears.

THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE CRANIAL NERVES.

The head and face, possibly the oldest, and from every point of view the most fundamental and important portion of the bodily fabric, present in some respects a more conservative type of *structure*, and in other aspects have been subject to more profound alterations than other parts

of the body. Segmentation is characteristic of the trunk, pervading bones, muscles, vessels, and nerves. An absence of true segmentation is characteristic of the head region—omitting for the moment the cranial nerves. The head is characterised by the possession of an unsegmented tubular nervous system, enclosed in a bony capsule not obviously segmental, with which the capsules of the sense-organs become united. The pre-oral and post-oral visceral arches and clefts are not truly segmental like the costal arches of the trunk. The branchial clefts are said to be inter-segmental; and their muscles (associated with the myoblast surrounding the developing heart) are described as visceral, and not myotomic, so that the branchial vessels and nerves (similarly) are not to be regarded as comparable to the segmental vessels and nerves of the trunk. The truly segmental structures present are certain persistent myotomes or muscle plates, which give rise to muscles innervated by the third, fourth, sixth, and twelfth cranial nerves.

Another difficulty in the morphology of the head arises in the absence of body cavity, and the consequent difficulty of differentiating the somatic and splanchnic mesoblast, and the somatic and splanchnic distribution of a given nerve.

Under these circumstances there is little help to be derived from head structures other than the nerves themselves in seeking a solution of the question of the morphological relations of the cranial nerves. The spinal nerves are, generally speaking, all alike. The cranial nerves, on the other hand, are all different. Scarcely any two nerves are alike; and no single cranial nerve possesses in itself all the characteristic features of a spinal nerve. As seen in relation to their development, the cranial nervous system possesses a series of dorsal ganglia, comparable in position and development to the spinal ganglia from which afferent nerves arise; and the efferent roots are developed in the same way, and occupy somewhat the same position as the ventral roots of the spinal nerves. But there is no single complete segmental nerve in the head. The very essence of the architecture of the head is a want of segmentation; and this character is shared by the cranial nerves. In addition it must be borne in mind that, in relation to the mammalian head, there are organs which have no homologues in the trunk, and on whose existence the arrangement of the cranial nerves depends—*e.g.* sense-organs and gill-arches.

Among the cranial nerves there are several which possess a resemblance to one or other of the elements of a typical spinal nerve. In the neck the origin of the fibres of the spinal accessory nerve is from the side of the spinal cord, and it is in series with the motor roots of the vago-glosso-pharyngeal, facial, and fifth nerves. His (as shown in the account of the development of the nerves) has described the neuroblastic origin of the motor roots of these nerves from the lateral part of the basal lamina of the primitive brain. They thus form a series apart—lateral motor roots—separable from the series of motor roots originating from the mesial part of the basal lamina, comprising those of the third, fourth, sixth, and twelfth nerves; the latter nerve roots being comparable to and in series with the ventral roots of the spinal nerves. The lateral motor roots are not represented in the spinal series except in the neck. It is questionable if there is any fundamental distinction between the lateral and ventral motor roots of the cranial nerves. The spinal accessory fibres, for example, when traced into the spinal cord, have an origin from the anterior cornu of the cord, and only differ from the motor or ventral root fibres of a spinal nerve in their different course to the surface. The ganglia in association with the cranial nerves are comparable to the spinal ganglia. The fifth nerve, with the Gasserian ganglion, the ganglion of the facial, the ganglia of the auditory, of the glosso-pharyngeal and the vagus, and the transitory (Froriep's) ganglion of the hypoglossal nerves, arise from the brain in a comparable position, and in the same way as the spinal ganglia. But another series of structures —the sense organs of the lateral line, and the so-called "epibranchial" organs which are highly developed in lower vertebrates (*e.g.* elasmobranchs), and which appear transitorily only, or are absent altogether in mammalian development, may possibly have a share in the formation of certain of these ganglia or parts of them (*e.g.* ciliary ganglion, geniculate ganglion, ganglia of the auditory nerve, petrosal ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal, and the ganglion of the trunk of the vagus).

Certain of the cranial nerves are apparently distinctly **segmental**, supplying muscles derived from the persisting myotomes of the head. The **first three myotomes** are said to give rise to the muscles of the eyeball. The *first* produces the superior rectus, inferior rectus, internal rectus, and inferior oblique muscles, and its segmental nerve is the **oculo-motor**. The *second myotome* is said to produce the superior oblique muscle, and its segmental nerve is the **trochlear**. The *third myotome* is said to produce the external rectus muscle, and its segmental nerve is the **abducent**. It has been asserted that the tongue muscles are derived from the **last three or four cephalic and first cervical myotomes**, and that the **hypoglossal nerve** is the segmental nerve for these myotomes, comprising the motor elements of several (four or five) segmental nerves. The intervening myotomes between the first three and this occipital series disappearing, the corresponding elements of segmental nerves are supposed to be absent also (Fig. 538).

Certain of the cranial nerves are essentially related to the structures derived from and associated with the pre-oral and post-oral **visceral clefts and arches** (Fig. 539). The **trigeminal nerve** is essentially the nerve of the **mandibular arch**. By its efferent root it supplies the muscles of that arch. By its afferent root and branches it is related to (1) the fronto-nasal process (ophthalmic division and ciliary ganglion); (2) the maxillary arch (superior maxillary nerve); and (3) the mandibular arch (inferior maxillary nerve). The mandibular is at first the main nerve; and the maxillary division is sometimes regarded as a subordinate branch (præ-branchial, præ-trematic) for the supply of the anterior margin of the cleft (mouth), with which the nerve is in relation. The ophthalmic nerve is sometimes regarded as a morphologically separate nerve. The nerves to these arches have been compared to the anterior primary divisions of spinal

nerves, the branches which they supply to the forehead and temple (**frontal, orbital,** and auriculo-temporal) representing the posterior primary divisions. The **ganglia** on each division of the nerve are formed as extensions from the Gasserian ganglion.

The **facial nerve** is essentially the nerve of the **second (hyoid) arch,** and the cleft in front of that arch (spiracular cleft, Eustachian tube). Its motor root supplies the muscles of that arch (stapedius, stylo-hyoid, and digastric), and the epicranial and facial muscles and platysma myoides, which are developments from the hyoid arch (Rabl). The **chorda tympani nerve** is regarded as the subordinate (præ-branchial, præ-trematic) branch to supply the anterior margin of the first post-oral cleft. It is possible that the geniculate ganglion, with the pars intermedia and the chorda tympani, may, in part at least, represent the ganglionic and afferent element of the nerve. Or the geniculate ganglion, and the nerves in relation to it, may be associated with an "epibranchial" sense-organ.

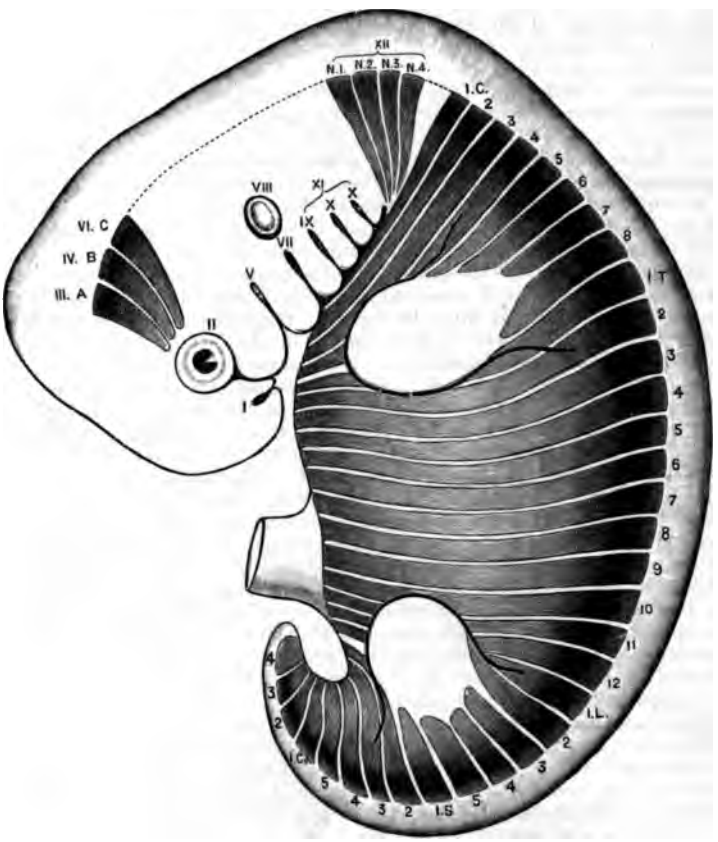

FIG. 538.—SCHEME TO ILLUSTRATE THE DISPOSITION OF THE MYOTOMES IN THE EMBRYO IN RELATION TO THE HEAD, TRUNK, AND LIMBS.

A, B, C, First three cephalic myotomes; N, 1, 2, 3, 4, Last persisting cephalic myotomes; C, T, L, S, Co, The myotomes of the cervical, thoracic, lumbar, sacral, and caudal regions; I., II., III., IV., V., VI., VII., VIII., IX., X., XI., XII., refer to the cranial nerves, and the structures with which they may be embryologically associated.

The **auditory nerve,** on the other hand, may be either the sensory element of the branchial nerve, associated with the **hyoid arch** and first post-oral cleft, or it may represent the nerve or nerves belonging to ancestral sense-organs of the lateral line.

The **glosso-pharyngeal** is the branchial nerve of the **third post-oral** (*thyro-hyoid*) **arch** and the cleft in front. Its efferent fibres supply the muscle of this arch, —the stylo-pharyngeus. The superior constrictor of the pharynx is also assigned to this arch: the middle and inferior muscles to the fourth (first branchial) arch. The afferent portion of the nerve is possibly composed of two separate parts; the petrous ganglion being associated with an epibranchial or lateral line sense-organ, and the rest of the nerve forming the afferent fibres for the gill-cleft and arch. The lingual branches are regarded as the main stem (post-trematic), the pharyngeal branches as subordinate branches; the tympanic branch being the præ-branchial or præ-trematic branch for the anterior margin of the third gill-cleft.

The **pneumogastric nerve** is generally regarded as representing the fusion of all the branchial nerves behind the glosso-pharyngeal. Its efferent fibres are in series with those of the glosso-pharyngeal above and the spinal accessory nerve below, and belong to the lateral series of His. Its afferent fibres, like those of the glosso-pharyngeal, represent two elements. The lower ganglion has possible connexions with epibranchial sense-organs—the rest of the nerve representing the fused branchial branches of fishes. The **superior laryngeal nerve** is looked upon as the branchial nerve of the **fourth,** and the **inferior laryngeal nerve** as the branchial nerve of the **fifth arch.** While the relation of the nerve to the hinder gill-arches and clefts makes it possible to understand the innervation by the vagus of the heart and lungs, no satisfactory explanation is forthcoming of the passage of the nerve into the abdomen, and its distribution to the stomach and other organs below the diaphragm.

The **spinal accessory nerve** consists of two parts. The *accessory portion* of the nerve consists of efferent fibres for the **branchial region,** in series with the lateral motor roots of the glosso-pharyngeal and vagus nerves. The *spinal portion* of the nerve is also composed of efferent *fibres,* and represents the only lateral motor elements arising from the spinal cord.

Olfactory Nerve.—There is absolute uncertainty regarding the morphology of this nerve. consists of three elements: (1) the **olfactory bulb**, derived from the cerebral hemisphere, id in man, but a hollow cerebral diverticulum in certain animals, and forming the inencephalon; (2) the **olfactory ganglion**, with its central and peripheral processes, derived ım the ectoderm; (3) the **nasal pit**. Attention has been specially fixed on the olfactory nglion, which has been compared to (1) a dorsal spinal ganglion, derived from the anterior end the medullary groove; and to (2) a lateral line sense-organ.

The **optic nerve** also presents an insoluble problem in regard to its morphological position the series of cranial nerves. The optic stalk and optic cup have been regarded as a highly- ɔdified dorsal ganglion; but there is insuperable difficulty in accepting this view. The ripheral processes do not become connected with either ectodermal or mesoblastic structures, t become the tissue of the retina; while the central processes, growing backwards, envelop e optic stalk, and obtain connexions with the brain. The retina must be regarded as a highly- ɔdified layer, morphologically in series with the wall of the fore-brain; and the ectodermal ucture of superficial origin comparable to the olfactory ganglion or the auditory vesicle is the ıs (which may possibly be homologous with a lateral line sense-organ). The optic nerve, optic nmissure, and optic tract are then to looked upon as cerebral commissures, d not as nerves in the ordinary sense.

The simplest and most primitive con- ion of the head, in relation to the ɔrphology of the cranial nerves, is found ˈore the formation of the gill-clefts, when ɜ salient features are a tubular and simple ıin, and a series of superficial invagina- ns which pass from the surface inwards become connected with outgrowths cor- ponding to them from the primitive ıin. On either side of the head three llow invaginations occur:—(1) The **nasal** bearing the olfactory epithelium becomes ınected by the olfactory ganglion with the inencephalon, an outgrowth from the fore- ıin, and so forms the basis of an olfactory ɡan and nerve; (2) a similar invagination oduces the **lens**, connected with a pro- ısion of the optic vesicle from the fore- ain, by which the basis of the eye and e optic nerve is formed; (3) behind the ıccal cavity a third invagination forms e **auditory vesicle**, which is connected ith the solid extension from the hind- ain of the acoustic ganglia, to form the sentials of the organ of hearing and ıditory nerve.

The trigeminal nerve is essentially the ɜrve of the buccal cavity and the sub- ɑinate cavities, nasal and oral, derived om it. The **branchial arches and clefts** ɜe secondary structures, and their nerves ɜe (1) the trigeminal for the first (mandi- ular) arch and the cleft in front of it; ɔ) the facial for the second (hyoid) arch and cleft; (3) the glosso-pharyngeal for the third hyro-hyoid) arch and cleft; and (4) the pneumogastric for the succeeding arches and clefts. he bulbar part of the spinal accessory nerve is inseparable from the motor portion of the vago- losso-pharyngeal nerves; the spinal part is beyond the series of the cranial nerves.

Lastly, there are certain truly **segmental nerve elements**, motor fibres which, remaining ssociated with certain persistent cephalic myotomes, give rise to the oculo-motor, trochlear, bducent, and hypoglossal nerves.

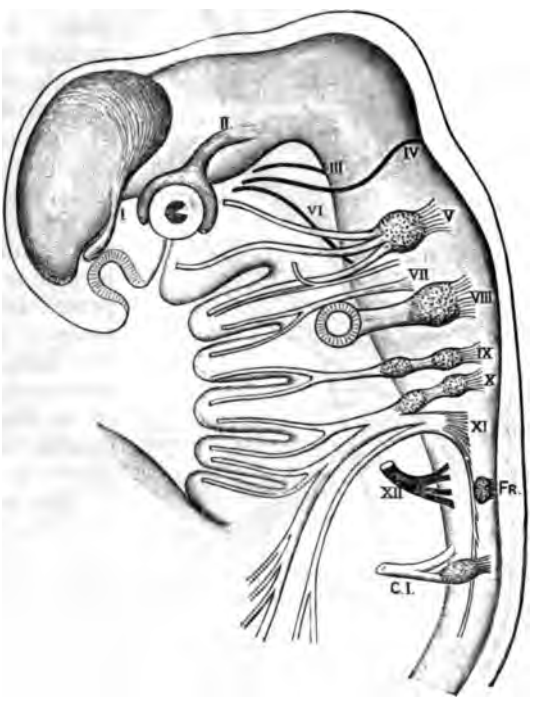

FIG. 539.—SCHEME TO ILLUSTRATE THE EMBRYOLOGICAL ARRANGEMENT OF THE CRANIAL NERVES.

I. to XII. Cranial Nerves; Fr, Froriep's ganglion; CI., Roots and trunk of the first cervical nerve.

THE SYMPATHETIC NERVOUS SYSTEM.

The sympathetic nervous system consists of a pair of elongated gangliated ɔords (nervi sympathici), extending from the base of the skull to the coccyx; con- nected, on the one hand, by a series of branches to the spinal nervous system, and ɔn the other hand giving off an irregular series of branches to the viscera. At its ɔephalic end each sympathetic cord is continued in a plexiform manner into the ɔranial cavity along with the internal carotid artery, and forms complex relation-

ships with certain cranial nerves. At their caudal ends the two sympathetic cords become joined together by fine filaments, and are connected by the coccygeal ganglion (g. impar).

The sympathetic system (1) serves to rearrange and distribute fibres derived from the cerebro-spinal system to the viscera and vessels of the splanchnic area; (2) it transmits to the cerebro-spinal system afferent fibres from the viscera; and (3) it transmits fibres to the vessels, involuntary muscles, and glands, in the course of the somatic divisions of the spinal nerves.

General Structure of the Sympathetic System.—The sympathetic system is composed of two elements—ganglia and nerve fibres.

The **ganglia** (g. trunci sympathici) are variable in number, form, size, and position. They are not definitely segmental in position, but they are always connected together by a system of narrow commissural cords of nerve fibres. A ganglion consists of a larger or smaller number of multipolar nerve cells, enclosed in a capsule of connective tissue. Each cell is provided with one *axon* and a number of *dendrites*. The axon may enter into the composition of (*a*) the commissural cord; (*b*) a central branch (gray ramus communicans); or (*c*) a peripheral branch from the sympathetic cord. These axons are commonly medullated at their origin, but become non-medullated in their course from the parent cell. Besides these ganglia, two other series of ganglia are present in connexion with the peripheral branches of the sympathetic: intermediate or **collateral ganglia**, on the branches or in the sympathetic plexuses; and **terminal ganglia**, in close relation to the endings of the nerves in the viscera.

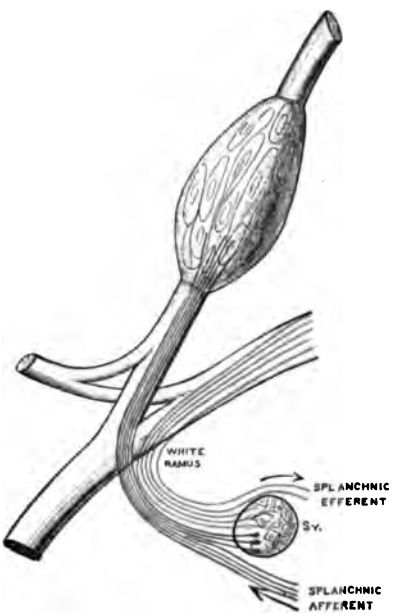

FIG. 540.—SCHEME OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE WHITE RAMUS COMMUNICANS OF THE SYMPATHETIC.

The roots and trunks of a spinal nerve are shown, with the white ramus passing between the spinal nerve and a sympathetic ganglion (Sy). The splanchnic efferent fibres (in red) are shown, partly ending in the ganglion, and partly passing beyond the ganglion into a peripheral branch. The splanchnic afferent fibres (in blue) are shown, partly entering the ganglion, and passing upwards or downwards in the gangliated cord; partly passing over the cord into peripheral branches.

The **nerve fibres** in the sympathetic system are of two classes, medullated and non-medullated. The distinction is not absolute. The medullated fibres may lose their medullary sheaths before reaching their terminations; and the non-medullated fibres may at their origin possess a medullary sheath. The **medullated fibres** form the series of *white rami communicantes* (the visceral branches of the spinal nerves). They take origin from the anterior primary divisions of certain spinal nerves in two streams; **thoracico-lumbar** from the first or second thoracic to the second or third lumbar nerve, and **pelvic**, or **sacral**, from the second and third, or third and fourth sacral nerves. The roots of these nerves arise from both dorsal and ventral roots of the spinal nerves, but in largest numbers from the ventral root. The *fibres from the ventral root* are of very small size. They are the axons of nerve cells within the spinal cord, which enter the sympathetic cord through the white ramus, and end by forming arborisations around the cells of a sympathetic ganglion. There are three known courses for such a fibre to take in relation to the sympathetic system—(*a*) It may end in the ganglion with which it is immediately related; (*b*) it may course upwards or downwards in the commissural cord to reach a neighbouring ganglion; (*c*) it may pass beyond the gangliated cord to end in relation to cells of the peripheral (collateral) ganglia along with fibres of distribution from the sympathetic ganglia. These fibres are *splanchnic efferent fibres*; motor for the unstriped muscular tissue of the vessels and viscera, and secretory for the glands in the splanchnic area. The *fibres from the dorsal root* of the spinal nerve entering into the composition of the white ramus communicans are the axons of spinal

n cells. They constitute the *splanchnic afferent fibres*, and probably traverse ıpathetic gangliated cord, passing upwards, downwards, and outwards, without onnected with its cells. They are the sensory fibres for the viscera, which ıach along with the peripheral branches arising from the sympathetic elf. It is not certain that fibres from the dorsal ganglia are only found in on with nerves provided with distinct white rami. Similar medullated re found also in the gray rami communicantes.

non-medullated fibres in the sympathetic system are derived from the axons sympathetic ganglion cells. They have different destinations. (*a*) Some ppear to contribute to the *formation of the commissural cord* connecting glia together, ıd in arborisa- ound the cells neighbouring n. (*b*) Non- lated fibres large part of ıtem of *peri- (splanchnic t) branches*, ng into the nic area in an lar manner, ım the ganglia e connecting sures. (*c*) The *mi communi-* form a series ı - medullated with a small of medullated intermingled) ing *centrally e ganglia to the nerves.* These mi are found nexion with ıd all of the nerves. Their from the gan- cord is ir- : they may rom the gan- the commis- ney may divide ıeir origin, so spinal nerves plied from one n ; or two may supply es to a single nerve. The mus is distri-

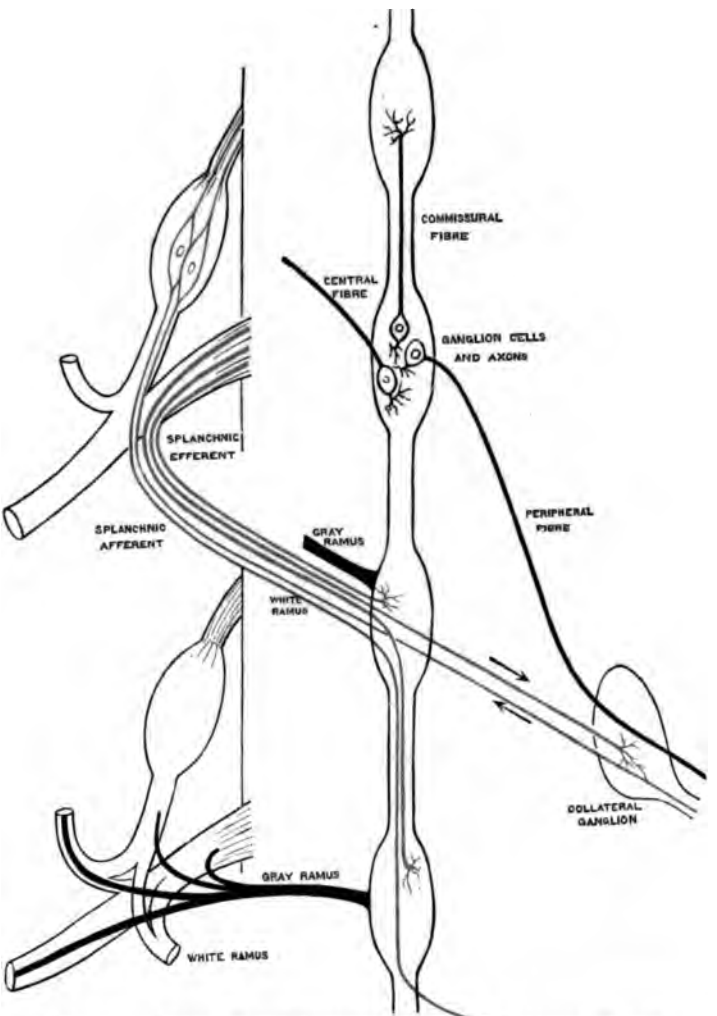

FIG. 541.—SCHEME OF THE CONSTITUTION AND CONNEXIONS OF THE GANGLIATED CORD OF THE SYMPATHETIC.

The gangliated cord is indicated on the right, with the arrangement of the fibres arising from the ganglion cells. On the left the roots and trunks of spinal nerves are shown, with the arrangement of the white ramus communicans above and of the gray ramus below.

along the somatic divisions of the spinal nerves, supplying branches to ed muscular fibres (vaso-motor, pilo-motor) and glands (secretory). They ovide small recurrent branches, ending in the membranes enveloping the nerve-roots. Mingled with the non-medullated fibres of the gray rami nd a small number of medullated fibres, regarded as medullated sympathetic ınd axons from the dorsal spinal ganglia incorporated with this ramus.

The **commissural cords** of the sympathetic system are composed of white and gray fibres. The *white fibres* are: (1) splanchnic efferent fibres, passing to a ganglion above or below the point of entrance into the sympathetic system; (2) splanchnic afferent fibres, guided along the commissure and over or through the ganglia. The *gray fibres* are the axons of sympathetic ganglion cells: (1) true commissural fibres passing into connexion with the cells of a neighbouring ganglion; (2) fibres passing along the commissure for a certain distance upwards or downwards before entering the splanchnic area as peripheral branches.

The **peripheral (splanchnic) branches** from the sympathetic cord consist of—(1) white fibres—splanchnic afferent fibres unconnected with cells, and splanchnic efferent fibres which, after passing over the gangliated cord, are on their way to join peripheral (collateral) or terminal ganglia in relation to the viscera; and of (2) gray fibres, splanchnic efferent branches, the axons of sympathetic ganglion cells distributed to the vessels and viscera in the splanchnic area.

THE CERVICAL PART OF THE SYMPATHETIC CORD.

The cervical part of the sympathetic cord may be regarded as an upward prolongation of the primitive sympathetic system along the great vessels of the neck. It is characterised by the absence of **white rami communicantes** connecting it with the cervical spinal nerves. Its spinal fibres ascend in the commissural cord from the upper thoracic nerves to be connected with the cells of the cervical ganglia. The branches from the ganglia in the neck are distributed to structures in the head, neck, and thorax: (1) motor fibres to involuntary muscles (*e.g.* dilator of the pupil); (2) vaso-motor fibres along the arteries of the head and neck and upper limbs; (3) pilo-motor fibres along the cervical spinal nerves to the skin of the head and neck; (4) cardio-motor fibres; (5) and secretory fibres (for the submaxillary gland).

The gangliated cord in the neck is placed upon the prevertebral muscles and behind the carotid vessels. It extends from the root of the neck, where it is continuous behind the subclavian artery with the thoracic portion of the cord, to the base of the skull, where it ends in the formation of plexiform branches upon the internal carotid artery. It consists of a narrow commissural cord composed of medullated and non-medullated fibres, on which are two or three ganglia—a superior ganglion at the upper end, an inferior ganglion at the point of junction with the thoracic portion of the cord, and an intermediate middle ganglion varying in position and often absent.

The **superior cervical ganglion** (g. cervicale superius) situated at the base of the skull, lies between the internal jugular vein and the internal carotid artery. It is the largest of the sympathetic ganglia, measuring an inch or more in length. The commissural cord connects it with the **middle ganglion** (g. cervicale medium), which is of small size, is frequently absent, and may be divided into two parts. It is usually placed over the inferior thyroid artery as it passes behind the carotid sheath.

The **inferior ganglion** (g. cervicale inferius) is joined by the commissural cord to the middle (or superior) ganglion above, and is only imperfectly separated from the first thoracic ganglion below. It is of considerable size, irregular in shape, and is placed behind the first part of the subclavian artery in the interval between the last cervical transverse process and the neck of the first rib.

The **branches** from the cervical sympathetic ganglia and cord are divisible into two sets—(*A*) Central communicating branches for other nerves; (*B*) peripheral branches of distribution, which alone, or along with other nerves, form plexuses, accompanying and supplying vessels and viscera of the head, neck, and thorax. Although this distinction is made, it is to be borne in mind that the branches of communication are as much nerves of distribution as the others.

Superior Cervical Ganglion.

Central Communicating Branches.—1. **Gray rami communicantes** pass from the ganglion to the anterior primary divisions of the first four cervical nerves.

2. ***Communications with Cranial Nerves.***—Just outside the skull, in the deep

neck, communicating branches pass to the following cranial nerves: (*a*) ous ganglion of the glosso-pharyngeal and the ganglion of the root of ogastric (n. jugularis); (*b*) to the ganglion of the trunk of the pneumo-) to the hypoglossal nerve.

eral Branches of Distribution.—1. **Pharynx.**—A **pharyngeal branch** wnwards and inwards behind the carotid sheath to reach the wall of the where it joins (along with the l branches of the glosso-pharyngeal nogastric nerves) in the formation **yngeal plexus**, and assists in supply-iscles and mucous membrane of the

rt.—The **superior cervical cardiac** a slender nerve which, on the *right* nds behind the large vessels into to join the deep cardiac plexus. *t side* the course of the nerve is the neck, but in the superior im it passes between the left l subclavian arteries, and over the , to join with the inferior cervical anch of the pneumogastric in the of the superficial cardiac plexus. urse both nerves form connexions ther cervical cardiac nerves of the ic, and with cardiac and other f the pneumogastric (external and yngeal).

sels.—(*a*) The **external carotid** ses forwards to the external carotid l forms the **external carotid plexus**, plies offsets to that artery and its s well as to the inter-carotid body. subordinate plexuses on the facial e meningeal arteries sympathetic supplied to the submaxillary and a respectively.

internal carotid branches form an olongation of the ganglion, which lf in the form of bundles of nerve-he internal carotid artery as it carotid canal in the temporal bone. hes separate into outer and inner h form plexuses investing the the cranium. The outer division ower or **carotid plexus** (pl. caroticus the inner division gives rise to r **cavernous plexus** (pl. cavernosus). ses supply offsets to the artery and s, and form communications with ial nerves.

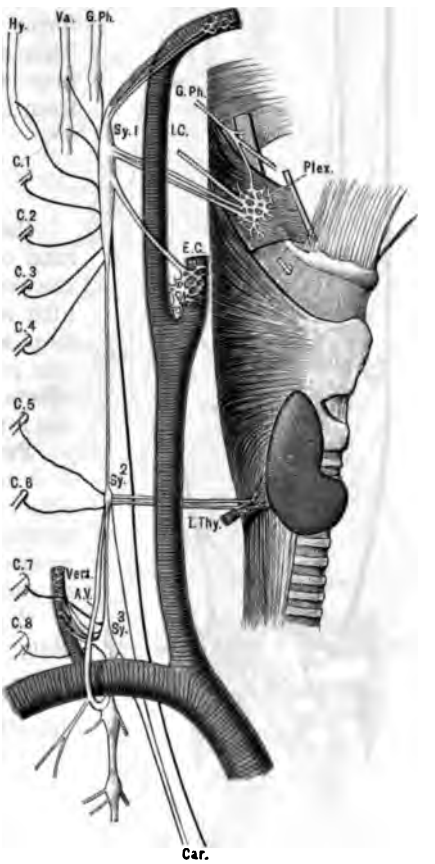

FIG. 542.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SYMPATHETIC GANGLIATED CORD IN THE NECK.

Sy.1, Superior cervical ganglion, and connexions and branches; I.C, Internal carotid artery; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal; Va, Vagus; Hy, Hypoglossal; C.1, 2, 3, 4, First four cervical nerves; Plex, Pharyngeal plexus; G.Ph, Glosso-pharyngeal nerve; E.C, To external carotid artery; Sy.2, Middle cervical ganglion, connexions, and branches; C.5, 6, Fifth and sixth cervical nerves; I.Thy, Inferior thyroid artery; A.V, Ansa Vieussenii; Sy.3, Inferior cervical ganglion, connexions, and branches; C.7, 8, Seventh and eighth cervical nerves; Vert, Vertebral plexus; Car, Cardiac branches.

otid plexus communicates by fine branches with (*a*) the abducent nerve, Gasserian ganglion, and gives off (*c*) the great deep petrosal and (*d*) deep petrosal nerves. The **great deep petrosal nerve** joins the great petrosal nerve from the geniculate ganglion of the facial, over the cerum medium. By their union the **Vidian nerve** is formed, which, rsing the Vidian canal, ends in Meckel's ganglion. The **small deep rve** passes to the **tympanic plexus**. This plexus, formed by the small sal nerve, the tympanic branch of the glosso-pharyngeal, and a twig

from the geniculate ganglion of the facial nerve, is placed on the inner wall of the tympanum. It supplies the mucous lining of the tympanum and Eustachian tube; and the **small superficial petrosal** nerve passes from it to the otic ganglion.

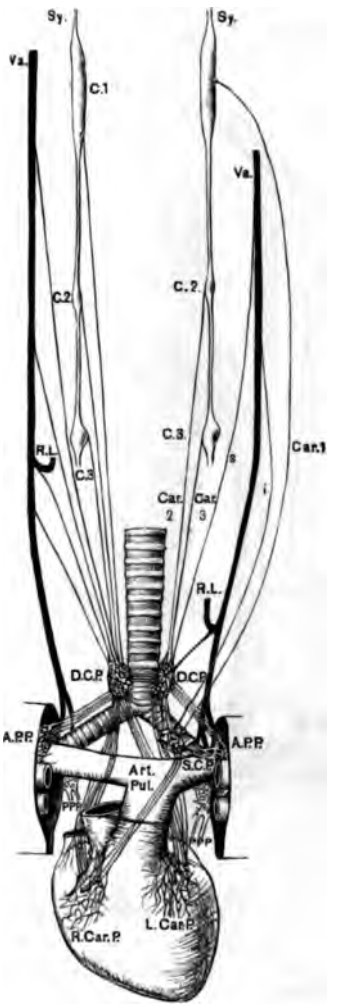

FIG. 543.—THE CONSTITUTION OF THE CARDIAC PLEXUSES.

Sy, Cervical sympathetic cord; C.1, Superior, C.2, Middle, and C.3, Inferior cervical ganglia; Car. 1, Superior, Car. 2, Middle, and Car. 3, Inferior cervical cardiac sympathetic branches; Va, Pneumogastric nerve; R.L, Recurrent laryngeal nerve; s, Superior, and i, Inferior cervical cardiac branches of vagus; D.C.P, Deep cardiac plexus; S.C.P, Superficial cardiac plexus; A.P.P, Anterior pulmonary plexus; P.P.P, Posterior pulmonary plexus; R.Car.P, Right, and L.Car.P, Left coronary plexuses; Art.Pul, Pulmonary artery.

The **cavernous plexus** communicates with (*a*) the oculo-motor, and (*b*) the trochlear nerves, and (*c*) the ophthalmic division of the trigeminal nerve; it also (*d*) supplies twigs to the pituitary body, and (*e*) forms the sympathetic root of the ciliary ganglion. This may pass to the ganglion independently, or it may be incorporated in the long root of the ganglion from the nasal branch of the ophthalmic nerve.

MIDDLE CERVICAL GANGLION.

Central Communicating Branches.—1. **Gray rami communicantes** arise from the ganglion or from the cord for the anterior primary divisions of the fifth and sixth cervical nerves. 2. The subclavian loop (**ansa Vieussenii**) is a loop of communication from this ganglion, which, after passing over and supplying offsets to the subclavian artery and its branches, joins the inferior cervical ganglion.

Peripheral Branches of Distribution.—1. **Heart.**—A slender **middle cervical cardiac branch** descends, either separately or in company with other cardiac nerves, behind the large vessels into the thorax, where it ends in the deep part of the cardiac plexus on each side.

2. **Thyroid Body.** — Branches extend inwards along the inferior thyroid artery to supply the thyroid body.

When the middle ganglion is absent the branches described arise from the commissural cord.

INFERIOR CERVICAL GANGLION.

Central Communicating Branches.—1. **Gray rami communicantes** arise from this ganglion for the anterior primary divisions of the seventh and eighth cervical nerves. 2. The **subclavian loop** already mentioned connects the middle and inferior ganglia over the front of the subclavian artery. 3. A communication frequently occurs with the inferior laryngeal nerve.

Peripheral Branches of Distribution.—1. **Heart.**—An **inferior cervical cardiac branch** is given off on each side to enter the deep cardiac plexus.

2. **Vessels.**—(*a*) The **vertebral plexus** is a dense plexus of fibres surrounding the vertebral artery and accompanying its branches in the neck and the cranial cavity. (*b*) The **subclavian plexus** is derived from the subclavian loop, and supplies small offsets to the subclavian artery. It gives branches to the internal mammary artery, and communicates with the phrenic nerve.

THE THORACIC PART OF THE SYMPATHETIC CORD.

The thoracic part of the sympathetic cord consists of a variable number of *ganglia of an* irregularly angular or fusiform shape, joined together by commissural

ırds of considerable thickness. The number ganglia is usually ten or eleven; but the first ıd sometimes others may be so fused with the eighbouring ganglia as to still further reduce ıe number. This part of the sympathetic cord characterised by its union with the thoracic ɔinal nerves. Each thoracic nerve, with the ossible exception of the first, sends a **visceral ranch** (white ramus communicans) to join the angliated cord in the thorax. These white ami separate into two main streams in relation o the sympathetic cord. Those of the *upper ree* nerves are for the most part directed ıpwards to be distributed through the cervical ɔart of the sympathetic gangliated cord in he manner already described. The white rami of the *lower thoracic* nerves are for the most ɔart directed downwards in the lower part of he sympathetic cord and its branches, to be listributed in the abdomen; at the same time ome of their fibres are directly associated with he supply of certain thoracic viscera,—lungs, ıorta, œsophagus.

These white rami are composed of (1) **planchnic afferent fibres** passing from its peri-ɔheral branches through the sympathetic cord nto the dorsal ganglia of the spinal nerves—nedullated nerve-fibres unconnected with sym-ɔathetic ganglion cells; and (2) **somatic** and **planchnic efferent fibres**, small medullated ıerves which, after a longer or shorter course n the gangliated cord or its peripheral ɔranches, become connected with the sym-ɔathetic ganglion cells, or with the cells of ɔeripheral (collateral or terminal) ganglia, from vhich again (non-medullated) axons proceed to ıpply branches to viscera and vessels. The ıltimate destination of the upper stream of vhite rami from the thoracic nerves has been ıentioned in the description of the cervical ympathetic; the peripheral branches supply-ng thoracic organs contain vaso-motor fibres or the lungs and aorta. The peripheral branches rom the lower part of the sympathetic cord n the thorax, receiving white rami from the ower thoracic nerves, are mainly destined for listribution to structures below the diaphragm. Chey comprise (*a*) viscero-inhibitory fibres for he stomach and intestines; (*b*) motor fibres for ɔart of the rectum; (*c*) pilo-motor fibres for the ower part of the body; (*d*) vaso-motor fibres for the abdominal aorta and its branches, and

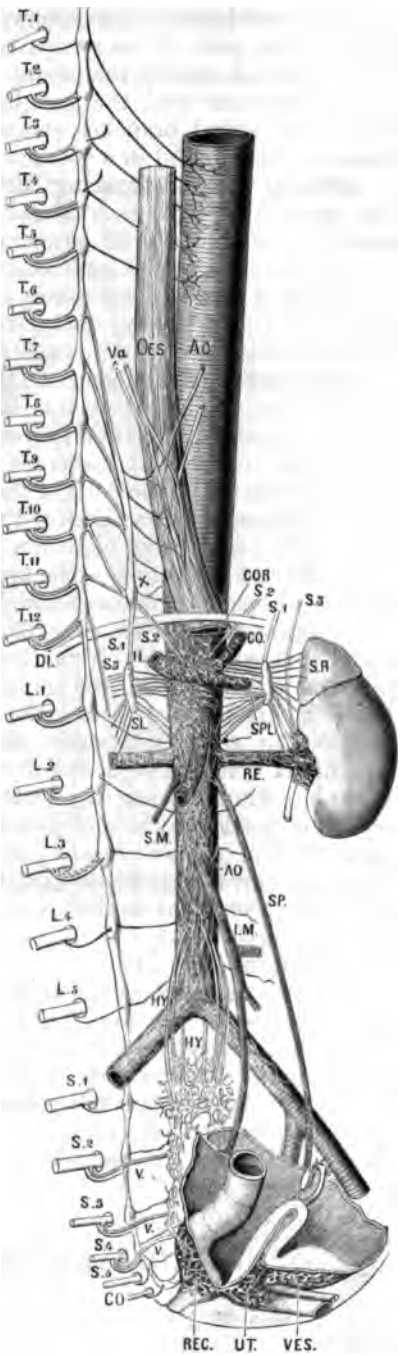

FIG. 544. — THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE SYMPATHETIC SYSTEM IN THE THORAX, ABDOMEN, AND PELVIS.

T.1-12; L.1-5; S.1-5; Co, Anterior primary divisions of spinal nerves, connected to the gangliated cord of the sympathetic by rami communicantes, white (double lines) and gray (single lines); OES, Œsophagus and œsophageal plexus; AO, Aorta and aorta plexus; Va, Vagus nerve joining œsophageal plexus; S.1, Great splanchnic nerve; X, Great splanchnic ganglion; S.2, Small splanchnic nerve; S.3, Least splanchnic nerve; Co, Coronary artery and plexus; SPL, Splenic artery and plexus; H, Hepatic artery and plexus; SL, Semi-lunar ganglion; Di, Diaphragm; S.R, Suprarenal capsule; RE, Renal artery and plexus; S.M, Superior mesenteric artery and plexus; SP, Spermatic artery and plexus; I.M, Inferior mesenteric artery and plexus; HY, Hypogastric nerves and plexus; REC, Rectal plexus; UT, Uterine plexus; VES, Vesical plexus; V.V.V, Visceral branches from sacral nerves.

for the lower limbs; (*e*) secretory, and (*f*) sensory fibres for the abdominal viscera. The thoracic part of the sympathetic cord is placed upon the heads of the ribs, and is covered over by the pleura.

The **branches** from the gangliated cord are, as in the neck, divisible into two sets—(*A*) Central branches, communicating with other nerves, and (*B*) peripheral branches, distributed in a plexiform manner to the thoracic and abdominal viscera.

Central Communicating Branches.—The **white rami communicantes** from the thoracic nerves have already been described. Passing forwards from the beginning of the anterior primary divisions of the nerves, they become connected with the ganglia or the commissural cord of the sympathetic.

The **gray rami communicantes** are branches arising irregularly from each thoracic ganglion, which, passing backwards along with the white rami, join the anterior primary divisions of the thoracic nerves.

Peripheral Branches of Distribution.—These branches arise irregularly from the ganglia and the commissural cord. They are composed of non-medullated fibres (splanchnic efferent) derived from the ganglion cells, and medullated fibres (splanchnic efferent and afferent) derived directly from the white rami, without the intervention of the cells of the ganglia.

1. **Pulmonary Branches.**—From the gangliated cord opposite the second, third, and fourth ganglia fine filaments arise which join the posterior pulmonary plexus.

2. **Aortic Branches.**—The upper part of the thoracic aorta receives fine branches from the upper five thoracic ganglia.

3. **Splanchnic Nerves.**—Three nerves arise from the lower part of the gangliated cord, partly from the ganglia themselves, and partly from the commissural cord between the ganglia. Passing downwards over the bodies of the thoracic vertebræ they pierce the diaphragm, to end in the abdomen.

(*a*) The **great splanchnic nerve** (n. splanchnicus major) arises from the gangliated cord between the fifth and ninth ganglia. By the union of several irregular strands a nerve of considerable size is formed, which descends in the posterior mediastinum, and piercing the crus of the diaphragm, joins at once the upper end of the *semilunar ganglion* of the solar plexus. In its course in the thorax the **great splanchnic ganglion** (g. splanchnicum) is formed upon the nerve. It is more prominent in the fœtus than in the adult. From both nerve and ganglion branches arise in the thorax for the supply of the œsophagus and descending thoracic aorta (Fig. 544).

(*b*) The **small splanchnic nerve** (n. splanchnicus minor) arises from the gangliated cord opposite to the ninth and tenth ganglia. It passes over the bodies of the lower thoracic vertebræ, pierces the diaphragm near or along with the great splanchnic nerve, and ends in the **solar plexus** (*aortico-renal ganglion*).

(*c*) The **least splanchnic nerve** (n. splanchnicus imus) arises from the last thoracic ganglion of the sympathetic, or it may be a branch of the smaller splanchnic nerve. It pierces the diaphragm, and ends in the *renal plexus*.

THE LUMBAR PART OF THE SYMPATHETIC CORD.

The lumbar part of the sympathetic cord is placed upon the bodies of the lumbar vertebræ, internal to the origins of the psoas muscle, and in front of the lumbar vessels. It is connected with the thoracic portion of the cord by an attenuated commissural cord, which either pierces or passes behind the diaphragm. It is continuous below with the sacral portion of the cord by a commissure, which passes behind the common iliac artery. It is joined by medullated fibres (white rami communicantes) from the first two lumbar spinal nerves, and it contains as well medullated fibres continued down from the lower part of the thoracic gangliated cord, and derived from the visceral branches (white rami communicantes) of the lower thoracic nerves. This part of the gangliated cord is characterised by great irregularity in the number of the ganglia. They are usually *four* in number, but there are frequently more (up to eight); and in extreme

ases fusion may occur to such an extent that the separation of individual ganglia ecomes impossible.

White rami communicantes.—The first two (or three) lumbar spinal nerves ossess visceral branches which form hite rami communicantes joining he upper lumbar ganglia or the angliated cord. These nerves orm the lower limit of the thoracic-umbar visceral branches of the pinal nerves. They comprise vaso-notor fibres (for the genital organs), nd motor fibres for the bladder and terus.

Central Communicating Branches.—**Gray rami communicantes** pass from the gangliated cord o the anterior primary divisions f the lumbar nerves in an ir-egular manner. One ramus may livide so as to supply branches to wo adjacent spinal nerves; or a spinal nerve may be joined by two to five separate gray rami from the gangliated cord.

The rami course beneath the origin of the psoas magnus muscle and over the bodies of the vertebræ. Gray rami sometimes pierce the fibres of the psoas muscle.

Peripheral Branches of Distribution.—From the lumbar gangliated cord numbers of small branches arise irregularly, and pass inwards to supply the abdominal aorta, reinforcing the **aortic plexus** (from the solar plexus).

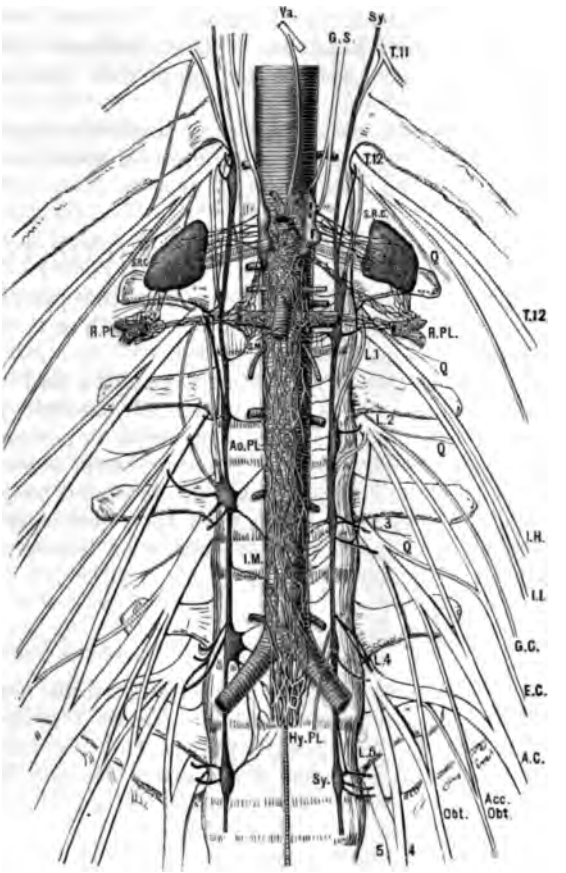

FIG. 545.—THE LUMBAR PORTION OF THE SYMPATHETIC GANGLIATED CORD AND LUMBAR PLEXUS. (From a dissection.)

T.11, T.12, L.1, L.2, L.3, L.4, L.5, Anterior primary divisions of spinal nerves, with white and gray rami communicantes.

Sy, Sympathetic gangliated cord; Va, Vagus nerve; G.S, Great splanchnic nerve, joining semilunar ganglion; S.R.C, Suprarenal capsule and plexus; R.Pl, Renal plexus; Ao.Pl, Aortic plexus; S.M, Superior mesenteric plexus; I.M, Inferior mesenteric plexus; Hy.Pl, Hypogastric plexus; Q, Nerves to quadratus lumborum; I.H, Ilio-hypogastric nerve; I.I, Ilio-inguinal nerve; G.C, Genito-crural nerve; E.C, External cutaneous nerve; A.C, Anterior crural nerve; Acc. Obt, Accessory obturator nerve; Obt, Obturator nerve 4, 5, Lumbo-sacral cord.

THE SACRAL PART OF THE GANGLIATED CORD.

The sacral part of the gangliated cord, like the cervical and lower lumbar portions of this system, receives no white rami communicantes from the spinal nerves. The **visceral branches** (*pelvic splanchnic*) of the third, and usually, also the second or fourth sacral nerves, enter the pelvic plexus without being directly connected with the gangliated cord. These nerves, however, are to be regarded as homologous with the white rami communicantes of the thoracico-lumbar nerves (*abdominal splanchnic*). They convey to the pelvic viscera—(1) motor and inhibitory fibres for rectum, uterus, and bladder, (2) vaso-dilator fibres for the genitals, and (3) secretory fibres for the prostate gland.

This portion of the cord is placed in front of the sacrum, internal to the anterior sacral foramina. It is connected above by a commissural cord with the lumbar portion of the sympathetic, and below it ends in a plexiform union over the coccyx with the cord of the other side, the two being frequently connected by the **ganglion impar** or **coccygeal ganglion.** The number of ganglia is variable; there are

commonly four. They are of small size, gradually diminishing from above downwards.

Central communicating branches arise irregularly in the form of **gray rami communicantes** from the sacral ganglia, and join the anterior primary divisions of the sacral and coccygeal nerves.

Peripheral Branches of Distribution.—(1) **Visceral branches** of small size arise from the upper part of the gangliated cord, and pass inwards to join the **pelvic plexus** (see below).

(2) **Parietal branches,** also of small size, ramify over the front of the sacrum, and form, in relation to the middle sacral artery, a plexiform union with branches from the gangliated cord of the other side.

SYMPATHETIC PLEXUSES.

It has already been seen that the peripheral branches of the sympathetic gangliated cord throughout its length are characterised by forming or joining plexuses in their neighbourhood.

The **cervical sympathetic ganglia** and nerves give rise to the carotid and cavernous plexuses; the external carotid, pharyngeal, thyroid, vertebral, and subclavian plexuses; and they send important branches to the cardiac plexuses (described along with the pneumogastric nerve).

The **thoracic ganglia** send branches to join the pulmonary and œsophageal plexuses (described along with the pneumogastric nerve). They form plexuses on the thoracic aorta, and by means of the splanchnic nerves they form the chief source of the solar plexus.

The Solar and Pelvic Plexuses.

These great plexuses serve to distribute nerves to the viscera and vessels of the abdominal and pelvic cavities. Taken together they include three plexuses—the solar plexus, hypogastric plexus, and the pelvic plexuses. They are constituted by peripheral branches of the lower thoracic, lumbar, and upper sacral parts of the gangliated cord of the sympathetic; and they are related to the central nervous system by means of the visceral branches (white rami communicantes) of the lower thoracic and upper lumbar nerves on the one hand, and by the visceral branches of the second and third, or third and fourth sacral nerves, on the other hand. The thoracico-lumbar series join the sympathetic cord, and reach the solar plexus mainly through the splanchnic nerves, and to a lesser extent through the lumbar gangliated cord. The sacral series enter the pelvic plexus without connexion with the sympathetic cord. The hypogastric plexus serves as a connecting link between the solar and pelvic plexuses.

The **solar plexus** lies on the posterior abdominal wall in relation to the abdominal aorta and behind the stomach. It is composed of three elements: the **cœliac plexus** surrounding the origin of the cœliac axis between the crura of the diaphragm, and two **semilunar ganglia,** each lying on the corresponding crus of the diaphragm, and overlapped by the suprarenal capsule, and on the right side by the inferior vena cava. The plexus is continuous with subordinate plexuses, diaphragmatic, suprarenal, renal, superior mesenteric and aortic; and by means of **the hypogastric nerves** the aortic plexus becomes continued into the **hypogastric plexus,** which again forms the chief origin of the **pelvic plexuses.**

The **semilunar ganglia** constitute the chief ganglionic centres in the solar plexus. They are irregular in form. They are often partially subdivided, and one detached portion at the lower end is named the **aortico-renal ganglion.** Other small scattered masses of cells are present in the cœliac plexus (**ganglia cœliaca**). At the upper end the semilunar ganglion receives the great splanchnic nerve. The aortico-renal ganglion at its lower end receives the smaller splanchnic nerve. Branches from the ganglion radiate in all directions—inwards to join the cœliac plexus, upwards to form the diaphragmatic plexus, outwards to the suprarenal *plexus,* downwards to the renal, superior mesenteric, and aortic plexuses.

The **cœliac plexus** forms a considerable plexiform mass surrounding the cœliac axis. It consists of a dense meshwork of fibres with ganglia intermingled (g. cœliaca), joined by numerous branches from the semilunar ganglion on each side, and by branches from the right pneumogastric nerve. It is continuous below with the superior mesenteric and aortic plexuses. Investing the cœliac axis, it forms subsidiary plexuses which accompany the branches of the artery. The **coronary plexus** supplies branches to the œsophagus and stomach; the **hepatic plexus** supplies branches to the liver and gall-bladder, stomach, duodenum, and pancreas; and the **splenic plexus** sends offsets to the spleen, pancreas, and stomach.

Subordinate plexuses are formed on the aorta and its branches by nerves derived from the solar plexus (semilunar ganglia and cœliac plexus).

a. The **diaphragmatic plexus** consists of fibres arising from the semilunar ganglion, and accompanies the inferior phrenic artery. Besides supplying the diaphragm, it gives branches to the suprarenal plexus, and (on the right side) to the inferior vena cava, (on the left side) to the œsophagus. It communicates on each side with the phrenic nerve. At the junction of the plexus and the phrenic nerve of the right side a ganglion is formed (**diaphragmatic ganglion**).

b. The **suprarenal plexus** is of most considerable size. It is mainly derived from branches of the semilunar ganglion, reinforced by nerves from the lower part of the solar plexus which stream outwards on the capsular arteries. It is joined by branches from the diaphragmatic plexus above and from the renal plexus below. The nerves enter the substance of the suprarenal capsule.

c. The **renal plexus** is derived from (1) branches of the semilunar ganglion, and (2) fibres from the aortic plexus, extending outwards along the renal artery to the hilum of the kidney. It receives also the least splanchnic nerve, and is connected by numerous branches to the suprarenal plexus.

d. The **superior mesenteric plexus** is inseparable above from the cœliac plexus, and is joined on either side by fibres from the semilunar ganglion. It is continuous below with the aortic plexus. A separate detached ganglionic mass (**superior mesenteric ganglion**) is present in

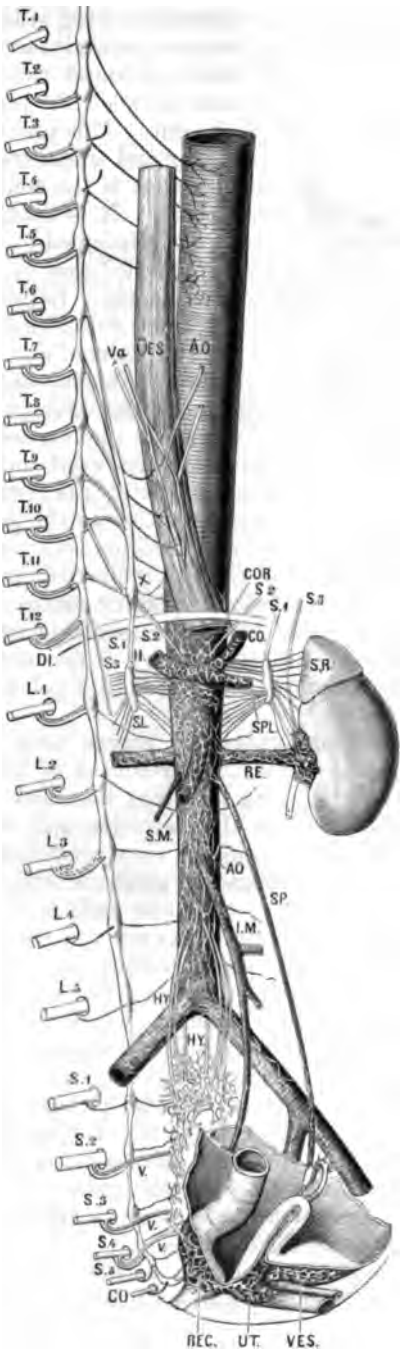

FIG. 546.—THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE SYMPATHETIC SYSTEM IN THE THORAX, ABDOMEN, AND PELVIS.

T.1-12; L.1-5; S.1-5; Co, Anterior primary divisions of spinal nerves, connected to the gangliated cord of the sympathetic by rami communicantes, white (double lines) and gray (single lines); OES, Œsophagus and œsophageal plexus; AO, Aorta and aortic plexus; Va, Vagus nerve joining œsophageal plexus; S.1, Great splanchnic nerve; X, Great splanchnic ganglion; S.2, Small splanchnic nerve; S.3, Least splanchnic nerve; CO, Coronary artery and plexus; SPL, Splenic artery and plexus; H, Hepatic artery and plexus; S.L, Semilunar ganglion; Di, Diaphragm; S.R, Suprarenal capsule; RE, Renal artery and plexus; S.M, Superior mesenteric artery and plexus; SP, Spermatic artery and plexus; I.M, Inferior mesenteric artery and plexus; HY, Hypogastric nerves and plexus; REC, Rectal plexus; UT, Uterine plexus; VES, Vesical plexus; V.V.V, Visceral branches from sacral nerves.

the plexus. Accompanying the superior mesenteric artery the **plexus** forms subordinate plexuses around the branches of the vessel. The **plexuses** in the mesentery at first surround the intestinal arteries, but near the intestine they form fine plexuses between the layers of the mesentery, from which branches pass to the wall of the gut. This plexus supplies the small intestine, cæcum, vermiform appendix, ascending and transverse portions of the colon.

e. The **aortic plexus** is the continuation downwards of the solar plexus around the abdominal aorta. It is continuous above with the superior mesenteric and solar plexuses; it is reinforced by the peripheral branches of the lumbar gangliated cord of the sympathetic; and it is connected with the hypogastric plexus below by the **hypogastric nerves**. Besides investing and supplying the aorta, the plexus contributes to various subordinate plexuses on the branches of the artery. It contributes to the suprarenal and renal plexuses, and it gives rise to the spermatic or ovarian and the inferior mesenteric plexuses.

The **spermatic plexus** invests and accompanies the spermatic artery. It is derived from the aortic plexus, and receives a contribution from the renal plexus. It supplies the spermatic cord and testicle.

The **ovarian plexus** in the female arises like the spermatic plexus. It accompanies the ovarian artery to the pelvis, and supplies the ovary, broad ligament, and Fallopian tube. It forms communications in the broad ligament with the **uterine plexus** (from the pelvic plexus), and sends fibres to the uterus.

The **inferior mesenteric plexus** is a derivative from the aortic plexus, prolonged along the inferior mesenteric artery. It forms subordinate plexuses on the branches of the artery (colic, sigmoid, and superior hæmorrhoidal), and is distributed to the descending colon, iliac colon, pelvic colon, and upper part of the rectum.

The **hypogastric nerves** form the continuation of the aortic plexus into the pelvic cavity. They consist of numerous plexiform bundles of nerve-fibres which descend along the front and back of the bifurcation of the aorta and the origin of the common iliac arteries, and over the sacral promontory, where, becoming inextricably mingled, they constitute the hypogastric plexus.

The **hypogastric plexus** is continued downwards in front of the sacrum on either side of the rectum, and ends in the pelvic plexuses.

The **pelvic plexuses** are formed by the separation of the hypogastric plexus into two halves on either side of the rectum. Each is joined by fibres from the upper part of the sacral portion of the gangliated cord of the sympathetic, and by the **visceral branches** (white rami communicantes) from the second and third or third and fourth sacral nerves. Accompanying the internal iliac artery and its branches each pelvic plexus gives off subordinate plexuses for the pelvic viscera.

a. The **hæmorrhoidal plexus** supplies the rectum, and joins the superior hæmorrhoidal plexus from the inferior mesenteric plexus.

b. The **vesical plexus** accompanies the vesical arteries to the bladder-wall. Besides supplying the muscular wall and mucous membrane of the bladder, it forms subordinate plexuses for the lower part of the ureter, the vesicula seminalis, and the vas deferens.

c. The **prostatic plexus** is of considerable size. It is placed on either side of the gland, and in addition to supplying its substance and the prostatic urethra, it sends offsets to the neck of the bladder and the vesicula seminalis. It is continued forwards on each side to form the **cavernous plexus** of the penis (plex. cavernosus penis). Bundles of nerves pierce the layers of the triangular ligament, and after supplying the membranous urethra at the root of the penis, give off branches which enter and supply the corpus cavernosum. The cavernous nerves communicate with branches of the pudic nerve, and give offsets to the corpus spongiosum and the spongy portion of the urethra.

d. The **uterine plexus** passes upwards for a short distance with the uterine artery between the layers of the broad ligament, and is then distributed to the surfaces and substance of the organ. It communicates between the layers of the broad ligament with the ovarian plexus.

The **vaginal plexus** is formed mainly by the visceral branches of the sacral

ves entering the pelvic plexus. It supplies the wall and mucous membrane the vagina and urethra, and provides a **cavernous plexus** for the clitoris (plex. ernosus clitoridis). The uterine and vaginal plexuses of the female correspond the prostatic plexus of the male.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SYMPATHETIC SYSTEM.

There are two diametrically opposite views of the mode of development of the sym-hetic system.

In birds and mammals the first rudiment of the sympathetic cord occurs in the mation of a longitudinal unsegmented column of mesoblastic cells (which stain more ply than the mesoblast in which they lie) on either side of the aorta, and coterminous h it. This column of cells becomes joined at early stage by the **visceral branches** of the nal nerves which grow inwards from the main ve trunks into the splanchnic area, and result m the division of the nerve into somatic and ceral parts. These visceral branches constitute **white rami communicantes**. They receive tributions usually from both dorsal and ventral ts, and gradually approaching the above-men-ned column of mesoblastic cells, they become mately associated with the cells. In some es fibres of the visceral nerves pass over the ular column into the splanchnic area without nexion with it (Fig. 548). By the junction of se visceral nerves with the cells of the column, ain cells persist and produce the **ganglia**. e intervening portions of the column, by nges in the cells, and by the addition possibly fibres belonging to the visceral nerves, give to the **commissural cords**. The cellular mn, besides producing the gangliated cord, the further growth of its cells and their ex-sion centrally and peripherally, produces the **y rami communicantes**, parts of the **peripheral nches**, and the **peripheral** (collateral and minal) **ganglia**, as well as the medullary tion of the **suprarenal capsule**. The cervical, er lumbar, and sacral portions of the sym-hetic gangliated cord are secondary extensions m the more primitive condition, gradually owing upwards and downwards along the main ssels. These portions of the system are not ovided with white rami communicantes. The nglia of the sympathetic assume their seg-nted appearance (1) from the persistence of e primitive cells and their connexion with the inal nerves by means of the white and gray ni communicantes, and (2) from the way in which the primitive column is moulded the surrounding structures (bones, segmental arteries, etc.)

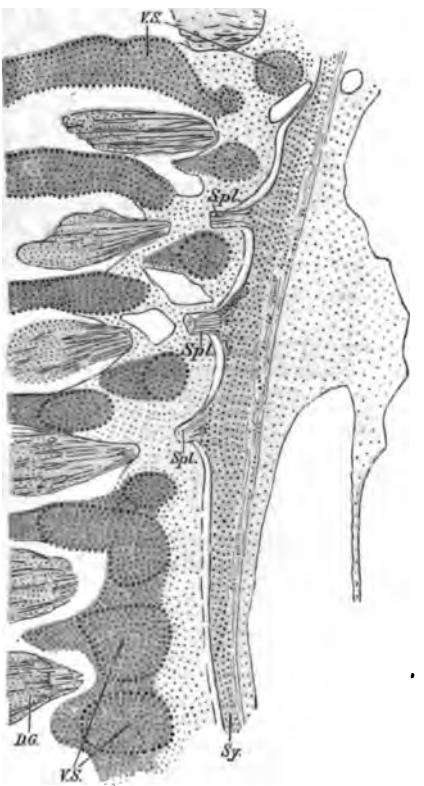

FIG. 547.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SYMPATHETIC GANGLIATED CORD.

Sy, Sympathetic cord; Spl, Splanchnic branches of spinal nerves (white rami communicantes); V.S, Vertebral segments; D.G, Dorsal ganglia.

Another account of the development of the sympathetic system, supported by high thority, describes the gangliated cord as an outgrowth of the dorsal ganglia of the nal nerves. It is said that each ganglion gives off a bud at its lower end, which, owing inwards into the splanchnic area, becomes attached to the trunk of the spinal rve just beyond the union of the dorsal and ventral roots. The bud still extending vards into the splanchnic area, remains associated with the nerve by an attenuated lk. These buds, it is said, become the ganglia, which, after reaching their permanent ce in the splanchnic area, are supposed to extend upwards and downwards so as to lesce and form a beaded chain of ganglia. The stalks connecting the ganglia with the nal nerves become the white rami communicantes. This mode of development does t satisfactorily account for several important features of the sympathetic system—the velopment of those parts of the gangliated cord which possess no white rami, the

absence of a real segmental character in the cord (remarkably shown in the fœtus), and the constancy of continuity in the gangliated cord. No instance is recorded of a hiatus between two ganglia. It is a tempting view on the other hand, as it ascribes to the one germinal layer (epiblast) the formation of all the elements of the nervous system, and it brings the sympathetic ganglia into serial homology with isolated ganglia on the cranial nerves (*e.g.* the ciliary, spheno-palatine, and otic, on the trigeminal nerve).

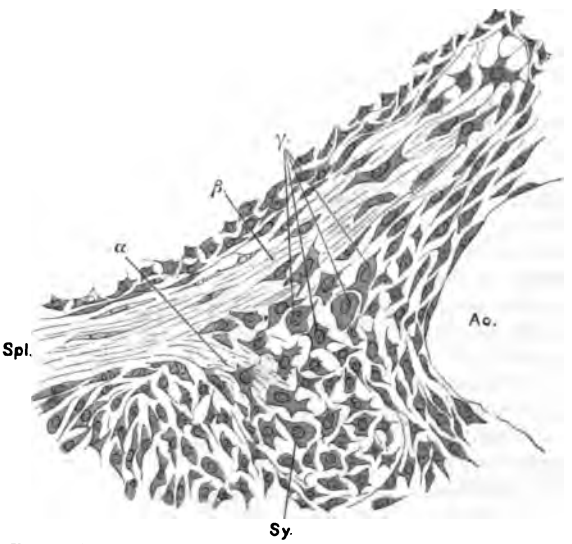

FIG. 548.—SECTION THROUGH THE SYMPATHETIC GANGLIATED CORD OF AN EMBRYO.

Showing the connexion with the ganglion (Sy) of the white ramus communicans (Spl); (α) a portion of the ramus joining the ganglion; (β) fibres passing over the cord, accompanied by a stream of cells; (γ) continuous with those of the ganglion; (Ao) Aorta.

The Morphology of the Sympathetic System.

From a consideration of its structure, functions, and development, there appear to be two separate structures represented in the sympathetic nervous system—the **spinal** and the **sympathetic elements**. The structure of the system presents a union of two distinct elements—fibres of cerebro-spinal origin and "sympathetic" cells and fibres. While the function of the gangliated cord and its branches seems to be absolutely dependent upon the cerebro-spinal nervous system, it is certain that the cells and fibres of the sympathetic system possess a vital activity apart from their connexion with the central nervous system. In the development of the sympathetic it is at least highly probable that a mesoblastic rudiment or precursor forms the basis of the sympathetic system, which is secondarily joined by nerve-fibres from the roots of the spinal nerves.

Morphologically this part of the nervous system is essentially a longitudinal cord or column, associated with involuntary muscles and glandular tissues, and particularly related to the organs in the splanchnic area. Like other longitudinal structures in the body, and especially like the organs of the splanchnic area, the sympathetic system is not truly segmental. The gangliated cord is only quasi-segmental, the segmentation being attributable to its junction with the visceral branches of the spinal nerves. The peripheral branches from the gangliated cord are not segmental; even the gray rami are not properly metameric, but, like the ganglia, assume a segmental character in consequence of their connexions with the spinal nerves.

The phylogenetic relation of the sympathetic and the cerebro-spinal elements in the system it is impossible to determine. It may be that the sympathetic system is the representative of an ancient architecture independent of the cerebro-spinal nervous system, the materials of which are utilised for a more modern nervous system; or it may be that the correlation of spinal nerves and sympathetic are both the consequences of the formation of new organs and structures in the splanchnic area. Examined in every light, it possesses features which effectually differentiate it from the cerebro-spinal system, although it has become inextricably united with it and subservient to it.

THE ORGANS OF SENSE AND THE INTEGUMENT.

By Robert Howden.

THE NOSE.

ıe nose constitutes the peripheral part of the organ of smell (organon olfactus), ıce to the upper portion of its mucous lining the branches of the olfactory nerve ə distributed. It consists of an external portion, the outer nose, which projects ɔm the face, and of an internal part, or cavum nasi, which is divided by a vertical ɔtum into right and left cavities or fossæ.

The **outer nose**, or nasus externus, forms a more or less triangular pyramid, of ıich the upper angle is termed the **root** (radix nasi), and is usually separated from ə glabella by a depression, while its **base** (basis nasi), directed downwards, is per-ɾated by the apertures of the nostrils (anterior nares). Its free angle is named ə **point** (apex nasi), and the anterior border, joining root and point, is termed the **rsum nasi**; the upper part of the dorsum is supported by the nasal bones, and is ıned the **bridge**. The lateral aspects of the nose are continuous with the eyelids ove and with the cheeks below, forming with the latter a varying angle. Each teral surface ends inferiorly in a mobile and expanded portion, the **ala nasi**, which rms the outer boundary of the anterior nares, and is limited above by a furrow, ə **alar sulcus**. The skin covering the nose is thin and movable over the root, but ick and adherent over the point and alæ, where it contains numerous large baceous glands.

The arterial supply of the outer nose is derived from the facial and ophthalmic arteries, and veins drain themselves into the facial and ophthalmic trunks. Its principal lymphatic vessels low the course of the facial vein and open into the submaxillary lymphatic glands. From the ıt of the nose one or two vessels curve backwards above the orbit to reach the upper parotid nds, while a third group runs below the orbit to the lower parotid glands. The facial nerve ɔplies its muscles, while the sensory nerves for the skin are the infratrochlear and nasal branches the ophthalmic nerve and the infraorbital branch of the superior maxillary nerve.

The nose presents great variety as to its size and shape, and certain well-defined types, such as ıiline, Grecian, etc., are described. The relation which its breadth, measured across the alæ, ars to its length, measured from root to point, is termed the nasal index, and is expressed thus:

$$\frac{\text{greatest breadth} \times 100}{\text{greatest length.}}$$

In white races this index is below 70 (leptorhines); in yellow races, between 78 and 85 esorhines); and in black races, above 85 (platyrhines).

CARTILAGES OF THE NOSE.

In addition to the bony skeleton of the nose there are five chief cartilages artilagines nasi) which contribute to the production and maintenance of its ıape. These are named—(*a*) the cartilage of the septum, and (*b*) the upper and wer lateral cartilages on each side.

The **cartilage of the septum** (cartilago septi nasi, Fig. 549) is of an irregularly ıadrilateral form. Its postero-superior edge is attached to the mesethmoid; its ıstero-inferior margin to the vomer and intermaxillary crest. Its antero-superior

border is thick, and is fixed above to the back of the internasal suture; below the level of the nasal bones it is continued, on either side, into the upper lateral cartilages, which may be looked upon as its wing-like expansions. The lower part

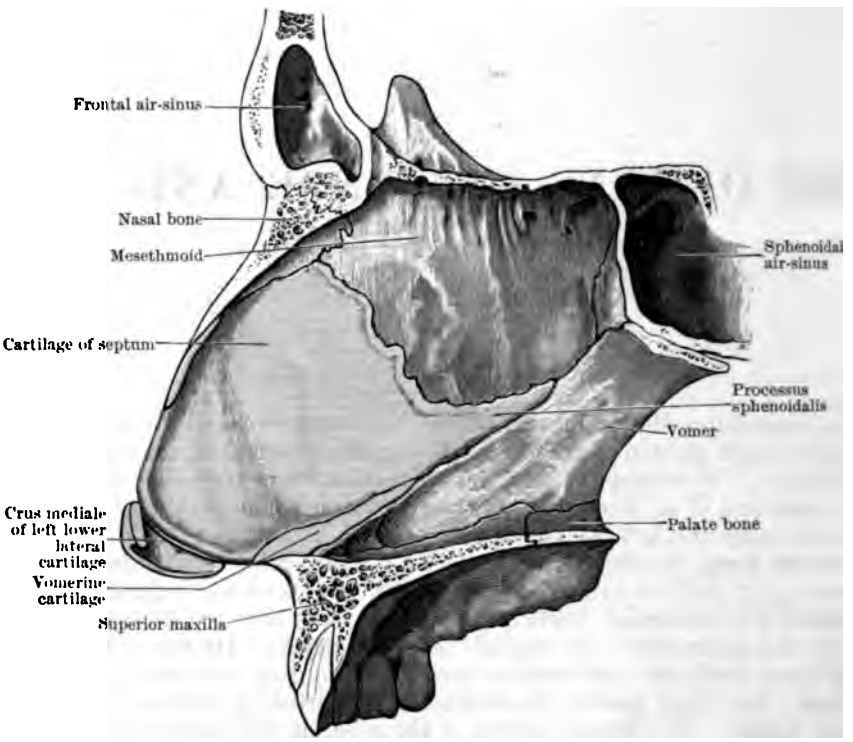

FIG. 549.—LATERAL VIEW OF NASAL SEPTUM.

of this border is separated by a fissure from the upper lateral cartilages, and extends downwards between the inferior lateral cartilages, to which it is attached by fibrous tissue. In this fibrous tissue a small sesamoid cartilage is usually seen on each side of the middle line. Its antero-inferior border is short, and is attached by fibrous tissue to the mesial plates of the lower lateral cartilages, while its anterior angle is rounded and does not reach as far as the point of the nose. The lowest part of the nasal septum is not formed by the septal cartilage, but by the mesial plates of the lower lateral cartilages and by the integument, and, being freely movable, is termed the **septum mobile nasi**. The cartilage of the septum may be prolonged backwards (especially in children) as a tongue-like process into the angle between the vomer and ethmoid. This process, varying in width from 4-6 mm., is named the **processus sphenoidalis septi cartilaginei**, and sometimes reaches as far as the body of the sphenoid.

Lying along the lower edge of the cartilage of the septum, and best seen on making a coronal section of the nose, are a couple of elongated cartilaginous strips. Each measures from 6-12 mm. in length, is attached to the vomer, and is named the **vomerine cartilage** (cartilago vomeronasalis, Jacobsoni).

The **upper lateral cartilage** (cartilago nasi lateralis, Figs. 550, 551) is triangular in shape and situated immediately below the nasal bone, to which and to the superior maxilla its thin posterior border is attached. Its anterior edge is thick and its upper part is directly continuous with the cartilage of the septum. Its lower margin is joined by fibrous tissue to the upper edge of the lower lateral cartilage.

The **lower lateral cartilage** (cartilago alaris major, Figs. 550, 551, 552) encircles the anterior part of the nostril and assists in keeping it open. It consists of two plates, outer and inner, which are continuous with each other in a rounded angle at the point of the nose. The **outer plate**, or crus laterale, is oval in shape and is *attached* to the upper lateral cartilage and to the superior maxilla by fibrous tissue.

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of cartilage and composed
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crus mediale (Fig. 552),
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in the septum mobile nasi,
e anterior part of the carti-
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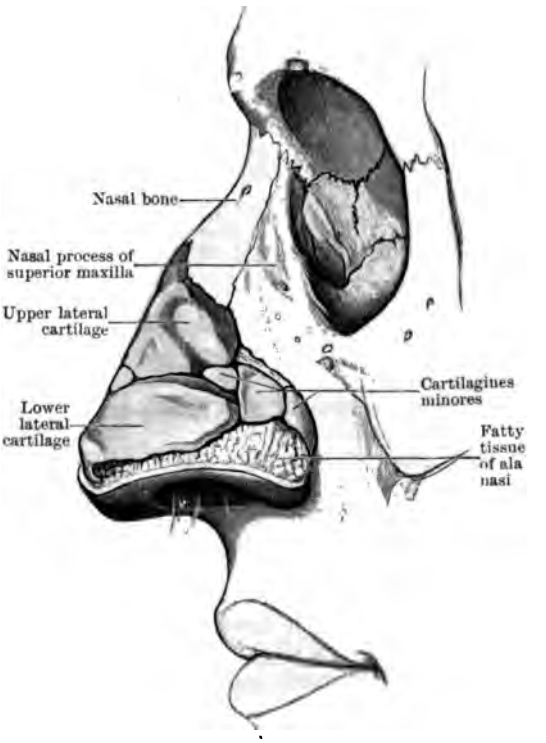
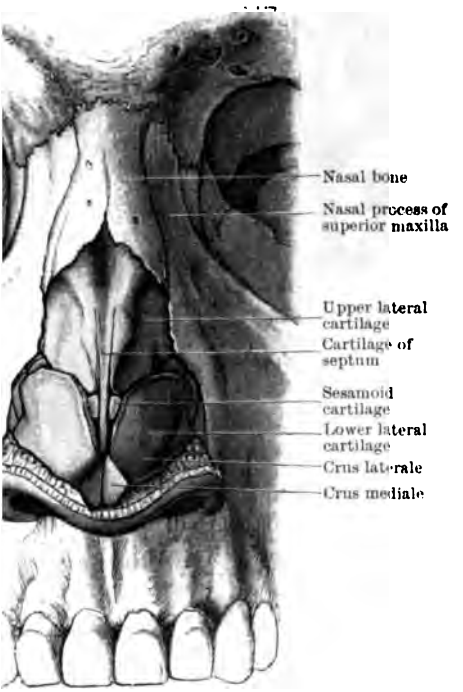


FIG. 550.—PROFILE VIEW OF THE BONY AND CARTILAGINOUS SKELETON OF THE NOSE.

NASAL FOSSÆ.

nasal fossæ (Fig. 553) are
mber and are placed one on
le of the middle line. They
from the anterior to the
nares or choanæ, and open through the latter into the naso-pharynx.
ny boundaries are described in the section on Osteology (p. 173). On the lateral wall of each are found the orifices of the frontal, ethmoidal, sphenoidal, and maxillary sinuses, together with that of the nasal duct.



-FRONT VIEW OF THE BONY AND CARTILAGINOUS SKELETON OF THE NOSE.

Immediately above the aperture of the nostril is a slightly expanded area, the **vestibule** (vestibulum nasi). This is bounded externally by the lower lateral cartilage, and, internally, by the lower part of the septum, and is prolonged towards the tip of the nose as a small pouch, termed the **ventricle**. Partly subdivided by a curved ridge, the vestibule is lined by skin and contains hairs and sebaceous glands. The hairs, or vibrissæ, springing from its lower half, are stout and curved downwards to guard the entrance to the nostril. The upper part of the vestibule is smooth, and is limited above and behind by a slightly-marked arched prominence, the **limen nasi**, beyond which the fossa is lined by mucous membrane.

The nasal fossa above and behind the vestibule is divided into **two parts**, viz. an upper or olfactory, and a lower or respiratory region. The **olfactory part**, or regio olfactoria, is a narrow, slit-like cavity, and comprises the region of the superior turbinated bone, together with a corresponding portion of the septum. The **respiratory part**, or regio respiratoria, is expanded, and includes the lower and remaining parts of the fossa.

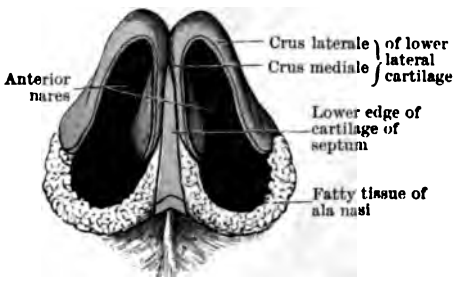


FIG. 552.—CARTILAGES OF NOSE FROM BELOW.

Inner Wall or Septum Nasi (Fig. 549).—Where the bony septum is deficient, below and in front, the gap is filled by the septal cartilage. Until the seventh year the nasal septum lies, as a rule, in the mesial plane, but after this age is very often deflected to one or other side—more frequently to the right—the deflection being usually greatest along the line of junction of the vomer and mesethmoid. Deflection of the septum is more common in European than in non-European skulls—occurring in about 53 per cent of the former and in about 28 per cent of the latter (Zuckerkandl, *Anatomie der Nasenhöhle*, 1892). Associated with, or apart from, this deviation, lateral crests or spurs of bone are found, in about 20 per cent of skulls, projecting from the septum into one or other nasal fossa. In the floor of the fossa, close to the lower edge of the septal cartilage and immediately over the incisive foramen, a slight depression, the **recessus naso-palatinus**, may be seen. It is directed downwards and forwards, and indicates the position of the communication which originally existed between the nasal and buccal cavities. In the septum, a little above and in front of this depression, is a minute orifice, not always recognisable, from which a blind pouch extends upwards and backwards for a distance of from 2 to 9 mm. This is the rudimentary **organ of Jacobson** (organon vomero-nasale) and is supported by the vomerine cartilage. In many of the lower animals this organ is well developed (Fig. 554), and probably plays a part in the sense of smell, being lined by epithelium similar to that in the olfactory part of the nose and supplied by branches of the olfactory nerve.

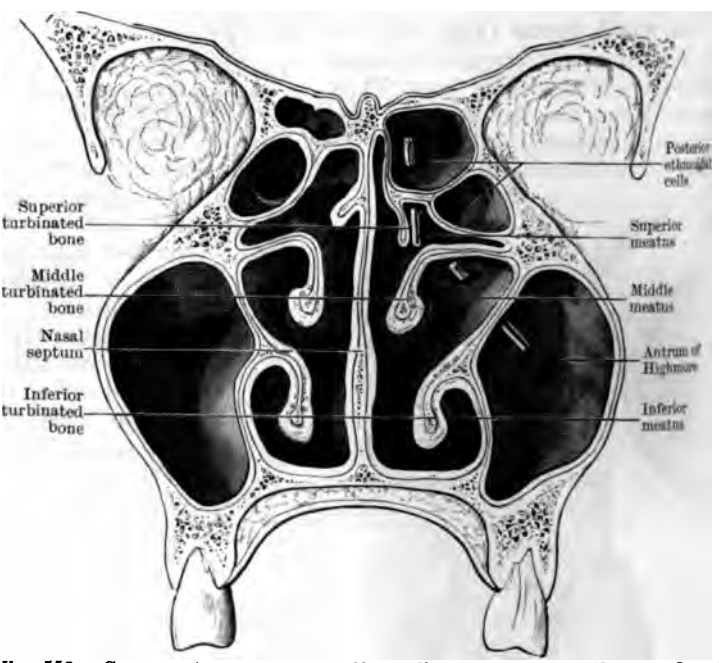


FIG. 553.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH NASAL FOSSÆ; ANTERIOR HALF OF SECTION VIEWED FROM BEHIND.

Outer Wall (Fig. 455).—Above the superior turbinated bone is a narrow recess, the **recessus spheno-ethmoidalis**, into the posterior part of which the sphenoidal air-sinus opens. The **superior meatus** (meatus nasi superior) is a short oblique fissure, directed downwards and backwards under cover of the superior turbinated bone; into its antero-superior portion the posterior ethmoidal cells open by one or more orifices.

ə narrow slit-like interval between the nasal septum and the inner aspect of the ldle turbinated bone is named the **olfactory cleft** or **sulcus**. The **middle meatus** eatus nasi medius), situated below and to the outer side of the middle turbinated ıe, is a roomy passage, and is continued wards into a slightly depressed area med the **atrium meatus nasi**, which lies mediately above the vestibule. The ium is limited above and in front by a v ridge, the **agger nasi**, the representa- e of the naso-turbinal found in many imals. On raising or removing the middle rbinated bone a rounded elevation, **bulla moidalis**, caused by the middle ethmoidal -cells, is seen. This varies in size and directed downwards and forwards, whilst ening either on it or above it are the ifices of the middle ethmoidal cells. Curv- g upwards and forwards, below and in front the bulla ethmoidalis, is a deep, narrow oove, the **hiatus semilunaris**, into which the anterior ethmoidal cells and the trum of Highmore open. The opening from the antrum (ostium maxillare) is uated near the lower and back part of the hiatus, and is placed near the

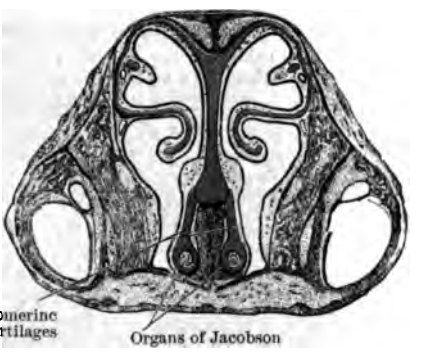
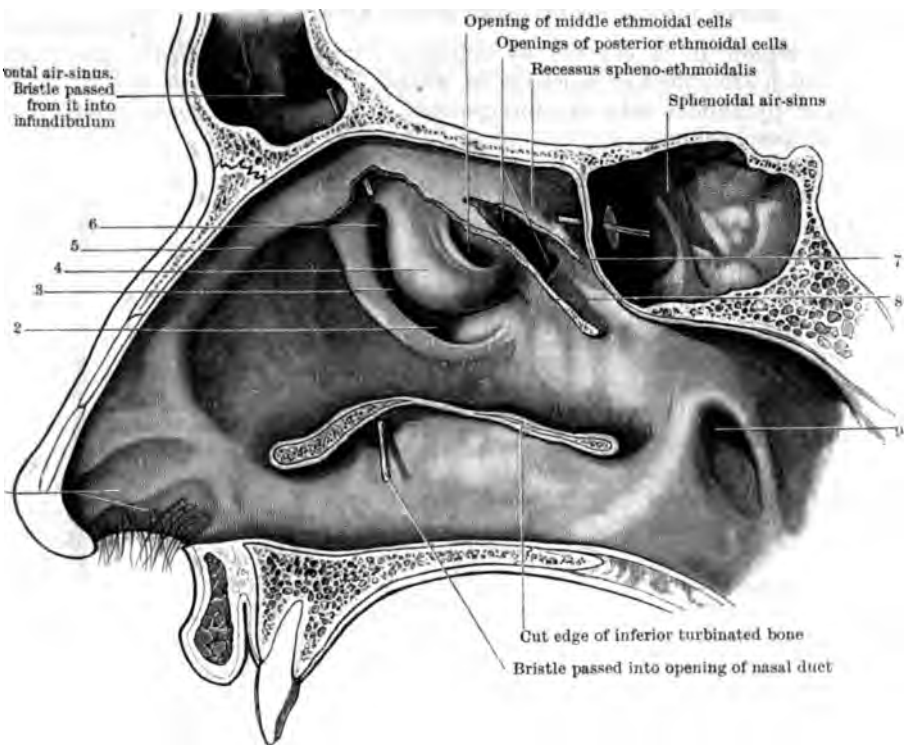


FIG. 554.—SECTION THROUGH NOSE OF KITTEN, showing position of Jacobson's organ.



IG. 555.--VIEW OF THE OUTER WALL OF THE NOSE—THE TURBINATED BONES HAVING BEEN REMOVED.

stibule.
ening of antrum of Highmore.
iatus semilunaris.
4. Bulla ethmoidalis.
5. Agger nasi.
6. Opening of anterior ethmoidal cells.
7. Cut edge of superior turbinated bone.
8. Cut edge of middle turbinated bone.
9. Pharyngeal orifice of Eustachian tube.

f of the antral cavity. A second opening (ostium accessorium) is not infrequently ı in the middle meatus above the posterior part of the inferior turbinated bone. middle meatus extends upwards and forwards, and, becoming narrowed, is tinued into the **infundibulum** or channel leading into the frontal air-sinus. **inferior meatus** (meatus nasi inferior) lies below the inferior turbinated bone,

under cover of the anterior part of which is found the slit-like orifice of the nasal duct (see p. 741).

Mucous Membrane (membrana mucosa nasi).—The Schneiderian or nasal mucous membrane is thick, highly vascular, and firmly bound to the subjacent periosteum and perichondrium. It is continuous, through the choanæ, with the mucous lining of the naso-pharynx; through the nasal duct and lachrymal canals, with the conjunctiva; and, through the apertures leading into the air-sinuses, with the delicate lining of these cavities.

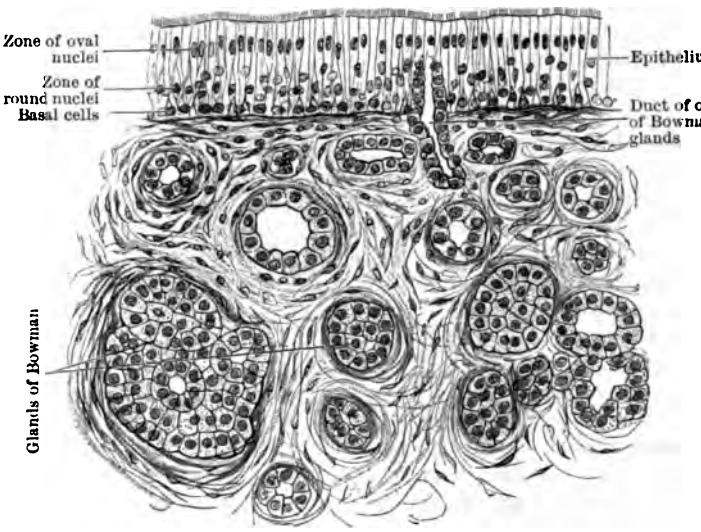


FIG. 556.—SECTION THROUGH THE OLFACTORY MUCOUS MEMBRANE.

Throughout the respiratory region it is covered by columnar, ciliated epithelium, interspersed amongst which are goblet or mucin cells, whilst between the bases of the columnar cells smaller pyramidal cells are interpolated. It contains a freely anastomosing venous plexus, which in some parts, *e.g.* over the inferior turbinated bones, forms a kind of cavernous tissue (plexus cavernosus concharum). Many acinous glands, secreting a watery fluid, are embedded in it, and are especially large and numerous in the posterior half of the nasal fossæ, while in children it contains a considerable amount of adenoid tissue.

In the olfactory region the mucous membrane is yellowish in colour, more delicate, and covered by non-ciliated columnar epithelium (Figs. 556, 557). Embedded in it are numerous tubular and often branched glands, the **glands of Bowman** (gl. olfactoriæ); these are lined by polygonal cells and open by fine ducts on its free surface. The epithelium covering the olfactory region consists of: (1) supporting cells, (2) olfactory cells, and (3) basal cells.

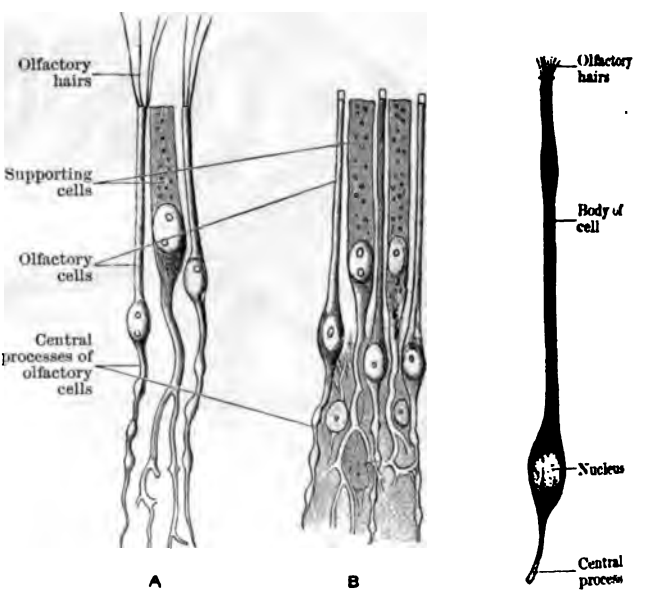


FIG. 557.—OLFACTORY AND SUPPORTING CELLS.

A. Frog, B. Human } M. Schultze. C. Human (v. Brunn).

1. Supporting Cells.—The outer part of these cells is columnar in shape and contains fine granules of yellow pigment, whilst the deeper portion is attenuated and frequently branched. They contain elliptical or oval nuclei, which are situated

the deep ends of the columnar parts of the cells, and form what is termed the ıe of oval nuclei.

2. **Olfactory Cells.**—They are spindle-shaped and lie between the deeper, enuated parts of the supporting cells; their nuclei are circular and form the ıe of round nuclei. Each cell gives off a peripheral and a central process, the mer of which is rod-like and ends on a level with the free extremities of the)porting cells, where it is surmounted by a pencil of short filaments, termed the **ıctory hairs.** A fine membrane, the membrana limitans externa, covers in many .mals the free surface of the epithelium, and is pierced by the olfactory hairs and the ducts of Bowman's glands.

The central process is a very delicate varicose filament, which passes inwards l is continuous with a fibril of the olfactory nerve. Each of these nerve fibrils)bably retains its independence from its point of origin in an olfactory cell to its mination in the olfactory bulb, in the glomerular layer of which it forms a free)risation.

3. **Basal Cells.**—These cells are branched, and lie on a basement membrane ;ween the deep extremities of the supporting and olfactory cells.

Olfactory Nerves.—These nerves arise from the under aspect of the olfactory lb and are transmitted through the foramina in the cribriform plate of the ımoid bone. They are at first lodged in the bony canals or grooves situated on ; inner and outer walls of the olfactory area, and, reaching the deep surface of ; mucous membrane, are continued into the central processes of the olfactory ls. The olfactory nerves possess no medullary sheath.

The fifth cranial nerve supplies branches of ordinary sensation to the nasal mucous membrane ollows: The septum is chiefly supplied by the naso-palatine nerve, but its posterior part ives some filaments from Meckel's ganglion and the Vidian nerve, and its anterior portion n the nasal branch of the ophthalmic. The outer wall is supplied—(1) by the upper nasal nches of the Vidian nerve and Meckel's ganglion; (2) by the lower nasal branches derived from anterior palatine; and in front by (3) the outer division of the nasal branch of the ophthalmic. ; floor and anterior part of the inferior meatus are supplied by a nasal branch of the anterior erior dental nerve.

Blood-vessels.—Arteries.—The chief artery of the nose is the spheno-palatine branch of the ernal maxillary artery. This reaches the nasal cavity through the spheno-palatine foramen, and ides into—(*a*) posterior nasal, which ramifies over the turbinated bones and sends branches to antrum and to the frontal and ethmoidal cells; and (*b*) naso-palatine, the artery of the tum. Twigs are given to the upper portion of the cavity by the anterior and posterior moidal arteries, while its posterior part receives some small branches from the descending atine vessel. The nostrils are supplied by the lateral nasal branch of the facial, and by the tal artery of the superior coronary. The antrum is partly supplied by the infraorbital artery, ilst the sphenoidal sinus gets its chief supply from the pterygo-palatine vessel. The **veins** m a dense plexus almost resembling cavernous tissue in structure. This condition is well seen the respiratory region, and especially so over the middle and inferior turbinated bones and on ; lower part of the septum. The venous blood is carried in three chief directions, viz. *ıards* into the facial vein, *backwards* into the spheno-palatine vein, and *upwards* into the ımoidal veins. The ethmoidal veins communicate with the ophthalmic veins and the veins of ; dura mater; further, an ethmoidal vein passes up through the cribriform plate of the ımoid, and either opens into the venous plexus of the olfactory bulb or directly into one of the ns of the orbital part of the frontal lobe of the brain. The **lymphatics** form an irregular net-rk in the superficial part of the mucous membrane, and can be injected from the subdural or ıarachnoid space. The larger vessels are directed backwards towards the choanæ, and are lected into two trunks, of which the larger passes to a lymphatic gland in front of the s vertebra, and the smaller to one or two glands situated near the great cornu of the hyoid ıe.

The development of the nose is described in the section which deals with "eneral Embryology" (p. 38).

THE EYE.

The eyeball or globe of the eye (bulbus oculi) constitutes the chief part of the ;an of sight (organon visus); but, associated with its description, certain :essory structures, such as the eyelids and the lachrymal apparatus, fall to be ısidered.

THE EYEBALL.

Situated in the anterior part of the orbital cavity, the eyeball is protected in front by the eyelids and by their mucous lining, the conjunctiva, and is pierced behind by the optic nerve, or nerve of sight, which spreads out to form its innermost tunic, the retina. The tendons of the ocular muscles are attached to its outer surface a short distance in front of its equator, while its posterior two-thirds are

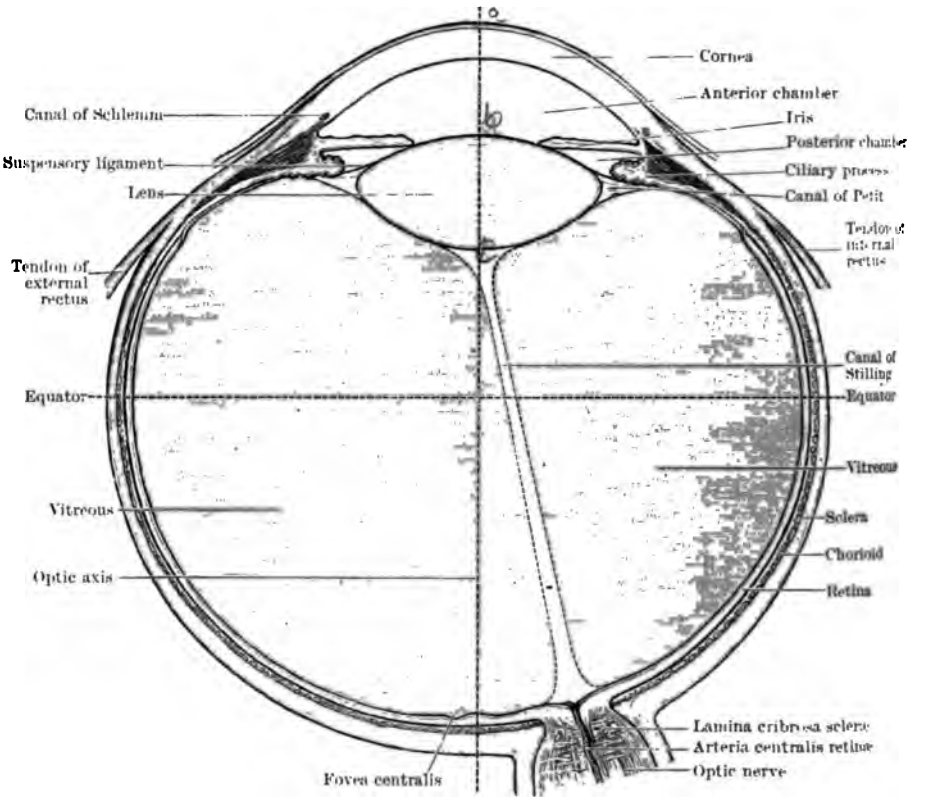


FIG. 558.—DIAGRAM OF A HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH LEFT EYEBALL AND OPTIC NERVE (four times enlarged).

enveloped by a loose membrane, termed the capsule of Tenon, or fascia bulbi, which separates it from the surrounding orbital fat.

The eyeball is not quite spherical, being composed of the segments of two spheres, viz. an anterior, transparent, corneal segment, possessing a radius of 7 or 8 mm., and a posterior, opaque, scleral segment, with a radius of about 12 mm. (Fig. 558). The anterior or corneal segment, in consequence of its shorter radius, projects as a dome in front of the scleral portion, the union of the two parts being indicated externally by a slight groove, the sulcus scleræ. The central points of the anterior and posterior curvatures of the eyeball constitute respectively its **anterior** and **posterior poles**, while a straight line joining the two poles is termed its **sagittal axis** (axis optica). The axes of the two eyeballs are almost parallel, diverging only slightly in front; but the axes of the optic nerves converge behind, and, if prolonged backwards, would meet in the region of the dorsum sellæ of the sphenoid. An imaginary line encircling the globe midway between its two poles is named its **equator**, and **meridional lines** (meridiani) may be drawn from pole to pole at right angles to the equator. Its sagittal and transverse diameters are nearly equal—about 24 mm.; its vertical diameter is about 23·5 mm. All three diameters are rather less in the female than in the male, but the size of the eyeball is fairly constant in the same sex. What are popularly described as large eyes owe their apparent increase in size to a greater prominence of the globe and to a wider fissure between the eyelids.

At birth the eyeball is nearly spherical and has a diameter of about 17·5 mm. By age of puberty this has increased to 20 or 21 mm., after which it rapidly reaches its lt size.

The eyeball (Fig. 558) consists of three concentric tunics or coats, contained hin which are three transparent refracting media. The three tunics are: (1) an er fibrous coat, the sclero-cornea, consisting of an opaque posterior part, the ra, and a transparent anterior portion, the **cornea**; (2) an intermediate cular, pigmented, and partly muscular tunic, the tunica vasculosa oculi, com-ing from behind forward the **chorioid**, the **ciliary body**, and the **iris**; (3) an ernal nervous tunic, the **retina**. The three refracting media are named, n before backwards, the **aqueous humour**, the **crystalline lens**, and the **vitreous y.**

SCLERA.

The **sclera**, sclerotic coat, or white of the eye, is a firm, opaque membrane, which ms something like the posterior five-sixths of the outer tunic. Thickest teriorly (about 1 mm.), it thins at the equator to 0·4 mm.-0·5 mm., and again reases to 0·6 mm. near the sulcus scleræ. In the child it is thinner than in the ılt, and presents a bluish appearance, caused by the pigment of the chorioid ning through it, while in old age it assumes a yellowish tinge. Its outer surface overed by a layer of endothelium and is in contact with the capsule of Tenon—ymph space, **the suprascleral lymphatic space**, only intervening. In front of the ıator it is roughened by the attachment of the tendons of the ocular muscles, ile its anterior part is covered by mucous membrane, the conjunctiva. Its deep face presents a brownish colour, and is loosely attached to the chorioid, except at optic entrance and in the neighbourhood of the sulcus scleræ. It is pierced behind the optic nerve, the entrance for which is funnel-shaped, wide behind and narrow front, and is situated 1 mm. below and 3 mm. to the nasal side of the posterior le of the eyeball. The fibrous sheath of the nerve blends with the outer part of sclera, while the nerve bundles pass through a series of orifices; this perforated rtion is named the **lamina cribrosa scleræ.** Around the entrance of the optic nerve some fifteen or twenty small apertures for the passage of the ciliary nerves and ort ciliary arteries. The two long posterior ciliary arteries pierce it, one on her side, some little distance from the optic entrance; while a little behind the uator are four openings, two above and two below, for the exit of veins, called **æ vorticosæ.** Near the sulcus scleræ it is perforated by the anterior ciliary eries. Its inner surface is lined by flattened endothelial cells; and between it d the chorioid is an extensive lymph space, the **spatium perichorioideale,** which traversed by the ciliary nerves and arteries just mentioned, and by an irregular shwork of fine, pigmented, connective tissue, the **lamina fusca**, which loosely aches the sclera to the chorioid. At the corneo-scleral junction the fibrous sue of the sclera passes continuously into that of the cornea, and in the deeper t of this junction there is a circular canal, the sinus venosus scleræ, or **canal of lemm,** which communicates externally with the scleral veins, and internally, ough numerous small openings, with the anterior chamber of the eyeball.

The sclera consists of bundles of white fibrous tissue, together with some fine stic fibres, the bundles forming equatorial and meridional layers, which inter- with each other. Numerous spaces containing connective tissue cells and gratory cells exist between the fibres. Pigmented cells are plentiful in the lina fusca, and a few are also found in the tissue of the sclera, near the optic rance and in the region of the corneo-scleral junction. The sclera receives blood-supply from the short posterior ciliary and anterior ciliary arteries, while veins open into the venæ vorticosæ and anterior ciliary veins. The cell spaces y the part of lymphatics, and communicate with the perichorioidal and supra-eral lymph spaces. Its nerves are derived from the ciliary nerves, which, after ng their medullary sheath, pass between the fibrous bundles; their exact mode nding is not accurately known.

CORNEA.

The **cornea** forms the anterior sixth of the outer tunic and is trans
order to admit light into the interior of the eyeball; its index of re
from 1·33 to 1·35. Its anterior surface (facies anterior) is covered by a
epithelium, continuous with that which lines the conjunctiva; its poster
(facies posterior) is directed towards the anterior chamber of the eyeball
contact with the aqueous humour. Its degree of curvature varies in
individuals; it is always greater in youth than in old age, and is, as a ru
greater in the vertical than in the horizontal plane. It diminishes als
centre to its periphery, and is less on the nasal than on the temporal s
anterior pole. The anterior surface of the cornea is almost, but not quit
measuring 11 mm.
and 11·9 mm. transver
its posterior surface
and has a diameter
Its periphery is over
the tissue of the scl
glass of a watch is
by the metal rim, with
this essential differenc
tissue of the cornea
continuous with th
sclera.

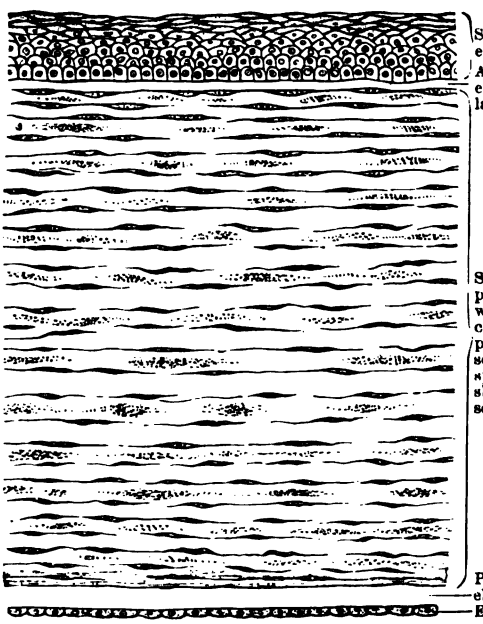

Stratified epithelium
Anterior elastic lamina
Substantia propria, in which the corneal corpuscles are seen to be spindle-shaped on section
Posterior elastic lamina
Endothelium

FIG. 559.—VERTICAL SECTION OF CORNEA (magnified).

The cornea cons
before backwards, of
ing strata, viz, (Fig.

1. A layer of stra
thelium.
2. An anterior elas
3. The substantia
4. A posterior elast
5. A layer of endot

1. The **layer of str
thelium** (epithelium
continuous with th
covers the free surface of the conjunctiva and consists of six or ei
of nucleated cells. Deepest of all is a single layer of perpendicularly
columnar cells, the flattened and often-expanded bases of which rest on th
elastic lamina, while their opposite ends are rounded and contain t
Superficial to this layer are three or four strata of nucleated, polygonal
majority of which exhibit finger-like processes which join with the corr
processes of neighbouring cells. The more superficial layers assume th
nucleated squames. The entire thickness of this stratified epithelium is a
at the centre and about 80 μ at the periphery of the cornea.

2. The **anterior elastic lamina** (lamina elastica anterior, Bowmani
19-20 μ thick, and may be regarded merely as a differentiation of the out
the substantia propria from which it is with difficulty separated. It is n
yellow by picrocarmine, thus differing from true elastic tissue, and its
development varies in different animals.

3. The **substantia propria** presents, in a fresh condition, a homogeneo
ance; but, with the assistance of reagents, it is seen to consist of moc
nective tissue, with some few elastic fibres. An amorphous interstitial
binds the fibres into bundles, and, in turn, cements the bundles into lame
are directly continuous with the fibrous tissue of the sclera. The fibr
one lamella cross those of adjacent lamellæ almost at right angles,
superimposed lamellæ are joined by sutural fibres and by amorphous
Between the lamellæ are found the **cell spaces** or **lacunæ** of the corne

larly stellate in shape, and communicating freely with each other by means of fine canaliculi. The corneal cells or corpuscles are contained in these lacunæ, without, however, completely filling them, the remainder of the cavities being occupied by lymph. These cells are nucleated, flattened, and star-like, and their branched processes join those of neighbouring cells in the canaliculi. Migratory or lymph cells are also found in cell spaces.

In old age a grayish opaque ring, 1½ to 2 mm. in breadth, is frequently seen near the periphery of the cornea; it is termed the **arcus senilis**, and results from a deposit of fat granules in the lamellæ and corneal corpuscles.

4. The **posterior elastic lamina** (lamina elastica posterior, Demoursi, Descemeti) is a clear, structureless membrane, covering the posterior aspect of the substantia propria and possessing a thickness of 6-8 μ at the centre and 10-12 μ at the periphery of the cornea. Less firmly attached than the anterior elastic lamina, it may be stripped off, when it will be found to roll up with its attached surface inwards. Between the ages of twenty and thirty small wart-like projections appear on its deep surface, near its periphery, and these increase in size and number as years advance, so that in old age the membrane may attain a thickness of 20 μ. Towards the periphery of the cornea the lamina divides into three sets of fibres—anterior, middle, and posterior. The anterior fibres pass behind the canal of Schlemm into the sclera, the middle give attachment to the ciliary muscle, while the posterior are continued as radiating and anastomosing fibres into the substance of the iris, and constitute the **ligamentum pectinatum iridis.** A number of irregular spaces, the **spaces of Fontana**, or spatia anguli iridis, exist between the fibres of this pectinate ligament. Better developed in the horse and ox than in man, these spaces are lined by a prolongation of the corneal endothelium, and communicate internally with the anterior chamber and the lymph spaces of the iris, and externally with the canal of Schlemm.

5. The **layer of endothelium** (endothelium cameræ anterioris) consists of a single stratum of nucleated, flattened, polygonal cells, which present a fibrillar structure and are continued as a lining to the spaces of Fontana; this layer of endothelium is also reflected on to the anterior surface of the iris.

Vascular and Nervous Supply of the Cornea.—In the fœtus the cornea is traversed, almost as far as its centre, by capillaries; but in the adult it is devoid of blood-vessels, except near its margin. The capillaries of the conjunctiva and sclera pass into this marginal area for a distance of about 1 mm., where they terminate in loops. All the remainder of the cornea is nourished by the lymph which circulates in its cell spaces and canaliculi.

The **nerves** of the cornea, discovered by Schlemm, are derived from the ciliary nerves. Around its periphery they form a plexus, the plexus annularis, from which fibres pass into the cornea, where, after a distance of 1 or 2 mm., they lose their medullary sheaths and ramify in the substantia propria, forming what is termed the fundamental or stroma plexus. Perforating fibres (fibræ perforantes) extend from this plexus through the anterior elastic lamina and form a subepithelial plexus, from which fine filaments ramify between the epithelial cells as far as the superficial layers. From the annular and stroma plexuses fibrils pass to the substantia propria and come into close relation with the corneal corpuscles.

VASCULAR AND PIGMENTED TUNIC.

The middle, vascular, and pigmented tunic (tunica vasculosa oculi) comprises, from behind forwards, the chorioid, the ciliary body, and the iris (Fig. 558).

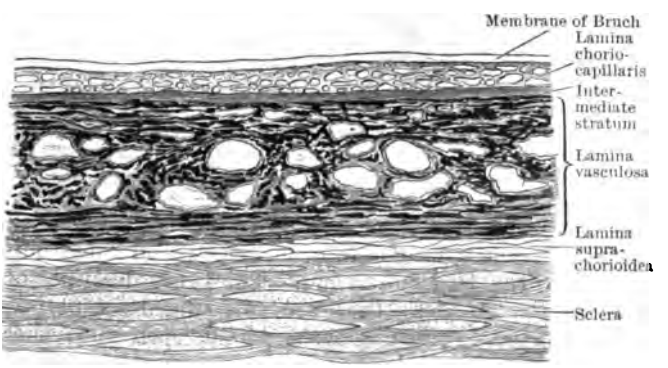


FIG. 560.—VERTICAL SECTION OF CHORIOID AND INNER PART OF SCLERA.

The **chorioid** (chorioidea) intervenes between the sclera and the retina, reaching as far forwards as the ora serrata of the latter (p. 731). Dark brown or black in colour, it is pierced posteriorly by the optic nerve, and is here firmly attached

to the sclera. Thicker behind than in front, its outer surface is flocculent and is connected to the sclera by the ciliary vessels and nerves, and by the loose lamina fusca. Its inner surface is smooth and adheres to the outermost or pigmented layer of the retina.

The chorioid consists of blood-vessels and branched pigment cells embedded in a loose connective tissue, and presents from without inwards three layers, viz.: (*a*) the lamina suprachorioidea; (*b*) the proper tissue of the chorioid; and (*c*) a thin transparent membrane, the lamina basalis or membrane of Bruch (Fig. 560).

1. The **lamina supra-chorioidea** resembles the lamina fusca of the sclera, and consists of a series of fine non-vascular lamellæ, each containing a delicate network of elastic fibres, amongst which are stellate, pigmented cells, together with amœboid cells. The spaces between the laminæ are lined with endothelium, and together form the spatium perichorioideale, already referred to (p. 725).

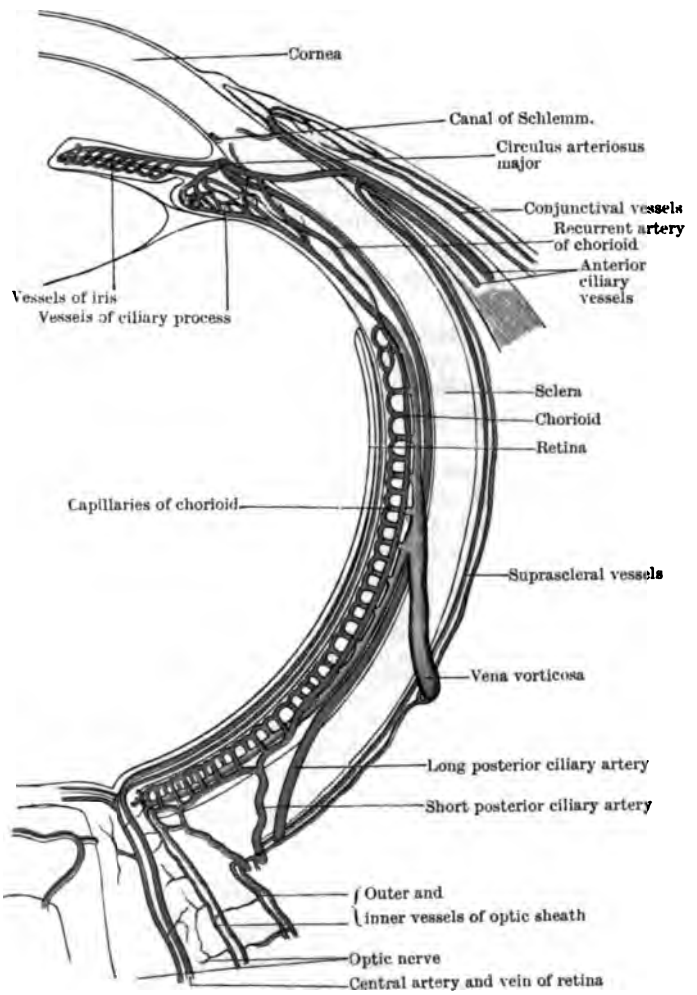


FIG. 561.—DIAGRAM OF THE CIRCULATION IN THE EYE (Leber).

The **proper tissue of the chorioid** consists of blood-vessels and numerous pigmented cells, supported by connective tissue and elastic fibres, together with some smooth muscular fibres. Its outer part contains the larger blood-vessels, and is named the **lamina vasculosa**, while its inner portion is composed of a network of fine capillaries, and is termed the **lamina choriocapillaris**; these two laminæ are joined by a thin **intermediate stratum**. The arteries of the chorioid are derived from the short posterior ciliary vessels, which pierce the sclera around the optic entrance and form a wide-meshed plexus in the lamina vasculosa. Their circular muscular coat is well developed, and longitudinal muscular fibres are also present in the larger branches. The veins, destitute of muscular tissue, are superficial to the arteries; they are surrounded by peri-vascular lymphatic sheaths and converge to form whorls, which open into the venæ vorticosæ. In the tissue between the blood-vessels are numerous stellate, flattened, and pigmented cells.

The **lamina chorio-capillaris**, or membrane of Ruysch, is composed essentially of small capillaries, which form an exceedingly close network, embedded in a finely granular or almost homogeneous tissue. The **intermediate stratum between the** *lamina vasculosa* and lamina chorio-capillaris consists of a network of delicate

astic fibres and contains almost no pigment cells; it is lined next the lamina horio-capillaris by a continuous layer of endothelium.

The **lamina basalis**, or membrane of Bruch, is transparent and nearly structureless. Its outer surface presents a trellis-like network of fibres which unite it to the membrane of Ruysch, while its inner surface is smooth and is in contact with the pigmented layer of the retina.

Tapetum.—In many animals a brilliant iridescent appearance is seen on the postero-external part of the chorioid to which the name **tapetum** is applied. Absent in man, it may be due, as the horse, to a markedly fibrous condition of the stratum intermedium (tapetum fibrosum), or in the seal, to the presence of some five or six layers of flattened iridescent cells lying immediately outside the lamina chorio-capillaris (tapetum cellulosum).

The **ciliary body** (corpus ciliare) connects the chorioid to the circumference of the iris (Fig. 562), and presents the following three zones, viz.: (*a*) the orbiculus ciliaris, (*b*) the ciliary processes, and (*c*) the ciliary muscle.

The **orbiculus ciliaris** forms a zone of about 4 mm. in width immediately adjoining the chorioid, and exhibits numerous radially-arranged ridges.

The **ciliary processes** (processus ciliares), about seventy in number, form a circle of radial thickenings, each of a somewhat triangular shape. The base of the triangle is directed forwards towards the equator of the lens, while the apex is continuous behind with some three or four ridges of the orbiculus ciliaris. They vary in size, the largest having a length of 3·5 mm. The structure of the orbiculus ciliaris and ciliary processes is similar to that of the chorioid, but the capillaries are larger and more tortuous, and there is no lamina horio-capillaris. The deep aspect of the ciliary processes is covered by two strata of columnar epithelium, the anterior layer of which is pigmented; these two strata form a direct continuation forwards of the retina and constitute the **pars ciliaris retinæ**. This epithelium is invaginated to form more or less tubular glands, which may take a share in the secretion of the aqueous humour.

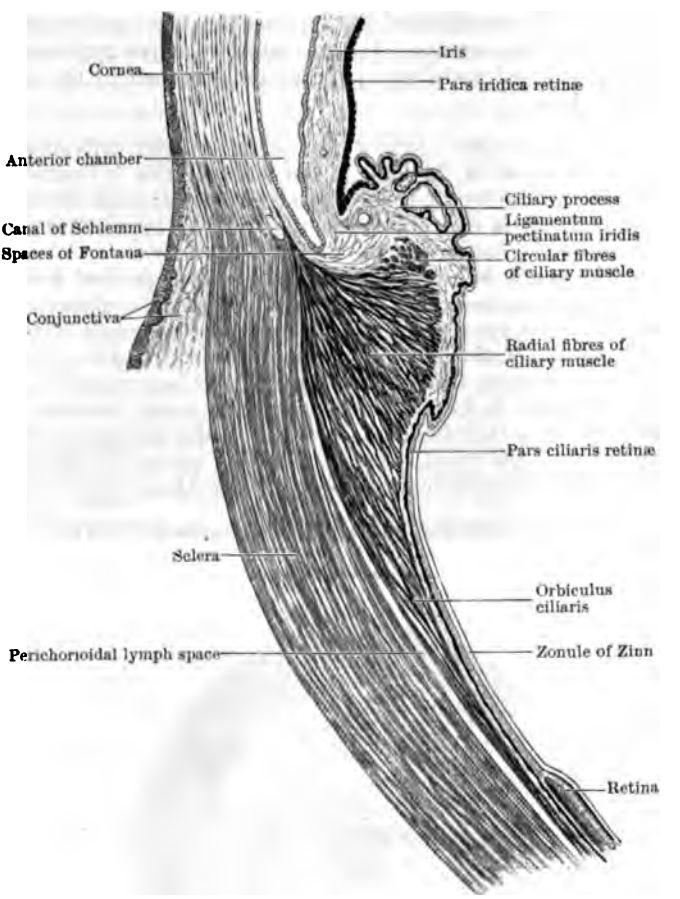


FIG. 562.—SECTION THROUGH CILIARY REGION OF EYEBALL.

The **ciliary muscle** (m. ciliaris) is triangular on antero-posterior section, and consists of two sets of fibres—radial and circular (Fig. 562). The **radial fibres** (fibræ meridionales, Brückei) spring from the corneo-scleral junction behind the canal of Schlemm and from the ligamentum pectinatum iridis, and radiate backwards, to be attached to the ciliary processes and orbiculus ciliaris. When they contract the chorioid is drawn forwards and the lens becomes more convex, owing to the relaxation of its suspensory ligament (see p. 736). The **circular fibres** (fibræ

circulares, Mülleri) form a triangular zone behind the ligamentum pectinatum iridis, close to the periphery of the iris, and also extend backwards under the radial fibres. Considerable individual differences are found as to the degree of development of these two portions of the ciliary muscle. The radial fibres are always more numerous than the circular fibres, the latter being absent or rudimentary in myopic eyes, but well developed, as a rule, in hypermetropic eyes.

The **iris** forms a contractile diaphragm in front of the lens, and is pierced a little to the nasal side of its centre by an almost circular aperture, the **pupil** (pupilla), which, during life, is continually varying in size in order to regulate the amount of light admitted into the interior of the globe. It divides the space between the cornea and lens into two parts, which are filled by the aqueous humour, and named respectively the **anterior and posterior chambers** of the eyeball. Its peripheral border, or **margo ciliaris**, is directly continuous with the ciliary body, and, through the medium of the ligamentum pectinatum iridis, with the posterior elastic lamina of the cornea. Its free edge, or **margo pupillaris**, forms the circumference of the pupil, and rests upon, but is not attached to the anterior surface of the capsule of the lens.

The distinctive colour of the eye, in different individuals, depends on the arrangement of the pigment in the iris; in the blue eye this is limited to the posterior surface of the iris, but in the brown or black eye it is also scattered throughout its stroma. In the albino the pigment is entirely absent, and the red appearance of the eye in such a case is produced by the network of blood-vessels in the iris.

The pupil is closed, during the greater part of fœtal life, by a thin transparent vascular membrane, the **membrana pupillaris**, continuous with the pupillary margin of the iris. Its vessels, derived partly from the vessels of the iris and partly from those of the capsule of the lens, converge towards the middle of the membrane, near which they form loops so as to leave the central part non-vascular. About the seventh month the vessels begin to be obliterated from the centre towards the circumference, and this is followed by a thinning and absorption of the membrane, which becomes perforated by the aperture of the pupil. This perforation gradually enlarges, and at birth the membrane has entirely disappeared, although in exceptional cases it persists.

On the anterior surface (facies anterior) of the iris is a layer of flattened endothelium, placed on a basement membrane, and continuous with that which lines the spaces of Fontana and covers the back of the cornea. Depressions or crypts are here and there seen in which the endothelium and basement membrane are absent, and are, by some, regarded as stomata, through which the lymphatics of the iris communicate with the cavity of the anterior chamber. Its posterior surface (facies posterior) is covered by a basement membrane, on which are placed two layers of columnar, pigmented epithelium, continuous with the pars ciliaris retinæ and termed the **pars iridica retinæ**. The proper tissue of the iris, or **stroma iridis**, consists of delicate connective tissue and elastic fibres, with pigmented cells, blood-vessels, nerves, and non-striped muscle.

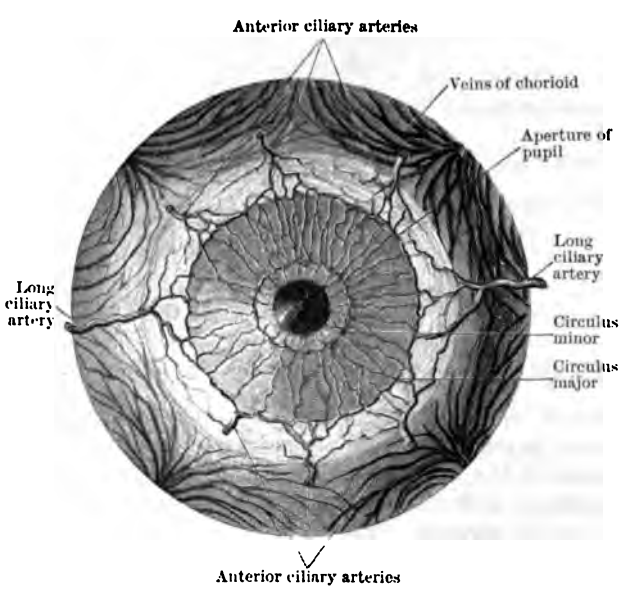


FIG. 563.—BLOOD-VESSELS OF IRIS AND ANTERIOR PART OF CHORIOID, viewed from the front (Arnold).

The ***blood-vessels of the iris*** (Fig. 563) are derived from the long and anterior

ciliary arteries. The long ciliary arteries, two in number, pierce the sclera on the inner and outer side of the optic nerve respectively, and extend forwards between the sclera and chorioid towards the ciliary margin of the iris. Here each divides into an upper and a lower branch, and the resulting four branches anastomose in the form of a circle, termed the **circulus arteriosus major**. This circle is joined by a varying number of anterior ciliary arteries derived from the lachrymal and muscular branches of the ophthalmic artery, and, after supplying the ciliary muscle, sends converging branches inwards towards the aperture of the pupil, around which a second circle, the **circulus arteriosus minor**, is formed. The **veins** proceed towards its ciliary margin, and communicate with the veins of the ciliary processes and with the canal of Schlemm. The convergence of the blood-vessels towards the aperture of the pupil gives to the anterior surface of the iris a striated appearance.

The **non-striped muscular fibres** are arranged in two sets: (*a*) circular, (*b*) radial. The **circular fibres** form a band around the pupillary aperture, by the contraction of which its size is lessened, and hence it is termed the **m. sphincter pupillæ**. The **radial fibres** extend outwards from the sphincter to the ciliary margin and constitute the **m. dilatator pupillæ**. Many anatomists regard the radial fibres, in man and most mammals, as being elastic and not muscular. In animals, where the radial fibres are muscular, the degree of their development varies considerably; they are feebly marked in the rabbit, but well developed in the bird, and still more so in the otter.

The **nerves of the chorioid and iris** are derived from the long and short ciliary nerves. The former, two or three in number, are branches of the nasal nerve; the latter, varying from eight to fourteen, are derived from the ciliary ganglion. Piercing the sclera around the optic entrance the nerves traverse the perichorioidal lymph space, where they form a plexus, rich in nerve-cells, from which filaments are supplied to the blood-vessels of the chorioid. In front of the ciliary muscle a second plexus, also rich in nerve-cells, is formed, which supplies the muscle itself, and sends filaments into the iris as far as its pupillary margin, for the supply of its muscular fibres and blood-vessels. The sphincter pupillæ is supplied by the third cranial nerve, whilst filaments from the sympathetic are distributed to the dilatator pupillæ.

THE RETINA.

The **retina**, or nervous tunic of the eyeball, is a soft, delicate membrane, in which he fibres of the optic nerve are spread out. It consists of two **strata**, viz.: (*a*) an uter, pigmented layer (stratum pigmenti), attached to the **chorioid**; and (*b*) an nner nervous lamina, the retina proper, in contact with the hyaloid membrane of he vitreous body, but only attached to it at the optic entrance and in the region f the ciliary processes. Expanding from the entrance of the optic nerve the etina appears to end, a short distance behind the ciliary body, in a wavy border, he **ora serrata**. Here its nervous elements cease and the membrane becomes uddenly thinned, but a delicate continuation of it is prolonged over the posterior spect of the ciliary body and iris. This continuation consists of the stratum pigienti, together with a layer of columnar epithelium, and constitutes the **pars ciliaris etinæ** and **pars iridica retinæ** already referred to (pp. 729 and 730). The portion ehind the ora serrata is termed the "physiological retina," or **pars optica retinæ**, nd its thickness gradually diminishes from 0·4 mm., near the optic entrance, to ·1 mm. at the ora serrata. Viewed from the front it presents, at the posterior ole of the eyeball, and therefore directly in the axis of the globe, a small yellowish pot, the **macula lutea**. Somewhat oval in shape, the greatest or transverse iameter of the macula measures from 2-3 mm.; its central part is depressed and amed the **fovea centralis**. About 3 mm. to the nasal side of the posterior pole nd about 1 mm. below its level is a whitish, circular disc, the **optic disc**, or porus pticus, which corresponds with the entrance of the optic nerve and has a diameter f about 1·5 mm. The circumference of the optic disc is slightly raised and is amed the **colliculus nervi optici**, while its depressed central portion is termed the **ptic cup**, or excavatio papillæ nervi optici. The optic disc consists merely of nerve-

fibres, the other layers of the retina being absent, and constitutes the "blind spot" of physiologists.

The nervous layer of the retina is transparent during life, but becomes opaque and of a grayish colour soon after death. If an animal be kept in the dark before the removal of its eyeball, the retina presents a purple tinge, due to the presence of a colouring matter named **rhodopsin** or **visual purple**, which, however, becomes rapidly bleached on exposure to sunlight. This colouring matter is absent from the macula lutea, and also over a narrow zone, 3-4 mm. in width, near the ora serrata.

Structure of the Retina (Figs. 564, 565, 566).—The nervous elements of the retina are supported by non-nervous or **sustentacular fibres**, and are arranged in seven layers, to which must be added the stratum pigmenti.

Our conception of the minute structure of the retina, as of all nervous tissues, has of late years been greatly advanced by the discoveries of Ramon y Cajal, on whose observations the following description is based (Fig. 565):—

The layers from within outwards, *i.e.* from vitreous body to chorioid, are:

1. Layer of nerve-fibres (stratum opticum).
2. Layer of nerve-cells (ganglionic layer).
3. Inner molecular or inner plexiform layer.
4. Inner nuclear layer or layer of inner granules.
5. Outer molecular or outer plexiform layer.
6. Outer nuclear layer or layer of outer granules.
7. Layer of rods and cones (bacillary layer).
8. Layer of pigmented epithelium (stratum pigmenti).

1. **Layer of nerve-fibres or stratum opticum.**—The fibres of this stratum are nearly all centripetal, and are mostly continuations of the non-medullated axons of the cells in the ganglionic layer. Some, however, are centrifugal and end in branched clubbed extremities in the inner molecular or inner nuclear layers.

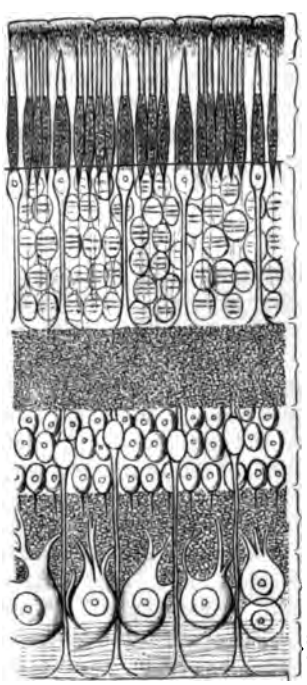


FIG. 564.—DIAGRAMMATIC SECTION OF THE HUMAN RETINA (modified from Schultze).

2. **Ganglionic or nerve-cell layer.**—The cells of this stratum vary in size, are oval or pyriform in shape, and form a single layer, except at the macula lutea, where several strata are present. Each cell contains a large nucleus, and gives off, from its inner aspect, an axon which is continued as a fibre of the nerve-fibre layer. From the outer surface of each cell numerous dendrites arise, which form arborisations in the inner molecular layer. The cells may be divided into unistratified, multistratified, and diffuse, according as their dendrites ramify in one or in several strata of the inner molecular layer, or extend throughout nearly its whole thickness.

3. **Inner molecular or inner plexiform layer.**—This is chiefly constituted by the interlacement of the dendritic arborisations of the cells of the ganglionic layer with those of the inner nuclear layer, and has been divided by Ramon y Cajal into five strata. It sometimes contains horizontal cells or spongioblasts, whose branched processes ramify in it.

4. **Inner nuclear layer or layer of inner granules.**—This is the most complicated of the retinal strata, and consists of numerous cells which may be divided into three groups, viz.: (*a*) bipolar cells, (*b*) horizontal cells, and (*c*) spongioblasts, or amacrine cells.

(*a*) The **bipolar cells**, by far the most numerous are fusiform and nucleated, and each gives off an external and an internal process. The internal processes terminate in flattened tufts at different levels in the inner molecular layer, while the external produce an abundant ramification in the external zone of the outer molecular layer. These bipolar cells are divided into rod bipolars, cone bipolars, and giant bipolars. The **rod bipolars** end peripherally in vertical arborisations around the *button-like ends* or spherules of the rod fibres, and, centrally, in branched extremities

which mostly become applied to the cells of the ganglionic layer. The **cone bipolars** end peripherally in flattened arborisations in the outer molecular layer in contact with

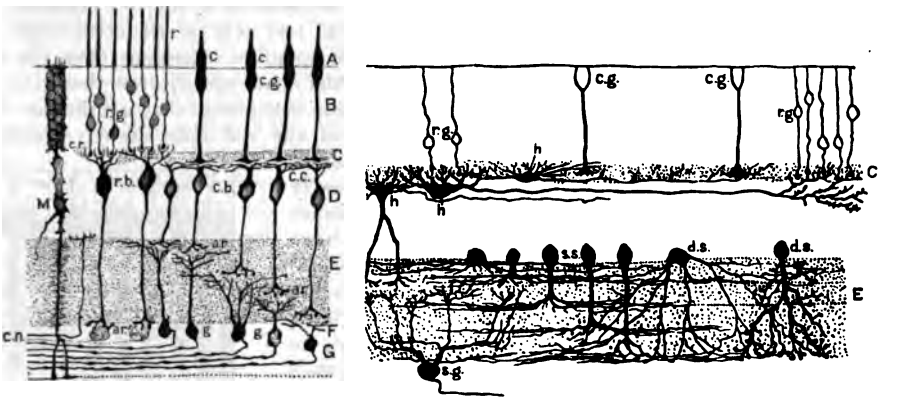


FIG. 565.—PERPENDICULAR SECTIONS OF MAMMALIAN RETINA (Cajal).

A, Layer of rods and cones; B, Outer nuclear layer; C, Outer molecular layer; D, Inner nuclear layer; E, Inner molecular layer; F, Ganglionic layer; G, Stratum opticum; *r*, rods; *c*, cones, *r.g*, rod granules; *c.g*, cone granules; *r.b*, rod bipolars; *c.b*, cone bipolars; *c.r*, contact of rod bipolars with the spherules of the rod fibres; *c.c*, contact of cone bipolars with the branches of the cone fibres; *ar*, internal arborisation of cone bipolars; *ar'*, internal arborisation of rod bipolars; *c.n*, centrifugal nerve fibre; *h*, horizontal cells; *s.s*, stratified spongioblasts; *d.s*, diffuse spongioblasts; *s.g*, stratified ganglion cell; M, Sustentacular fibre of Müller.

the ramifications of the foot-plates of the cone fibres, and, centrally, ramify in some one of the five strata of the inner molecular layer. The **giant bipolars** form, peripherally, an extensive horizontally arranged arborisation in the outer molecular layer; centrally, they ramify in one or other of the strata of the inner molecular layer.

(*b*) The **horizontal cells** are of two varieties: (1) small, flattened, star-like cells, lying immediately below the outer molecular layer, and sending a tuft of dendrites outwards towards the bases of the cone fibres, while their axons are directed horizontally for a variable distance; (2) large, irregular cells, lying internal to the above and ending in finger-like ramifications in the outer molecular layer. Their axons run horizontally for some distance, and end in extensive varicose arborisations under the spherules of the rod fibres.

(*c*) The **spongioblasts** are situated in the innermost part of the inner granular layer and have not yet been shown to possess axons. Their dendrites ramify in the inner molecular layer, it may be in one stratum (stratified spongioblasts) or in several strata (diffuse spongioblasts).

5. **Outer molecular or outer plexiform layer.**—This is constituted by the interlacement of the dendrites of the bipolar and horizontal cells, just described, with the spherules of the rod fibres and the ramifications of the foot-plates of the cone fibres. It is divided into two strata: (*a*) *external*, indicating the contact of the rod bipolars with the spherules of the rod fibres; (*b*) *internal*, the line of contact between the cone bipolars and the branches of the cone fibres.

6. **Outer nuclear layer or layer of outer granules.**—This is made up of clear granules somewhat resembling those of the inner nuclear layer, and are divisible into two kinds: (*a*) cone granules, (*b*) rod granules. The **cone granules** are the larger, and each contains an oval nucleus; they lie immediately inside the outer limiting membrane, through which they are continuous with the cones of the next layer. Each is prolonged internally as a straight fibre, which, on reaching the outer molecular layer, expands to form a foot-plate, from which several horizontal fibrils are given off. The **rod granules** are far more numerous than the cone granules, and each contains a small oval nucleus, which is transversely striated.

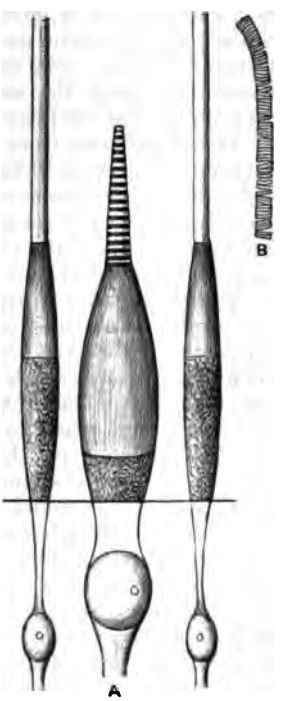


FIG. 566.

A, A cone and two rods from the human retina (modified from Max Schultze); B, Outer part of rod separated into discs.

Their outer processes are continuous, through the outer limiting membrane, with the rods of the next layer, while their inner processes pass into the outer molecular layer and end in free, unbranched spherules amongst the arborisations of the rod bipolars.

7. **Layer of rods and cones.**—This consists of two sets of structures, viz. rods and cones. Except at the macula lutea the rods are far more numerous than the cones and assume the form of elongated cylinders, while the cones are shorter than the rods and taper externally to fine points. Each rod and cone consists of two segments—inner and outer. The inner segment of the rod only slightly exceeds in diameter its outer segment, whereas the inner segment of the cone greatly exceeds its outer part. The inner segments of both rods and cones have an affinity for staining reagents, and consist of a basal homogeneous portion and an outer longitudinally striated part, the proportion of the latter to the former being greater in the cones than in the rods. The outer segments have not the same affinity for reagents, but tend to break transversely into numerous discs (Fig. 566, B). The colouring matter, rhodopsin, already referred to, is found only in the outer segments of the rods, the terminal parts of which extend into the layer of pigmented epithelium.

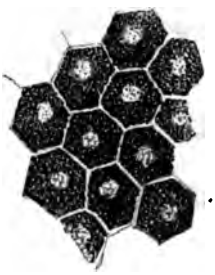


FIG. 567.—PIGMENTED EPITHELIUM OF HUMAN RETINA (viewed from the surface).

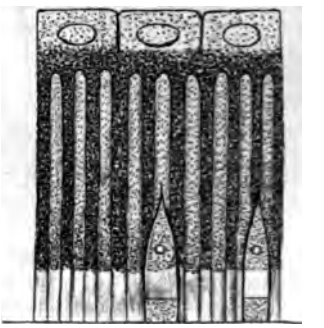


FIG. 568.—SECTION THROUGH OUTER LAYERS OF RETINA (semi-diagrammatic).

8. **Layer of pigmented epithelium** (stratum pigmenti).—This consists of a single stratum of cells which, on surface view, are hexagonal (Fig. 567), their outer flattened surfaces being firmly attached to the chorioid. When seen in profile the outer part of each cell contains a large oval nucleus and is devoid of pigment, while the inner portion is filled with pigment and extends as a series of thread-like processes amongst the outer segments of the rods and cones. When the eye is kept in the dark the pigment accumulates near the outer part of the cell, but when exposed to light it streams in between the rods and cones (Fig. 568).

It will be seen from the foregoing description that there is no direct continuity between the nervous elements which form the different layers of the retina. In the inner molecular layer there is merely an interlacement between the dendrites of the ganglionic layer and the arborisations of the cells of the inner granular layer, and a similar interlacement in the outer molecular layer between the rod and cone elements and the processes of the outer granules.

Sustentacular fibres of the retina (fibræ Mülleri).—These support the nervous structures and extend from within outwards through the thickness of the retina as far as the bases of the rods and cones (Fig. 565, M). They begin at the inner surface of the nerve-fibre layer in single or forked expanded bases, by the apposition of which a delicate membrane, the **membrana limitans interna**, is formed. In the ganglionic layer they give off a few lateral branches, and, on passing through the inner nuclear layer, supply lateral ramifications amongst the inner granules for their support; in this part of each fibre there is seen an oval nucleus. In the outer nuclear layer they break up into a network of fibrils which surround the rod and cone fibres, and end externally at the bases of the rods and cones in a delicate membrane, the **membrana limitans externa.**

Structure of the macula lutea and fovea centralis.—The yellow colour of the macula is due to the presence of pigment in the inner layers of the retina. At the circumference of the macula the nerve-fibre layer is greatly thinned and the rods are few in number; the ganglionic layer, on the other hand, is thickened and may contain from seven to nine strata of cells, while the outer granular layer is also thicker and its bipolar cells have an oblique direction. At the fovea centralis the retina is much thinned, since here its nerve-fibre and ganglionic layers are absent and its other strata greatly attenuated. The stratum pigmenti, on the other hand, is thicker and its pigmentation more pronounced. The cone nuclei are situated some distance internal to the outer limiting membrane, and thus the thin inner and outer granular layers are in apposition. There are no rods, and the cones, closely crowded together, are narrower and their outer segments more elongated than elsewhere, so that the line of their bases, indicated by the membrana limitans externa, presents a convexity directed forwards. The fovea centralis and macula lutea are spoken of by the physiologist as the "region of distinct vision."

Structure of the ora serrata.—Here the nervous layers of the retina suddenly cease; the layer of rods and cones first failing, to be immediately followed by the disappearance of the other nervous strata. In front of the ora serrata the retina is prolonged over the ciliary processes in the form of two layers of cells: (*a*) an inner layer of columnar epithelium, and (*b*) an outer, consisting of the stratum pigmenti, the two forming the pars ciliaris retinæ. The same two layers are prolonged over the back of the iris, where both are pigmented and form the pars iridica retinæ.

Vessels of the retina (Fig. 569).—The retina is supplied by the **arteria centralis retinæ**, a branch of the ophthalmic artery, which pierces the sheath of the optic nerve about three-quarters of an inch behind the eyeball, and makes its appearance in the centre of the optic disc. Here it divides into an upper and a lower branch, and each of these again bifurcates into an internal or nasal, and an external or temporal, branch. The resulting four branches ramify towards the periphery of the retina, and are named the superior and inferior temporal and the superior and inferior nasal arteries. The temporal arteries pass outwards above and below the macula lutea, to which they give small branches;

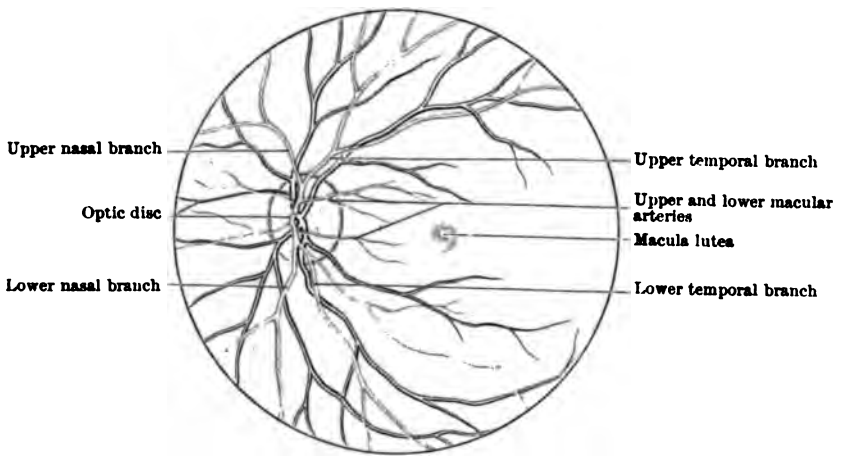


FIG. 569.—BLOOD-VESSELS OF THE RETINA.

these do not, however, extend as far as the fovea centralis, which is devoid of blood-vessels. The macula also receives two small arteries (superior and inferior macular) directly from the porus opticus. The larger vessels run in the nerve-fibre layer near the membrana limitans interna and form two capillary networks—an inner, in the nerve-fibre layer, and an outer, in the inner nuclear layer. The inner network arises directly from the arteries and sends numerous small branches to the outer network, from which the veins take origin. The vessels do not penetrate deeper than the inner granular layer, nor do the arteries anastomose except through the capillary plexuses. The **veins** follow the course of the arteries; they have no muscular coats, but consist merely of a layer of endothelial cells, outside which is a perivascular lymphatic sheath, surrounded by delicate retiform tissue.

REFRACTING MEDIA OF THE EYEBALL.

The **vitreous body** (corpus vitreum) is a transparent, jelly-like substance situated between the crystalline lens and the retina, and occupying the posterior four-fifths of the globe (Fig. 558). In front it presents a deep concavity, the **fossa patellaris**, for the reception of the posterior convexity of the lens. It is enclosed within a thin transparent membrane, the **membrana hyaloidea**, which is in contact with the membrana limitans interna of the retina and adherent to it at the optic entrance. The portion of the membrana hyaloidea in front of the ora serrata is thickened and strengthened by radial fibres, and is termed the **zonule of Zinn**, or zonula ciliaris. Situated behind the ciliary body the zonula is radially folded and presents a series of alternating furrows and elevations. The ciliary processes are received into, and are firmly adherent to, the furrows, with the result that, if removed, some of their pigment remains attached to the zonula. The elevations of the zonula are not attached to the interciliary depressions, but are separated by a series of lymph spaces (recessus cameræ posterioris); these may be regarded as diverticula of the

posterior chamber with which they communicate. As the zonula approaches the equator of the lens it splits into two chief layers, viz.: (*a*) a thin posterior lamina, which covers that portion of the membrana hyaloidea which lines the fossa patellaris; and (*b*) a thicker anterior layer, termed the **suspensory ligament** of the lens (Fig. 558), which blends with the front of the lens capsule a short distance from its equator. Scattered fibres of this ligament are also attached to the equator itself and to the regions immediately anterior and posterior to it. By this suspensory ligament the lens is retained in position, and its convexity varies inversely with the degree of tension of the ligament. The radial fibres of the ciliary muscle, by pulling forward the ciliary processes and the attached zonule of Zinn, relax the ligament, and thus allow the lens to become more convex. Behind the suspensory ligament a sacculated lymph space surrounds the equator of the lens; it is named the **canal of Petit**, and may easily be inflated on introducing a fine blow-pipe through the suspensory ligament (Fig. 570). In the fœtus a blood-vessel, termed the **arteria hyaloidea**, is continued from the arteria centralis retinæ forwards through the vitreous body for the supply of the capsule of the lens. Its position, in the adult, is represented by a lymph channel, termed the **canalis hyaloideus** of Stilling (Fig. 558), the presence of which may be demonstrated by shaking up the vitreous body in a solution of picrocarmine, when some of the pigment may be seen to extend along the canal (Anderson Stuart).

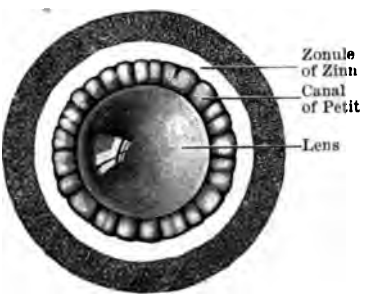


FIG. 570.—CANAL OF PETIT DISTENDED AND VIEWED FROM THE FRONT (enlarged).

When the vitreous body is treated by a weak solution of chromic acid it presents a series of concentric, peripherally arranged striæ, together with numerous radial striæ converging towards its centre. Between these the more fluid part lies, and it frequently contains vacuolated amœboid cells scattered through it. The vitreous body consists of 98·4 per cent of water, having in solution about 1·4 per cent of sodium chloride and traces of extractives and albumen.

The **crystalline lens** (lens crystallina) lies in front of the vitreous body and behind the iris, and is a biconvex, transparent body (Fig. 558). It is enclosed in a thin, transparent, homogeneous capsule, the capsule of the lens (**capsula lentis**). The central points of its anterior and posterior surfaces are termed respectively its **anterior and posterior poles**, a line joining which is known as its **axis** (**axis lentis**); its peripheral circumference is named the **equator** (æquator lentis). Its axial measurement is 4 mm., and its transverse diameter from 9-10 mm. Its anterior surface (facies anterior lentis) is less curved than the posterior, and its central part corresponds with the aperture of the pupil and is directed towards the anterior chamber. Around the aperture of the pupil the pupillary margin of the iris rests upon the lens, but its peripheral part is separated from it by the aqueous humour of the posterior chamber. Its posterior surface (facies posterior lentis), more convex than the anterior, occupies the fossa patellaris of the vitreous body. The relations of its equator to the suspensory ligament and the canal of Petit have already been referred to. The superficial part of the lens possesses a refractive index of about 1·4, and its central part or nucleus one of about 1·45. The curvatures of its surfaces, especially that of the anterior, are constantly varying during life for the purpose of focusing rays from near or distant objects on the retina.

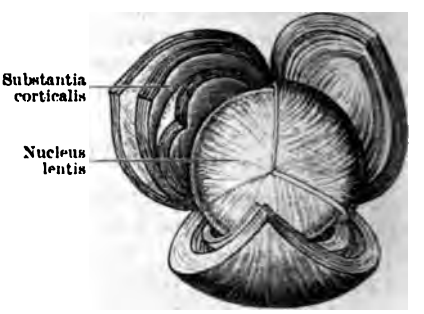


FIG. 571.—LENS HARDENED IN FORMALIN AND DISSECTED TO SHOW ITS CONCENTRIC LAMINÆ (enlarged).

The lens substance (substantia lentis) consists of a soft outer part, the **substantia corticalis**, easily crushed between the finger and thumb, and of a dense central part,

cleus lentis. Faint lines (radii lentis) radiate from its anterior and posterior owards its equator. In the fœtus they are three in number, and form with ther angles of 120° (Fig. 572). From the anterior pole one ray ascends lly and the other two diverge downwards, while from the posterior pole one escends vertically and the two diverge upwards. In ult the rays may be increased or more. They represent e edges of a corresponding r of septa which dip into bstance of the lens, and which the extremities of the nt groups of lens fibres come ontact, and are attached lear, amorphous substance. ns, when hardened, exhibits s of concentrically arranged e (Fig. 571), superimposed like the coats of an onion and attached to each by a clear, amorphous substance. Each lamina is split along the radiating and consists of a series of hexagonal, riband-like fibres, the fibræ lentis, are adherent to each other by their margins; those of the deeper laminæ are smaller and serrated, but non-nucleated; while those of the superficial coats are larger and nucleated, but non-serrated. The fibres extend in a curved manner from the rays on the anterior surface to the rays on the posterior surface, but no fibre extends from pole to pole. Fibres which start at or near one pole end at or near the equator on the opposite surface, and *vice versa*, while the intervening fibres take up intermediate positions. Between the substantia lentis and the anterior part of the capsule there is a layer of nucleated columnar epithelial cells, the epithelium lentis. On being traced towards the equator its cells become gradually elongated and transformed into lens fibres, which, when fully formed, lose all trace of their nuclei, except in the more superficial laminæ. Each lens fibre represents, therefore, a greatly elongated columnar cell (Fig. 573).

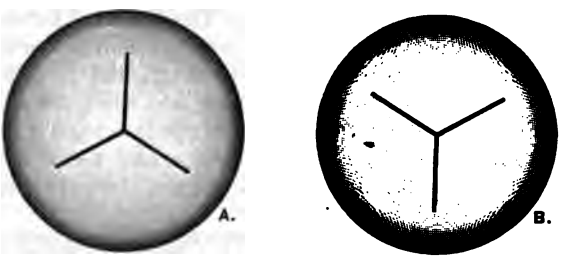


FIG. 572.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE RADII LENTIS OF THE FŒTAL LENS.

A, Seen from the front; B, From behind.

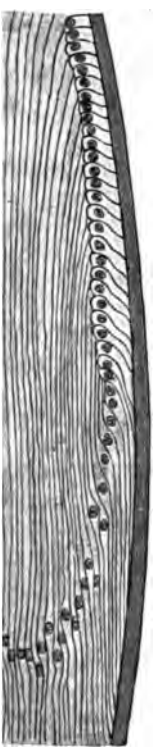


FIG. 573.

THROUGH THE TOR OF THE LENS.

the gradual tran- of the epithelium lens fibres (after chin).

In the fœtus the lens is soft, of a pinkish colour, and nearly spherical; while in old age it becomes more flattened than in the adult, and, losing its transparency, assumes a yellowish tint.

Chambers of the Eye and Aqueous Humour (Fig. 558).—As already stated (p. 730), the space between the cornea and the lens is divided by the iris into two unequal parts, viz. the anterior chamber in front and the posterior chamber behind. These are filled by the **aqueous humour**, and, in the adult, communicate freely through the aperture of the pupil, but in the fœtus are separated from each other by the pupillary membrane. The **anterior chamber** (camera oculi anterior) is bounded in front by the cornea, behind by the iris and lens, whilst peripherally it communicates with the spaces of Fontana. The **posterior chamber** (camera oculi posterior) is triangular on section, and is bounded in front by the iris, behind by the circumferential part of the lens and its suspensory ligament; the base of the triangle, situated externally, corresponds with the thick, anterior extremities of the ciliary processes. It communicates with the recessus cameræ posterior and canal bit. The aqueous humour has a refractive index of about 1·336, and consists ut 98 per cent of water, with 1·4 per cent of sodium chloride and traces of ien.

EYELIDS.

The **eyelids or palpebræ** are two movable cutaneous curtains situated i of the eyeball, and named, from their position, upper and lower. The upper larger and more movable, being provided with a special elevator muscle, levator palpebræ superioris. The interval between the lids is termed the **pa fissure** (rima palpebrarum), and measures transversely about 30 mm., but considerably in different individuals and in different races. When the eye the fissure is elliptical in shape, but when closed it assumes the form of a tra slit, which lies on a level with the lower margin of the cornea. The two lid at the extremities of the fissure, and form the **outer** and **inner angles**, or Their free margins are flattened and are surmounted by eyelashes from the e

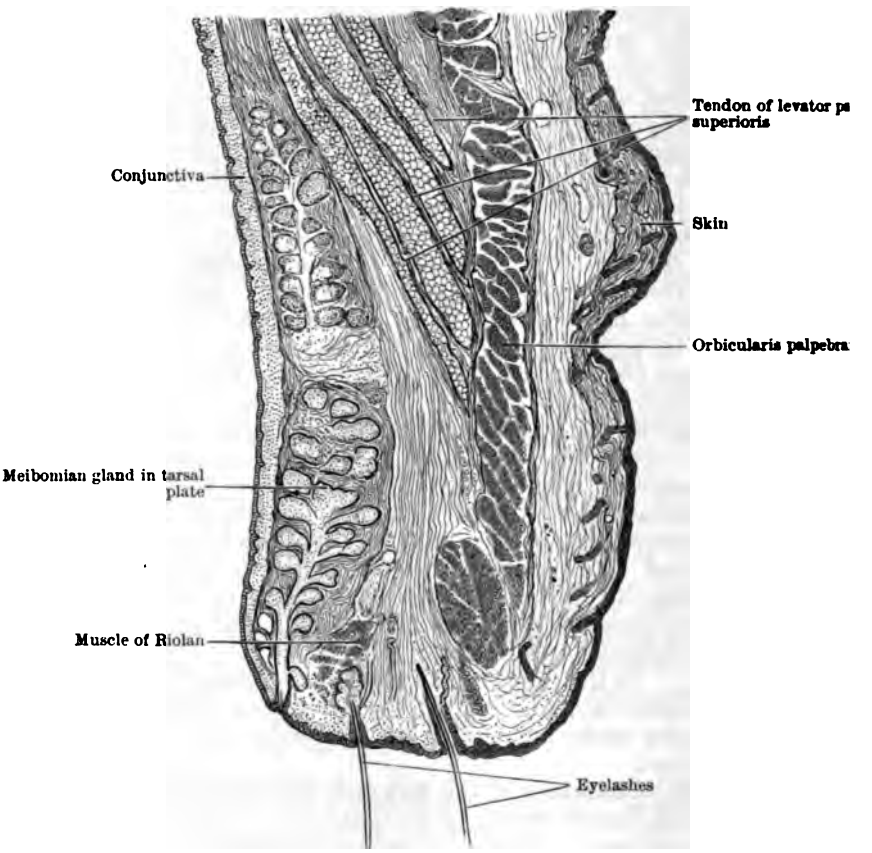


FIG. 574.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH UPPER EYELID.

canthus to a point about 5 mm. from the inner canthus—a point indicate small papilla, the **papilla lacrimalis**. Internal to this papilla the margi rounded and destitute of eyelashes, and form the upper and lower bou of a triangular space, termed the **lacus lacrimalis**, which is occupied by a pale-red body, the **caruncula lacrimalis**. This caruncula consists of a island of modified skin, and contains sweat glands, sebaceous glands, and fine Posteriorly the lids are lined by a mucous membrane, the conjunctiva, and contact with the eyeball, except near the inner canthus, where, between the and the caruncula lacrimalis, there intervenes a vertical fold of conjunctiva, th **semilunaris conjunctivæ**. This, which in many animals contains a plate of ca is the representative of the membrana nictitans, or third eyelid of birds, etc.

In each lid there exists a framework of condensed fibrous tissue, which consistence and shape to the lid, and is termed the **tarsal plate or tarsus.** I *of the tarsus* are the fibres of the orbicularis palpebrarum muscle ar

ıtegument, while embedded in its posterior surface, and covered by the conjunctiva, re numerous modified sebaceous glands named the **tarsal or Meibomian glands.** The superior tarsal plate (tarsus superior) is larger than the inferior and of a half ıval shape, with its greatest vertical diameter measuring about 10 or 11 mm. Its ıpper margin is thin and convex, and is continuous with the tendon of the levator palpebræ superioris muscle, while its lower edge is thick and straight. The inferior ıarsal plate (tarsus inferior) is a thin, narrow strip, with a nearly uniform vertical liameter of about 5 mm. The extremities of the two plates are continuous with the **external and internal tarsal ligaments.** The external tarsal ligament is a narrow band attached to the malar bone; it divides, at the outer canthus, into upper and lower pieces which are fixed to the margins of the respective tarsal plates. The internal tarsal ligament is a strong band attached to the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone directly in front of the lachrymal groove; it divides at the inner canthus into two slips, one for either tarsal plate.

The eyelids are further strengthened by membranous expansions, termed the **superior** and **inferior palpebral ligaments,** which extend into them from the margin of the orbit. The superior ligament is continuous, along the upper margin of the orbit, with the pericranium and with the periosteal lining of the orbit, and blends below with the tendon of the levator palpebræ superioris. The inferior ligament is prolonged from the under edge of the inferior tarsal plate to the lower margin of the orbit, where it is continuous with the periosteum of the face and orbital floor. Externally the two palpebral ligaments fuse to form the external tarsal ligament, while internally they become thinned, and, separating from the internal tarsal ligament, are attached to the lachrymal bone behind the lachrymal sac. These two palpebral ligaments form a kind of septum or diaphragm, the **septum orbitale,** between the superficial and deep structures of the eyelids; this septum is perforated by the vessels and nerves, which extend from the orbital cavity to the face or calp.

The skin covering the lids is thin and delicate, and is continuous, at their margins, with their conjunctival lining. It contains numerous small sweat glands and fine hairs, the latter being provided with sebaceous follicles. Branched pigment cells are present in the cutis, and pigment also exists in the deep layers of the epidermis. The subcutaneous tissue is loose and devoid of fat, and in it are found the fibres of the orbicularis palpebrarum muscle—a small separate bundle of which, termed the **muscle of Riolan,** occupies the margin of the lids behind the eyelashes. The **Meibomian glands,** or glandulæ tarsales, are elongated sebaceous glands with numerous lateral offshoots; they are embedded in the tarsal plates and filled with cubical epithelium. There are from twenty-five to thirty in the upper lid, and from twenty to twenty-five in the lower; they open by small ducts, about 1 mm. in length, along the lid margins behind the eyelashes; the ducts are lined by stratified epithelium placed on a basement membrane. Between the eyelashes and the muscle of Riolan are two or three rows of modified sweat glands, termed the **glands of Moll**; the blocking of a duct of one of these glands frequently gives rise to a stye.

H. Müller described a layer of non-striped muscle in each lid: in the upper extending from the tendon of the levator palpebræ superioris to the upper tarsal plate, and in the lower connecting the inferior tarsal plate with the inferior oblique muscle.

The tendon of the levator palpebræ superioris divides into three parts—an anterior, passing between the bundles of the orbicularis to the deep surface of the skin; a middle, attached to the superior tarsal plate; and a posterior, to the fornix conjunctivæ: there is no corresponding muscle in the lower lid. The eyelashes are curved, silky hairs which project from the free margins of the lids; in the upper lid they are longer and more numerous than in the lower, and are curved upwards, while those of the lower lid are bent downwards.

Conjunctiva.—This is the name applied to the mucous membrane which lines the back of the lids (**tunica conjunctiva palpebrarum**), and is continued on to the front of the eyeball (**tunica conjunctiva bulbi**). The line along which it is reflected from the lids on to the globe of the eye is termed the **fornix conjunctivæ.** The palpebral portion adheres intimately to the tarsal plate and presents numerous papillæ. It is covered by a layer of columnar epithelial cells, beneath the bases

of which are small flattened cells. Near the fornix a number of acino-tubular glands, much more plentiful in the upper than in the lower lid, open on its free surface. The conjunctiva bulbi is thinner than that lining the lids, and is loosely attached to the sclera by submucous tissue. The plica semilunaris conjunctivæ has already been referred to (p. 738). On the cornea the conjunctiva is represented merely by the stratified epithelium already described (p. 726).

Vessels and Nerves.—The chief **arteries** of the eyelids are the superior and inferior palpebral branches of the ophthalmic, which pierce the septum orbitale above and below the internal tarsal ligament, and run tortuously outwards in the corresponding lid near its free margin. On reaching the region of the outer canthus they anastomose with each other and with twigs from the lachrymal, superficial temporal, and transverse facial arteries, and in this way an arch is formed in each lid (upper and lower tarsal arches). Secondary smaller arches are found, one above the primary arch in the upper lid, and another below that of the lower lid, while the upper lid also receives branches from the supraorbital and frontal arteries. The **veins** are arranged in two sets: (*a*) subconjunctival or retrotarsal, opening into the muscular tributaries of the ophthalmic vein, and (*b*) pretarsal, into the angular and superficial temporal veins. The **lymphatics**, like the veins, form pre- and retrotarsal networks, which communicate with each other through the tarsal plates. The lymph is chiefly drained into the perauricular and parotid lymphatic glands, but partly, by vessels which accompany the facial vein, into the submaxillary lymphatic glands. The **sensory nerves** of the eyelids are supplied by the fifth cranial nerve—the upper lid chiefly by the supraorbital and supratrochlear branches of the ophthalmic; the lower, by the infraorbital branch of the superior maxillary. The region of the outer canthus receives some filaments from the lachrymal nerve, that of the inner from the infratrochlear. These sensory nerves form a marginal plexus behind the orbicularis palpebrarum muscle. The levator palpebræ muscle is supplied by the third cranial nerve and the non-striped fibres of the lids by the sympathetic.

LACHRYMAL APPARATUS.

The **lachrymal apparatus** (apparatus lacrimalis) consists of: (1) the lachrymal gland, which secretes the tears; (2) the lachrymal canals, by which they are drained from the front of the globe; and (3) the lachrymal sac and nasal duct, which convey them into the nasal cavity.

The **lachrymal gland** is a flattened, oval body situated in the upper and outer part of the orbital cavity, and consists of two portions—orbital and palpebral—imperfectly separated from each other by the expansion of the tendon of the levator palpebræ superioris muscle. The **orbital** portion, or **glandula lacrimalis superior**, is firm and much larger than the palpebral part; it measures transversely about 20 mm., and sagittally from 12-14 mm. It occupies the fossa lacrimalis on the inner aspect of the external angular process of the frontal bone, and is fixed by fibrous bands to its periosteum, while its inferior surface is in contact with the levator palpebræ superioris and external recti muscles which intervene between it and the globe of the eye. The smaller, **palpebral portion**, or **glandula lacrimalis inferior**, consists of small, loosely aggregated lobules. It lies below and in front of the orbital portion, and projects into the posterior part of the upper eyelid, where its deep surface is in contact with the conjunctiva. The ducts which drain the orbital portion are from three to five in number; they pass between the lobules of the palpebral portion, and open at the upper and outer part of the fornix conjunctivæ. The ducts of the palpebral portion number from three to nine; some of them join those from the orbital part, while others open separately at the fornix conjunctivæ. The lachrymal gland has a structure similar to that of the parotid, and is supplied by the sympathetic and lachrymal nerves and by the lachrymal artery, while its veins are drained into the ophthalmic vein.

The **lachrymal canals** (ductus lacrimales) commence by minute orifices, termed the **puncta lacrimalia**, at the apices of the papillæ lacrimales already referred to (p. 738). The upper canal is the smaller of the two, and at first ascends for a short distance, and then runs inwards and slightly downwards; the lower descends for a short distance and then runs horizontally inwards. At the angle where they change their direction each is dilated into an ampulla (ampulla ductus lacrimalis). They occupy the margins of the lids, where these bound the lacus lacrimalis, and the two canals open close together into the outer and fore-part of the lachrymal sac, a little below its middle; sometimes they open separately into a pouch-like dilatation of the sac, termed the sinus of Maier. Each canal is lined by a

ied epithelium placed on a tunica propria, outside which is a layer of l muscular fibres derived from the tensor tarsi muscle. These muscular are arranged somewhat spirally around the canals, but at the bases of apillæ they are circular in direction and form a species of sphincter. On ction they serve to empty the contents of the lachrymal canals into the mal sac.

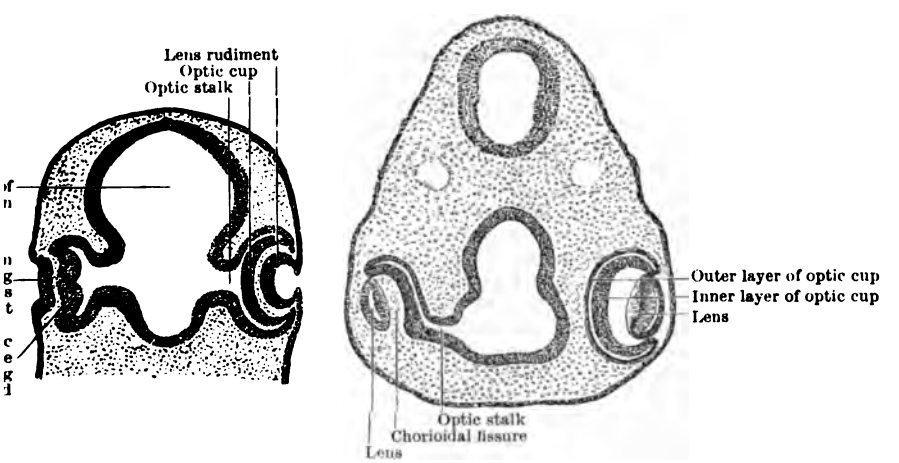
ie **lachrymal sac** and **nasal duct** together form the passage by which the tears nveyed from the lachrymal canals to the nose.

ie **lachrymal sac** (saccus lacrimalis) is the upper expanded part of the passage, ieasures from 12-15 mm. in length, about 7 mm. antero-posteriorly, and 4-5 mm. transversely. It lies in the groove formed by the lachrymal bone asal process of the superior maxilla, and ends above in a rounded, blind nity or fundus, while it narrows below into the nasal duct. Here a fold of is membrane, named the valve of Beraud, together with a laterally directed , the sinus of Arlt, are sometimes present. Near its superior extremity it ssed in front by the internal tarsal ligament, from the upper and lower of which the orbicularis palpebrarum takes origin, while behind it is the tarsi muscle, or muscle of Horner.

e **nasal duct** (ductus naso-lacrimalis) averages about 18 mm. in length, and diameter of from 3-4 mm. Rather narrower near its middle than at its upper wer extremities, it is directed downwards and slightly backwards, and opens ie inferior meatus of the nose at the junction of its anterior with its posterior fourths, *i.e.* a distance of 30-35 mm. from the posterior boundary of the . Its lower orifice is somewhat variable in form and position, and is nally duplicated. It is frequently guarded by a fold of mucous membrane, l the **valve** or **plica lacrimalis of Hasner.** Through this orifice the mucous lining duct is continuous with that of the nose. The mucous membrane of the duct wn into inconstant folds, several of which have been described as valves. ithelium is columnar and in part ciliated; opening into the lower part of the re numerous glands similar to those in the nasal mucous membrane. The of the lachrymal canals and sac are derived from the infratrochlear branch nasal; their arteries from the inferior palpebral and nasal. The veins of the luct are large and numerous, forming a sort of erectile tissue similar to that nose.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE EYE.

e retina and optic nerve are developed from a hollow outgrowth of the fore-brain, termed **ic vesicle** (see pp. 478 and 595). This extends towards the side of the head, and its



5.—SECTIONS THROUGH PORTIONS OF THE HEADS OF FŒTAL RABBITS, to illustrate the connexion of the optic cup with the fore-brain, and the invagination of the ectoderm to form the lens.

ion with the brain is gradually elongated to form the **optic stalk.** The ectoderm ng the optic vesicle becomes thickened, invaginated, and finally cut off as a hollow

island of cells, which is developed into the lens and is named the **lens vesicle**. This lens rudiment indents the outer and lower part of the optic vesicle, which now assumes the form of a cup (**optic cup**), lined by two layers of cells continuous with each other at the margin of the cup. The inner of these strata, thicker than the outer, is named the **retinal layer** and becomes differentiated into the nervous and supporting elements of the retina; while the outer, named the **pigmentary layer**, forms its pigmented epithelium. The edge of the optic cup extends in front of the equator of the lens, and bounds the future aperture of the pupil. In front of the lens, and also opposite its equator, the retinal layer is thin and represented only by a stratum of columnar cells which becomes closely applied to the pigmentary layer, the two forming the pars ciliaris and pars iridica retinæ. The indentation of the optic cup extends as a groove for some distance along the postero-inferior aspect of the optic stalk, forming what is termed the **chorioidal fissure** (Fig. 576). Through this fissure the mesoderm passes inwards between the lens and the retina to form the vitreous body, while the arteria centralis retinæ also becomes enclosed in it and so gains its future position in the centre of the optic nerve. The arteria centralis is prolonged forwards from the porus opticus through the vitreous body, as a cone of branches, as far as the back of the lens. By the fifth or sixth month all these branches have disappeared except one, the **arteria hyaloidea**, which persists until the last month of fœtal life, when it also atrophies, leaving only the **canalis hyaloideus** to indicate its position.

The lens rudiment, at first in contact with the ectoderm, from which it is derived, soon becomes separated from it by mesoderm, and then consists of a rounded vesicle lined by epithelium. The epithelium which lines the anterior part of the vesicle remains as a single layer of cells—the anterior lens epithelium of the adult. The cells lining the posterior part of the vesicle become elongated into lens fibres, and by the forward growth of these the cavity of the vesicle is obliterated. This elongation into lens fibres is greatest at the centre of the lens, while near the equator the fibres are shorter, and here the gradual transition between the anterior epithelium and the lens fibres is seen (Fig. 573). The lens becomes enveloped in a vascular tunic, which receives its vessels from the arteria centralis retinæ and from the vessels of the iris. The front part of this tunic forms the membrana pupillaris, and this, like the rest of the tunic, disappears before birth.

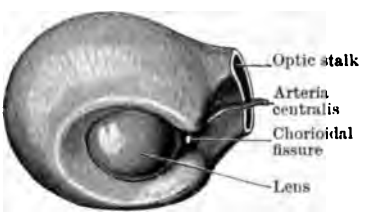


FIG. 576.—OPTIC CUP AND LENS VIEWED FROM BEHIND AND BELOW, to show formation of chorioidal fissure and enclosure of the arteria centralis retinæ (from model by Ziegler).

The hollow stalk of the optic cup becomes solid by the thickening of its walls and the obliteration of its cavity, and, acquiring nerve-fibres, becomes the optic nerve. These nerve fibres are mostly centripetal, and are derived from the nerve-cells of the retina; but a few are centrifugal and have their origin in the brain. The further development of the retina resembles, in certain respects, that of the spinal cord.

Cameron states ("The Development of the Retina in Amphibia," *Journ. Anat. and Physiol.* London, vol. xxxix.) that in the early stages of the development of the inner or retinal layer of the optic cup all the structures, described by His as being present in the spinal cord of the human embryo, are to be found, viz. (*a*) spongioblasts, (*b*) germinal cells, and (*c*) neuroblasts.

The spongioblasts undergo ramification and form a network or myelospongium, and also give rise to the inner and outer limiting membranes; the latter is next the original cavity of the optic vesicle, and therefore corresponds to the inner limiting membrane of the spinal cord. The spongioblasts also form the groundwork of the inner and outer molecular layers into which the processes of the neuroblasts grow and arborise.

The germinal cells are always situated beneath the external limiting membrane, and by their division give rise to the neuroblasts. The first-formed neuroblasts are larger than those of succeeding generations, and are found in the site of the future ganglionic layer. The germinal cells in the middle of the convexity of the retinal cup cease to divide at an early stage of development, and become directly transformed into the rod and cone cells from which the rods and cones develop as processes; hence these structures appear first over the middle of the convexity of the retina, and gradually extend towards the margin of the retinal cup.

The nuclei of the retinal neuroblasts undergo a progressive diminution in size—in some cases to one-fourth of that of their earlier stages. Cameron, after a careful study of the neuroblasts, not only in the retina, but in the wall of the cerebral vesicle and spinal cord, is of opinion that the neuroblastic nuclei are destitute of a protoplasmic investment, and that what has been described as a zone of "clear protoplasm" surrounding these nuclei during the process of karyokinesis is simply the achromatic nuclear substance set free by the disappearance of the nuclear membrane; and, further, that the processes which grow out from the neuroblasts in reality issue *from* the substance of the nuclei and thus cause the gradual diminution in size of the latter. "*The processes* of the retinal 'ganglion-cells' and of the cells of the inner nuclear layer first ab-

ɨlves as protrusions of the nuclear contents, while the rods and cones are at first also ɜions of the nuclei of the external nuclear layer. The rod and cone elements, when they ppear, do so as perfectly clear spherical globules consisting of nothing more than nuclear ıatin. The axis-cylinders of the optic nerve arise as processes of the nuclei in the ɔnic layer, and the great difficulty which is experienced in staining the individual fibres retinal nerve-fibre layer is due to the fact that they are composed of the achromatic r substance of the ganglionic nuclei. The origin of the axis-cylinders from these nuclei ·ts the contention of those who insist on the fact that the axis-cylinder process of a nerve- n be traced right into the nucleus of that cell."

e molecular layers make their appearance as plexuses of myelospongium. The internal ılar layer is first developed at the centre of the retinal cup, and gradually extends towards p margin, and into it the processes from the nuclei on either side grow and ramify. The d cone fibres, and the outer processes of the internal nuclear layer, grow into and arborise ı the external molecular layer.

ıe most interesting points with reference to the development of the nuclear layers are, › extrusion of the various processes from the nuclei as already described, and (2) the free ɜr in which these nuclei multiply by *direct* division during the metamorphosis. It is sting to note that the retinal nuclei are formed during the early stages by mitotic or ct division of the germinal cells, while later they appear capable of multiplying by tic or direct division only.

ıe first evidences of the rods and cones are in the form of clear, absolutely achromatic les, which lie between the nuclei of the external nuclear layer and the outer limiting ɾane. Whenever these are protruded beyond this membrane they grow with great ty, and exert an influence on the retinal pigment cells, causing them to protrude their ses, the pigment of which they seem to digest and absorb, since they now stain deeply iron-alum-hæmatoxylin. This gives us a clue to the mode by which the rhodopsin on of the rods in the adult is conducted, for these structures actually owe their growth and ɔpment to the ingestion of pigment from the pigment-cell processes.

he condensed mesoderm surrounding the optic cup becomes the sclera and chorioid. e portion of the mesoderm which lies in front of the lens a cleft-like fissure appears, ivides it into a thick anterior and a thin posterior layer. The former becomes the antia propria of the cornea; the latter, the stroma of the iris and anterior part of the lar tunic of the lens. The fissure represents the future anterior chamber, and its ; cells form the layer of endothelium on the back of the cornea and front of the

he **eyelids** arise as two integumentary folds above and below the cornea, each being ed on both its surfaces by the ectoderm. By the third month the folds meet and with each other at their edges, the eyelids being only permanently opened shortly e birth; in many animals they are not opened until after birth. The ectoderm ı the epithelium of the conjunctiva and the stratified epithelium of the cornea. It ɔ invaginated at the lid margins to form the hair follicles and the lining cells of the ɔmian glands and glands of Moll, and, at the fornix conjunctivæ, to form the lining ɜ alveoli and ducts of the lachrymal gland.

ıe **nasal duct, lachrymal sac, and canals** represent the remains of the furrow which ds from the inner angle of the eye to the nasal cavity between the superior maxillary ateral nasal processes (p. 40). It is at first filled by a solid rod of cells, which ıes hollowed out to form the duct and canals.

THE EAR.

he ear or organ of hearing (organon auditus, Fig. 577) consists of three portions ternal, middle, and internal—the last constituting its essential part, as within › distributed the peripheral terminations of the auditory nerve.

EXTERNAL EAR.

he **external ear**[1] includes —(*a*) the pinna or auricula, attached to and pro- ıg from the side of the head; and (*b*) the passage or external auditory meatus tus acusticus externus), leading inwards from the most depressed part of the ı as far as the tympanic membrane or outer wall of the middle ear.

THE PINNA.

he **pinna** or **auricula** (Fig. 578) presents two surfaces, outer and inner, the r forming an angle (cephalo-auricular angle) of about 30°, with the side of the

[1] Although it is usual to speak of the external, middle, and internal ear, it would be more correct to use ms external, middle, and internal *portions* of the ear.

head. The outer surface is irregularly concave, but presents several well-m elevations and depressions. The deepest of the depressions is situated ne middle, and is l the **concha** (conch culæ). It is d by an almost tran ridge, the **crus** l into an upper, sı and a lower, large tion: the form termed the **cymb chæ**; the latter, leads into the u the **cavum conchæ**. teriorly, the crus is continuous wi margin of the pi **helix**, which is over, in the greate of its extent, like t of a hat, and is dire first upwards, an backwards and wards, to become ally lost a little

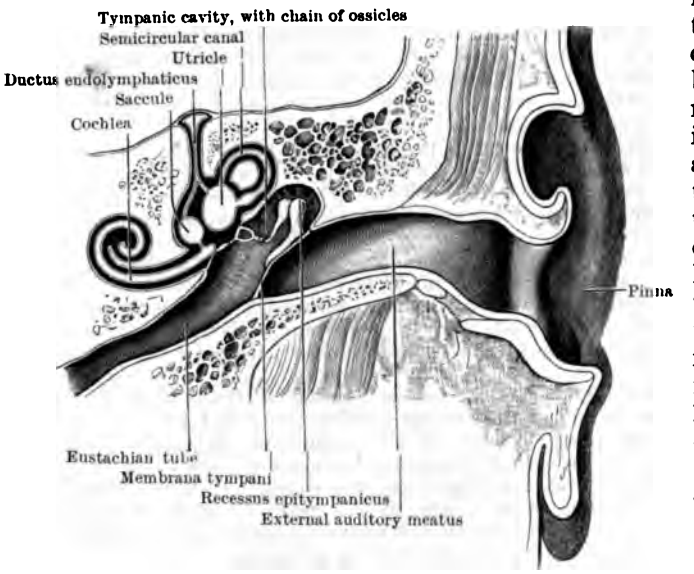


FIG. 577.—DIAGRAMMATIC VIEW OF THE ORGAN OF HEARING.

the middle of the pinna. Near the point where the helix begins to turn wards a small tubercle, the **tuberculum superius** (Darwini), is often seen; it again referred to. In front of the descending part of the helix is a elevation, the **antihelix**. Single below, it divides superiorly into two limbs, the **crura antihelicis**, between which is a triangular depression, the **fossa of the antihelix**, or **fossa triangularis**. The elongated furrow between the helix and antihelix is named the **fossa of the helix** or **scapha**. The concavity of the concha is overlapped in front by a tongue-like process, the **tragus**, and behind by a triangular projection, the **antitragus**; the notch, directed downwards and forwards between these two processes, is named the **incisura intertragica**. The tragus really consists of two tubercles, the upper of which constitutes the **tuberculum supratragicum** of His, and is separated from the helix by a groove, the **sulcus auris anterior**. The (lobulus auriculæ) is situated below the incisura intertragica, and is the dependent part of the pinna.

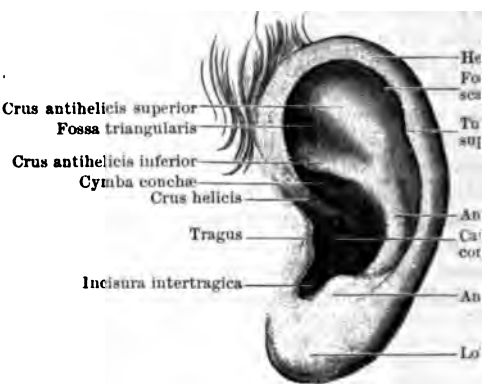


FIG. 578.—VIEW OF OUTER SURFACE OF LEFT P (half natural size).

The inner or cranial surface is also irregular, and presents elevations sponding to the depressions on its outer surface, *e.g.* **eminentia conchæ, em triangularis**, etc.

The pinna is usually smaller and more finely modelled in the female than in the m presents great variations in size and shape in different individuals. In the newly-born c length is about one-third of that of the adult, while it increases slightly in length and in old age.

The relation of the width to the height is termed the auricular index, and is expr follows:—

$$\frac{\text{width of pinna} \times 100}{\text{length of pinna}} = \textbf{Auricular index.}$$

x is less in white than in dark races.
ılo-auricular angle may be practically absent, as in those cases where the skin of the irectly on to the outer surface of the pinna, or it may be increased to nearly a right the outer surface of the pinna looks directly forwards. The **tuberculum superius**, ce of which was recognised by Darwin, is a somewhat triangular prominence which ards when the helix is well rolled over, but backwards and upwards when the the helix has been arrested. More frequently present in men than in women, it is ntal interest since it has been shown to be well marked at the sixth month of fœtal e pinna, at this stage, resembling in appearance that of the adult macaque.
e may be small and sessile or considerably elongated; it may adhere to the skin of webbed), or may tend to bifurcate at its lower extremity.

ıre of the Pinna.—The greater part of the pinna consists of a lamella fibro-cartilage, the **cartilago auriculæ**; the cartilage is, however, absent bule, which is composed of fat and connective tissue. When laid bare, inous lamella (Figs. 579, 580) presents, in an exaggerated condition, all lities of the pinna, and e prolonged inwards, to siderable portion of the uditory meatus. The f the helix projects an- a conical eminence, the s, whilst its inferior ex- tends downwards as a ocess, the **cauda helicis**, parated from the lower antitragus by a fissure, **fissura antitragohelicina**. ge of the pinna is con- h that of the meatus by **ithmus** (isthmus cartila- measuring from 8-9 mm.

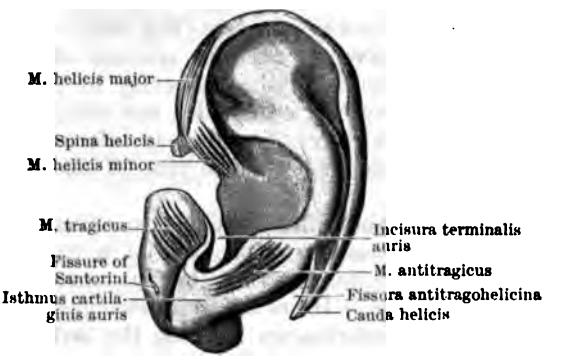
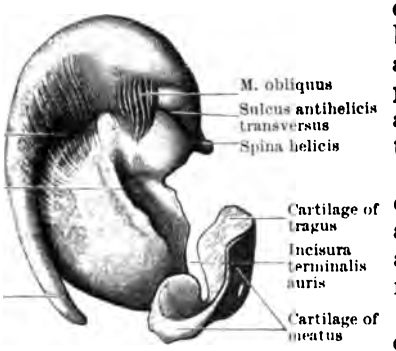


FIG. 579.—OUTER SURFACE OF CARTILAGE OF PINNA (one-half natural size).

This isthmus corresponds externally with the deepest part of the ertragica, and internally it forms the outer boundary of a deep fissure, **terminalis auris**, which separates the cartilage of the meatus from concha. The upper edge of the tragus fits into an angle below the

isura terminalis auris, together with the isthmus and the incisura intertragica, be esenting the boundary between the cartilage of the pinna and that of the meatus, it he tragus really forms a part of the meatal cartilage.

cranial aspect of the cartilage (Fig. 580) the eminences produced by the fossa triangularis are separated by a transverse furrow, the **sulcus anti- ɜversus**, corresponding with the crus antihelicis inferior; further, the eminentia conchæ is crossed horizontally by a groove, the **sulcus cruris helicis**, and almost vertically by a slight ridge, the **ponticulus**: the latter indicates the attachment of the M. auricularis posterior.



INER SURFACE OF CARTILAGE OF PINNA (one-half natural size).

In addition to the fissures described, others, termed the **fissures of Santorini**, are found, usually one in the tragus and one or more in the cartilage of the meatus.

Ligaments of the Pinna.—The cartilage of the pinna is attached to the skull by two fibrous bands which form its extrinsic ligaments, viz.: an etching from the zygoma to the spina helicis and tragus; and a *posterior*, n the eminentia conchæ and upper wall of the meatus to the mastoid

process. Small ligamentous bands pass between individual parts of the pinna, an form what are termed its intrinsic ligaments.

Muscles of the Pinna (Figs. 579, 580).—The muscles of the pinna are divide into two groups, *extrinsic* and *intrinsic*. The extrinsic muscles pass from the pinn to the skull or scalp, and are described in the section on Myology. The intrins muscles, on the other hand, are confined to the pinna and are six in number, fo on its outer and two on its cranial aspect.

(*a*) *On the outer surface* (Fig. 579)—

1. **M. helicis major**, passes upwards from the spina helicis along the ascendi part of the helix. 2. **M. helicis minor**, covers the crus helicis. 3. **M. tragic** quadrangular in shape, consists of fibres running vertically over the great part of the tragus. Some of its fibres are prolonged upwards to the spina helic and constitute the m. pyramidalis. 4. **M. antitragicus**, covers the antitrag and passes obliquely upwards and backwards as far as the antihelix and cau helicis.

(*b*) *On the cranial surface* (Fig. 580)—

1. **M. transversus auriculæ**, consists of scattered fibres, which stretch from t eminentia conchæ to the convexity of the helix. 2. **M. obliquus auriculæ** (To comprises a few fasciculi, which run obliquely or vertically across the furrow cor sponding with the crus antihelicis inferior. A small muscle, the stylo-auricular sometimes extends from the root of the styloid process to the cartilage of t meatus.

Skin of the Pinna.—The skin covering the pinna is thin and smooth, and prolonged inwards, in the form of a tube, as a lining to the external audito meatus. It adheres firmly, on the outer surface of the pinna, to the subjace perichondrium. Hairs are well developed on the tragus and antitragus, and also the incisura intertragica, forming the **barbula hirci**, which guard the entrance to t concha. Soft downy hairs are found over the greater part of the pinna and po towards Darwin's tubercle. Sebaceous glands, present on both surfaces of the pinn are most numerous in the concha and fossa triangularis. Sweat glands are fou on both surfaces, but are much more numerous on the cranial aspect.

Vessels of the Pinna.—The **arteries** for the pinna are derived—(*a*) from the superficial te poral, which sends two or three branches to the outer surface; and (*b*) from the posterior auricul which gives three or four branches to the cranial surface. From the latter two sets of twigs prolonged to the outer surface, one turning round the free margin of the helix, and the oth passing through small fissures in the cartilage. The **veins** from the outer surface open into superficial temporal vein; those from the cranial surface chiefly join the posterior auricular ve but some communicate with the mastoid emissary vein. The **lymphatics** take three directio viz.: (*a*) forwards to the parotid lymphatic glands, and especially to the preauricular gland front of the tragus; (*b*) downwards to the lymphatic glands which accompany the external jugul vein, and to the glands under the sternomastoid; and (*c*) backwards to the mastoid lympha glands.

Nerves of the Pinna.—The muscles of the pinna are supplied by the seventh cranial ner The skin receives its sensory nerves from—(*a*) the great auricular, which supplies nearly t whole of the cranial surface, and sends filaments in company with the branches of the poster auricular artery to the outer surface; (*b*) the auriculo-temporal, which supplies the tragus a ascending part of the helix; (*c*) the small occipital, which sends a branch to the upper part of t cranial surface.

External Auditory Meatus.

The **external auditory meatus** (meatus acusticus externus) (Figs. 580, 581) the passage leading inwards from the concha as far as the membrana tympani. average length, measured from the bottom of the concha, is about one in (24 mm.), but, if measured from the level of the tragus, nearly one inch and half (35 mm.) On account of the obliquity of the membrana tympani its anter and inferior walls are longer than the posterior and superior. The tube consists two parts, viz.: (*a*) an external **fibro-cartilaginous portion**, the pars cartilagin having a length of about 8 mm.; and (*b*) an internal **osseous portion**, the pars oss measuring about 16 mm., and formed by a portion of the temporal bone. T entire meatus forms a somewhat S-shaped bend (Fig. 582), and may be divided in

ree portions, viz.: (1) **pars externa**, directed inwards, forwards, and slightly pwards for about 7 mm.; (2) **pars media**, inclining inwards and backwards for out 5 mm.; (3) **rs interna**, the ngest of the three, assing forwards, inwards, and slightly lownwards. On transverse section the canal is seen to be elliptical, its greatest diameter having an inclination downwards and backwards. Widest at its outer extremity, it becomes somewhat narrower at the inner end of the pars cartilaginea; once more expanding in the outer part of the pars ossea, it is again constricted near the inner end of the latter, where its narrowest part, or **isthmus**, is found at a distance of about 19 mm. from the bottom of the concha. The inner extremity of the meatus is nearly circular and is closed by the membrana tympani.

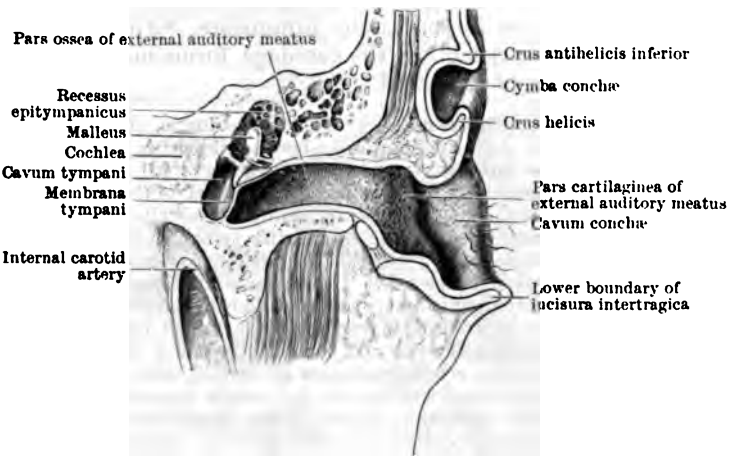


FIG. 581.—VERTICAL TRANSVERSE SECTION OF RIGHT EAR; ANTERIOR HALF OF SECTION, viewed from behind (natural size).

Bezold gives the diameters of the meatus as follows:—

	Greatest.	Least.
At the commencement of the pars cartilaginea. . .	9·08 mm.	6·54 mm.
At the end „ „ „ . . .	7·79 mm.	5·99 mm.
At the commencement of the pars ossea . . .	8·67 mm.	6·07 mm.
At the end „ „ „ . . .	8·13 mm.	4·60 mm.

The lumen of the pars cartilaginea is influenced by the movements of the lower jaw, being increased when the jaw is depressed. This can be easily verified by inserting a finger into the meatus, and then alternately opening and shutting the mouth.

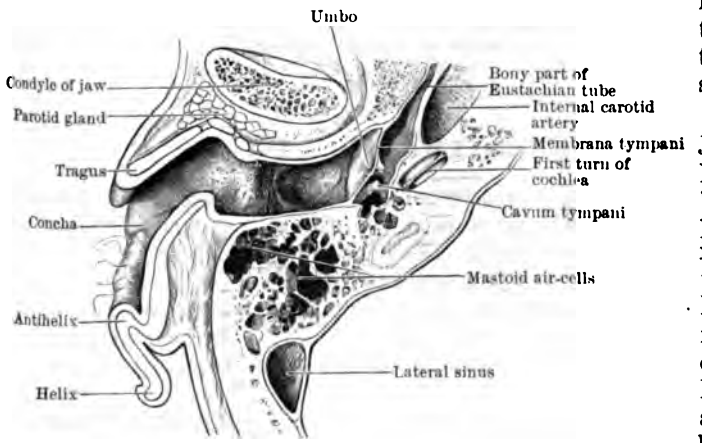


FIG. 582.—HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH RIGHT EAR; UPPER HALF OF SECTION seen from below (natural size).

The condyle of the jaw lies in front of the pars ossea, while between the jaw and the pars cartilaginea there intervenes a portion of the parotid gland. Below the meatus is the retro-mandibular part of the parotid gland. Behind the pars ossea, and separated from it by a thin plate of bone, are the mastoid air-cells.

Structure of the Meatus.—The cartilage of the meatus, directly continuous with that of the pinna, is folded on itself to form a groove, opening upwards and backwards, the margins of which are connected by fibrous tissue. The inner end of the cartilage is firmly fixed to the outer margin of the bony meatus, whilst its outer extremity is continuous with the cartilage of the tragus (*vide* p. 745). A couple of

fissures, the **fissures of Santorini**, exist in the anterior portion of the cartilage of the meatus, and are filled by fibrous tissue. In the outer part of the meatus the cartilage forms about three-fourths of its circumference; but, on passing inwards, the proportion of cartilage to fibrous tissue diminishes, with the result that near the inner end of the pars cartilaginea the cartilage forms merely a part of the anterior and lower boundaries of the canal.

The osseous portion (pars ossea) of the meatus is described on p. 117; but it may be well to state here that in the newly-born child it is represented only by an incomplete ring of bone, the **annulus tympanicus**, together with a small portion of the squamous temporal, which articulates with, and bridges over the interval between, the extremities of the ring superiorly. In the concavity of the annulus is a well-defined groove, the **sulcus tympanicus**, in which the circumference of the membrana tympani is fixed. On the inner aspect of the anterior part of the annulus, a little below its free extremity, a groove, the **sulcus malleolaris**, is directed downwards and forwards. It transmits the processus gracilis and anterior ligament of the malleus, the tympanic artery and the chorda tympani nerve. It is limited above by a well-marked ridge, the **crista spinarum** of Henle, which ends in front and behind in a spinous process (**spina tympanica anterior and posterior**). Below the sulcus malleolaris there is a second, less prominent ridge, the **crista tympanica** of Gruber, which subsequently unites with a process of the tegmen tympani, and so shuts off the canalis musculo-tubarius from the Glaserian fissure. A fibrous plate, the **tympanic fibrous plate** (Symington), intervenes between the annulus tympanicus and the inner end of the cartilage of the meatus, and into this plate the bony ring extends. The bony outgrowth does not, however, proceed uniformly throughout its circumference, but occurs most rapidly in the anterior and posterior parts of the ring. These outgrowths fuse about the end of the second year of life, so as to surround a foramen in the floor of the meatus (**foramen of Huschke**), which is usually closed by the fifth year, but persists until adult life in some 19 per cent of skulls (Bürkner).

The lumen of the meatus in the newly-born child is extremely small: its outer part is funnel-shaped; its inner a mere slit, bounded below by the tympanic fibrous plate and above by the obliquely-placed membrana tympani.

The **skin** which envelopes the pinna lines the entire meatus, and covers also the outer surface of the tympanic membrane. It is thick in the pars cartilaginea, and contains fine hairs and sebaceous glands, the latter extending inwards for some distance along the postero-superior wall of the pars ossea. The sweat glands are enlarged and of a brownish colour; they constitute the **glandulæ ceruminosæ** and secrete the ear wax or cerumen.

Vascular and Nervous Supply of the Meatus.—The meatus receives its blood-supply from the posterior auricular and superficial temporal arteries, and also from the deep auricular branch of the internal maxillary artery, the last distributing some minute branches to the membrana tympani. The **veins** open into the external jugular and internal maxillary veins, and also into the pterygoid plexus, while the **lymphatics** have a similar mode of termination to those of the pinna. **Sensory nerves** are supplied to the meatus by the auriculo-temporal branch of the fifth and by the auricular branch of the vagus.

MIDDLE EAR OR TYMPANIC CAVITY.

The **tympanic cavity** (cavum tympani) is a small air chamber in the temporal bone, which intervenes between the membrana tympani and the outer wall of the internal ear or labyrinth (Figs. 581, 582). Lined by mucous membrane, it contains a chain of ossicles (ossicula auditus) which reaches from its outer to its inner wall and by means of which the vibrations of the membrana tympani are transmitted across the cavity to the internal ear. Attached to the ossicles are several ligaments, together with a pair of small muscles, while certain nerves are either distributed to the cavity or pass through it.

The tympanic cavity consists of two portions: (1) The **tympanum proper**, or **atrium**, lying immediately to the inner aspect of the membrana tympani; and (2) the **recessus epitympanicus**, lying above the level of the membrane and containing the greater part of the incus and the upper half of the malleus. Including this recess, the vertical and antero-posterior diameters of the tympanic cavity are rather more than half an inch (15 mm.) The distance between its outer and inner walls is about 6 mm. above and 4 mm. below, while at its central part, owing to the bulging of the two walls towards the cavity, it measures only *from 1½ to 2 mm.*

The tympanic cavity presents for examination a roof, a floor, and four walls, viz. ɜrior, posterior, external, and internal.

The **roof** (Fig. 583) (paries tegmentalis) is formed by a thin plate of bone, the **nen tympani**, constituting a portion of the upper surface of the petrous-temporal. ɔxtends backwards so as to cover in the mastoid antrum, and forwards, to form

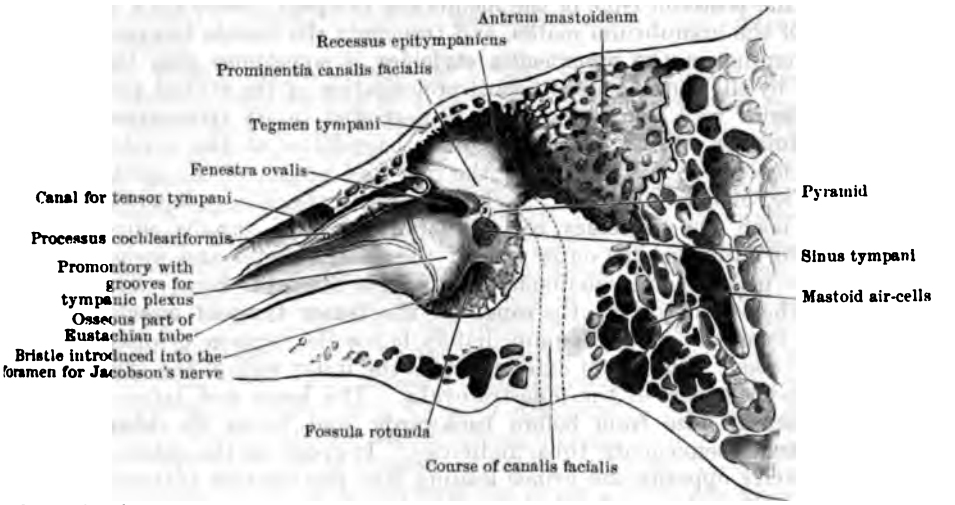


Fig. 583.—Section through Left Temporal Bone, showing inner wall of tympanic cavity, etc.

ɨ roof of the canal for the tensor tympani muscle. It separates the tympanum l antrum from the cranial cavity, and may contain a few air-cells, whilst occasion- ɣ it is partly deficient. In the child its outer edge corresponds with the petro- ɪamous suture. The **floor** (fundus tympani seu paries jugularis) is narrower than ɨ roof, and consists of a thin plate of bone which separates the cavity from the ɜa jugularis; anteriorly, it extends upwards and becomes continuous with the ɪterior wall of the carotid canal. The inner orifice for Jacobson's nerve, or ɲpanic branch of ɨ glosso-pharyn- ɭ, is seen near the ɪction of the floor ɦ the inner wall.

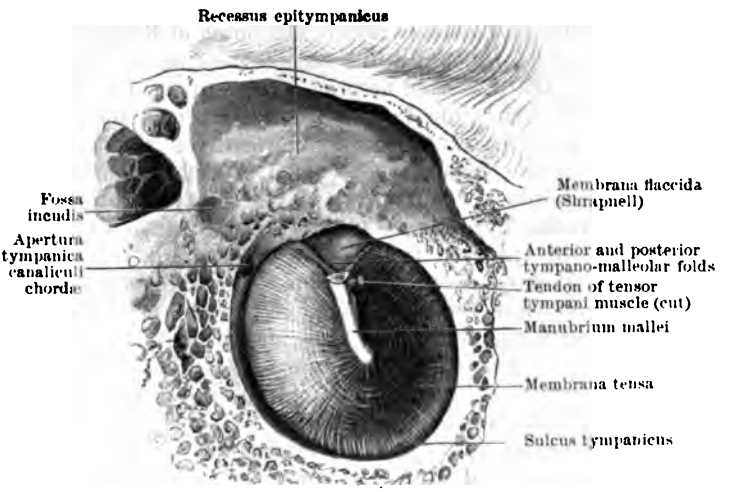


Fig. 584.—Left Membrana Tympani and Recessus Epitympanicus, viewed from within. The head and neck of the malleus have been removed to show the membrana flaccida and the tympano-malleolar folds. ×3.

The **posterior** ll (paries mas- dea) presents, m above down- rds: (1) A ɲnded or triangu- opening, which ends backwards n the recessus tympanicus and ds into the **ɜtoid antrum** ɡ. 583); the latter beagain referred ⟨p. 752). (2) A ression, the **fossa ɪdis** (Fig. 584), which lodges the extremity of the short process of the incus; this a is situated in the postero-inferior part of the recessus epitympanicus. (3) A ɪute conical bony projection, the **pyramid** or eminentia pyramidalis (Fig. 583), the ɪmit of which is perforated by a round aperture for the passage of the tendon of stapedius muscle. This aperture is continued downwards and backwards as a canal ront of the Fallopian aqueduct, and frequently opens, by a minute orifice, on the

base of the skull in front of the stylo-mastoid foramen. It communicates with the Fallopian aqueduct by one or two small foramina, through which the vessels and nerve pass to reach the stapedius muscle. A minute spicule of bone often extends from the pyramid to the promontory on the inner wall of the tympanum. (4) A small aperture, the **apertura tympanica canaliculi chordæ** (Fig. 584), which is situated immediately internal to the posterior edge of the membrana tympani, nearly on a level with the upper end of the manubrium mallei, and transmits the chorda tympani nerve. (5) A rounded eminence, the **prominentia styloidea**, is sometimes seen below the last; it is caused by the upward and forward prolongation of the styloid process.

The **anterior wall** (paries carotica) is narrowed in its transverse diameter by the approximation of the outer and inner boundaries of the cavity, and in its vertical diameter by the descent of the roof and ascent of the carotid canal. It presents (Fig. 583) two parallel canals, one above the other, separated by a thin lamella of bone, the **processus cochleariformis** (septum canalis musculo-tubarii). These run forwards on the outer wall of the carotid canal and open in the angle between the petrous and squamous parts of the temporal bone. The higher and smaller of the two is termed the **canal for the tensor tympani muscle** (semicanalis m. tensoris tympani), and lies immediately below the tegmen tympani. It has a diameter of about 2 mm., and extends on to the inner wall of the tympanic cavity above the anterior part of the fenestra ovalis. The lower and larger canal gradually increases in size from before backwards, and forms the **bony part of the Eustachian tube** (semicanalis tubæ auditivæ). It opens on the anterior wall of the tympanic cavity opposite the orifice leading into the mastoid antrum. Below the orifice of the Eustachian tube the anterior part of the tympanic cavity is separated from the ascending portion of the carotid canal by a thin plate of bone in which there are sometimes gaps or deficiencies. It is perforated by a small canal, the carotico-tympanic canal, which transmits the small, deep petrosal nerve from the sympathetic plexus of the carotid artery to the tympanic plexus. The Eustachian tube is described on p. 753.

The **outer wall** (paries membranacea) is formed almost entirely by the membrana tympani (Fig. 584), which closes the inner extremity of the external auditory meatus, and is fixed throughout the greater part of its circumference in a groove, the **sulcus tympanicus**. The bony ring containing this sulcus is deficient superiorly where it exhibits a distinct notch, the **notch of Rivinus**. On a level with the upper edge of the membrane, and in front of the ring of bone in which it is fixed, is the inner end of the **Glaserian fissure**, or remnant of the **fissura petro-tympanica**. This transmits the tympanic branch of the internal maxillary artery, and lodges the processus gracilis and anterior ligament of the malleus. Close to the inner extremity of the fissure is the **canal of Huguier**, or **iter chordæ anterius** through which the chorda tympani nerve leaves the tympanum.

Membrana Tympani.—This is an elliptical disc, its greatest diameter, 9 to 10 mm., being directed from above and behind, downwards and forwards, whilst its least diameter is from 8 to 9 mm. Its antero-inferior portion inclines markedly inwards, and thus the membrane is placed very obliquely, forming an angle of about 55° with the lower and anterior walls of the external auditory meatus; its antero-inferior part is, therefore, most distant from the outer orifice of the meatus. The membrane is said to be more oblique in cretins and deaf mutes, and more perpendicular in musicians.

The circumference of that portion of the membrane which is fixed in the sulcus tympanicus is considerably thickened, and is named the **annulus fibro-cartilagineus**. It is prolonged from the anterior and posterior extremities of the notch of Rivinus to the short process of the malleus in the form of two ligamentous bands, the **anterior** and **posterior malleolar folds** or **ligaments** (plica malleolaris anterior et posterior). The small triangular portion of the membrane (Fig. 584) situated above these folds is thin and lax, and constitutes the **pars flaccida** or membrane of Shrapnell; the main portion of the membrane is, on the other hand, tightly stretched and termed the **pars tensa**. A small orifice, sometimes seen in the pars flaccida, is probably either a pathological condition or has been artificially produced during manipulation. The handle of the malleus is firmly fixed to the inner

of the membrana tympani and draws its central portion inwards, rendering r aspect concave. The deepest part of this concavity corresponds with the xtremity of the handle of the malleus, and is named the **umbo membranæ** e or **navel.**

membrane tympani consists of three layers: (1) external, integumentary n cutaneum); (2) middle, fibrous (membrana propria); (3) internal, mucous n mucosum).

external layer (stratum cutaneum) is continuous with the integumentary of the meatus, and consists of a thin layer of cutis covered by epidermis. is is thickest near the circumference; the epidermis, on the other hand, is near the centre of the membrane.

middle layer (membrana propria) consists of two sets of fibres: (*a*) *external al* (stratum radiatum), situated immediately under the integument, and ig from the handle of the malleus to the annulus fibro-cartilagineus; *rnal* or *circular* (stratum circulare), the fibres of which are numerous ie circumference, but scattered and few in number near the centre of nbrane (Fig. 584). Both radial and circular fibres are absent from the pars , which is constituted merely by the apposition of the cutaneous and mucous

Gruber pointed out that, in addition to the radial and circular fibres, there ıext the stratum mucosum, a series of *dendritic* or *branched fibres*, which developed in the posterior part of the membrane.

internal layer (stratum mucosum) is continuous with the general mucous of the tympanum. It is thicker over the upper part of the membrane than centre, and is covered by pavement epithelium.

copic Examination of the Tympanic Membrane (Fig. 585).—The membrane, in the of a "pearl-gray" colour, but may present a reddish or yellowish tinge, depending upon ition of its mucous lining and on the condition of the cutaneous lining of the meatus; the segment is usually clearer anterior. At the antero- part, close to its periphery, h point appears as if pro- owards the meatus; this is t process of the malleus. lownwards and backwards s point to the umbo is a ıised by the handle of the the lower extremity of appears rounded. Two rresponding with the tym- lleolar folds, extend from process of the malleus, one and upwards, the other ls and upwards. Behind, the lower extremity of f the malleus, is a reddish vish spot, due to the promontory of the inner tympanic wall shining through. If the ıe be very transparent, the long process of the incus may be visible behind the upper ıe handle of the malleus, and reaching downwards as far as its middle. From the lower he handle of the malleus, the "cone of light" or "luminous triangle" extends down- ıd forwards, its apex being directed towards the handle; this triangle varies in size in people. A line prolonging the handle downwards divides the membrane into two parts, other, drawn at right angles to this through the umbo, will subdivide it into four quad- postero-superior, postero-inferior, antero-superior, and antero-inferior; this subdivision in enabling the otologist to localise and describe accurately the seat of lesions in the ıe.

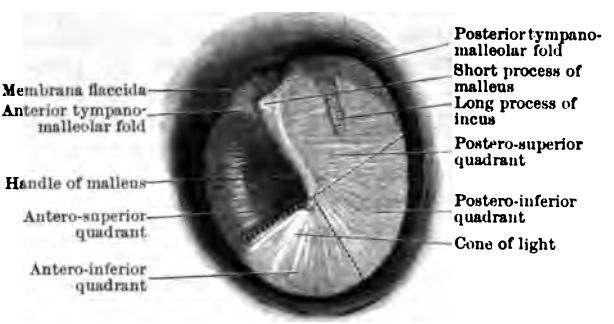


FIG. 585.—LEFT TYMPANIC MEMBRANE (as viewed from the external auditory meatus). × 3.

ular and Nervous Supply of the Membrana Tympani.—The **arteries** are arranged in one on the cutaneous and another on the mucous surface. These anastomose by means branches which pierce the membrane, especially near its periphery. The first set is erived from the deep auricular branch of the internal maxillary, whilst those on the urface are small and proceed from the tympanic branch of the internal maxillary, and stylo-mastoid branch of the posterior auricular. The **veins** from the cutaneous surface the external jugular; those from the inner surface partly into the venous plexus on achian tube, and partly into the lateral sinus and veins of the dura mater. The outer f the membrane receives its **nerves** from the auriculo-temporal branch of the fifth and auricular branch of the vagus; the inner surface, from the nerve of Jacobson (tympanic f the glosso-pharyngeal). The **lymphatics**, like the blood-vessels, are arranged in two

sets, cutaneous and mucous, which, however, communicate freely with each other. Kessel has described as lymphatics the spaces between the branches of Gruber's dendritic fibres.

The **inner wall** of the tympanic cavity (paries labyrinthica) is formed by the outer surface of the internal ear or labyrinth (Fig. 583). It presents—(1) a rounded eminence, the **promontory** (promontorium), which is caused by the first coil of the cochlea, and is grooved for the tympanic plexus of nerves. (2) An oval or somewhat reniform opening, the **fenestra ovalis seu vestibuli**, which is situated above and behind the promontory, with its long axis directed from before backwards. It measures 3 mm. in length and 1½ mm. from above downwards, and lies at the bottom of a funnel-shaped recess, the **fossula fenestræ vestibuli**. In the macerated bone it leads into the vestibule of the labyrinth, but is closed in the recent state by the foot of the stapes, surrounded by its **ligamentum annulare**. (3) An elevation, the **prominentia canalis facialis**, which is situated above the fenestra ovalis, in the recessus epitympanicus. This indicates the position of the upper part of the **aqueduct of Fallopius**, which contains the facial nerve and is continued backwards and downwards behind the tympanic cavity, to end at the stylo-mastoid foramen. (4) The **processus cochleariformis**, or septum canalis musculo-tubarii; this process extends backwards, above the anterior end of the fenestra ovalis, where it makes a sharp outward curve, and forms a pulley over which the tendon of the tensor tympani muscle plays. (5) A funnel-shaped recess, the **fossula fenestræ cochleæ**, which is situated behind and below the promontory, and almost hidden by its overhanging edge. It leads forwards, upwards, and inwards to an irregularly oval opening, termed the **fenestra rotunda seu cochleæ**, which in the macerated bone communicates with the cochlea, but in the recent state is closed by a membrane, the **membrana tympani secundaria**. This membrane appears angularly bent along a line joining its antero-inferior two-thirds with the postero-superior third. It consists of three layers: (*a*) *external*, continuous with the mucous lining of the tympanum and containing a network of capillaries; (*b*) *middle*, or substantia propria, the fibres of which radiate chiefly towards the periphery of the membrane —some branched, dendritic fibres are also present; (*c*) *internal*, continuous with the epithelial lining of the labyrinth. (6) Between the fenestra ovalis above and the fossula rotunda below is a small circular depression, the **sinus tympani**, which is perforated by one or two minute foramina for blood-vessels, and indicates the position of the ampullated extremity of the posterior semicircular canal.

Mastoid Antrum and Mastoid Air-cells.

The **mastoid antrum** (antrum mastoideum seu tympanicum) is seen in the temporal bone at birth as a cavity, having a vertical measurement of 7-9 mm. and a transverse of 9-11 mm., and is nearly as large in the newly-born child as in the adult. Roofed in by the tegmen tympani, its floor and inner wall are formed by the petro-mastoid, while externally it is closed by the junction of the thin outer part of the squama with the pars mastoidea. It communicates with the epitympanic recess by a triangular or rounded opening, on the inner wall of which, immediately above and behind the canalis facialis, is a smooth, convex area of bone indicating the position of the ampullated extremities of the superior and external semicircular canals. At birth its outer wall has a thickness of only 1-2 mm., but by the ninth year this has increased to about 10 mm. Coincident with the growth of the mastoid process the mastoid air-cells are developed downwards and backwards as diverticula from the antrum, and present the greatest possible variations in different skulls. They may be large, comparatively few in number, and involve the whole process, in which case the compact bone which surrounds them is extremely thin, and the innermost cells are only separated by a transparent lamella from the lateral sinus—a lamella which, in some instances, is partly deficient. In other cases the cells may be small and numerous, only invading a portion of the process, the remainder consisting of diploëtic tissue. No definite conclusion can be come to as to their condition by external percussion or examination. A solid process is occasionally seen. The air-cells are not limited to the mastoid process, but extend forwards over the roof of the meatus, upwards towards the squama, and inwards towards the

mporo-occipital suture, whilst in a few cases they are seen to invade the pars gularis of the occipital bone. They, together with the antrum, are lined by thin ucous membrane continuous with that of the tympanic cavity; the deep surface the mucous membrane is firmly fixed to the periosteum, while its free surface is vered by a layer of flattened, non-ciliated epithelium.

Eustachian Tube.

The **Eustachian tube** (tuba auditiva Eustachii) leads from the tympanic cavity to he naso-pharynx, and transmits air to the former, in order that the pressure on the ner and outer surfaces of the membrana tympani may be equalised; it may also erve to convey mucous secretion away from the tympanic cavity. Its outer xtremity, the **ostium tympanicum tubæ auditivæ** (Fig. 583), opens into the anterior art of the tympanic cavity below the canal for the tensor tympani muscle. Directed downwards and inwards, the tube ends on the upper part of the naso-harynx by a wide orifice, the **ostium pharyngeum tubæ auditivæ** (Fig. 555). It neasures about an inch and a half (36 mm.) n length, and forms with the horizontal lane an angle of 30° to 40°, with the sagittal lane an angle of about 45°, and with the ony part of the external meatus one of 35° to 140°. It consists of two portions: a) an antero-internal, fibro-cartilaginous art, the **pars cartilaginea tubæ auditivæ**, aving a length of about one inch; and b) a postero-external, osseous part, the **ars ossea tubæ auditivæ**, measuring half n inch in length. The two portions are ot in the same plane, the cartilaginous art inclining downwards a little more lan the osseous portion, and forming with a wide angle. Its lumen is widest at ie ostium pharyngeum, narrowest at the nction of the bony and cartilaginous ortions, forming here the **isthmus**, and gain expanding towards the tympanic ivity; hence it presents, on longitudinal ection, somewhat the appearance of an our-glass. The pars ossea occupies the ngle between the squamous and petrous parts of the temporal bone, and is separated y the processus cochleariformis from the canal containing the tensor tympani muscle, hilst immediately to its inner side is the carotid canal. The pars cartilaginea consists partly of cartilage and partly of fibrous membrane. The cartilage (cartilago ubæ auditivæ) presents the form of an elongated triangular plate, of which the apex s firmly attached to the inner end of the pars ossea, while the base is free, and forms projection on the upper and posterior aspects of the pharyngeal orifice. The pper edge of this cartilaginous plate is bent outwards in the form of a hook, and o produces a furrow open below and externally, the furrow being converted into complete canal by the fibrous part of the tube. On transverse section (Fig. 586) he cartilage presents two laminæ continuous with each other superiorly: (*a*) *amina medialis*, broad and thick; and (*b*) *lamina lateralis*, thin and hook-shaped. At the ostium pharyngeum the lamina medialis forms the entire inner wall of the ube, but it gradually diminishes in breadth on approaching the isthmus tubæ. Fissures are often seen in the cartilage; sometimes it is completely separated into everal pieces, or accessory islands may be observed in the roof, floor, or membranous art.

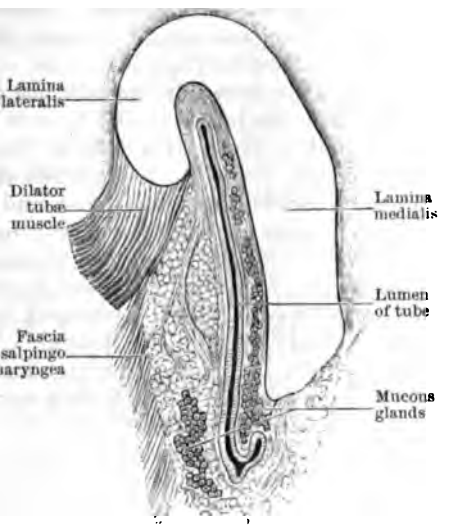


Fig. 586.—Transverse Section of the Cartilaginous Part of the Eustachian Tube.

The upper and inner aspects of the cartilage are firmly fixed to the base of the cull, where it lies in a groove, the **sulcus tubæ auditivæ**, situated between the great ing of the sphenoid and the petrous-temporal. Extending forwards on to the

root of the pterygoid process this sulcus ends at a projection, the **processus tubarius**, on the middle of the internal pterygoid plate. The tensor palati muscle lies to the outer side of the tube and receives some fibres of origin from its lamina lateralis; these fibres constitute the **dilator tubæ muscle** of Rüdinger. To the inner side of the cartilage are found the levator palati and the mucous membrane of the pharynx. The **membranous part** (lamina membranacea) consists of a strong fibrous membrane, stretching between the two edges of the cartilage, and so completing the under and outer parts of the canal. Thin above, it becomes thickened below and forms the **fascia salpingo-pharyngea** of Tröltsch, which gives origin to some of the fibres of the tensor palati muscle. Between this fascia and the mucous lining of the tube is a layer of adipose tissue.

The **pharyngeal orifice** of the Eustachian tube (ostium pharyngeum tubæ), triangular or oval in shape, is situated on the lateral wall of the naso-pharynx, the centre of the opening being on a level with the posterior end of the inferior turbinated bone. It is bounded above and behind by a pad or cushion produced by the inner end of the cartilage, which here abuts against the mucous membrane. The posterior part of this cushion is very prominent and forms the anterior boundary of the **fossa of Rosenmüller**. Prolonged downwards from it is an elevation of the mucous membrane, termed the **plica salpingo-pharyngea**, which covers the small salpingo-pharyngeus muscle. From the upper part of the cushion an indistinct fold, the **plica salpingo-palatina**, extends to the palate.

The mucous lining of the tube is continuous behind with that of the tympanic cavity, and in front with that of the naso-pharynx. It is thin in the pars ossea, contains few, if any, mucous glands, and is firmly fixed to the bony wall; whilst in the pars cartilaginea it is loose and thrown into longitudinal folds. Numerous mucous glands open into the tube near its pharyngeal orifice, and here also there exists a considerable amount of adenoid tissue, which constitutes the "tube-tonsil" of Gerlach. This adenoid tissue is continuous with that of the naso-pharynx, and like it, is especially well developed in children. The lumen of the tube is lined with ciliated columnar epithelium.

The tube is opened, during deglutition, by the dilator tubæ and salpingo-pharyngeus muscles. The former springs superiorly from the cartilaginous hook of the tube, and blends inferiorly with the tensor palati. When the dilator tubæ contracts, the cartilaginous hook and membranous part of the tube are drawn outwards and forwards. Some anatomists are inclined to the view that the entire tensor palati acts chiefly as a dilator of the tube, and Rüdinger has named it the abductor tubæ. The salpingo-pharyngeus muscle draws downwards and backwards the inner cartilaginous plate, increasing the angle between it and the outer plate. Some difference of opinion exists as to the precise action of the levator palati; probably it assists in opening the tube.

The Eustachian tube receives its blood-supply from the ascending pharyngeal artery and from the middle meningeal and Vidian branches of the internal maxillary artery. Its veins form a network which opens into the pterygoid venous plexus. The sensory nerves of the tube are derived from the tympanic plexus and from the pharyngeal branches of the second division of the fifth cranial nerve.

The tube of the child differs considerably from that of the adult; its lumen is relatively wider, its direction more horizontal, and its pars ossea relatively shorter. Kunkel states that its pharyngeal orifice is below the level of the hard palate in the fœtus; at birth it is on the same level as the palate, whilst at the fourth year it is 3 to 4 mm., and in the adult 10 mm., above it. The pharyngeal orifice forms a narrow fissure, and its cartilage projects less towards the middle line.

Tympanic Ossicles.

The **tympanic ossicles** (ossicula auditus) form an articulated column connecting the outer with the inner wall of the tympanic cavity, and are named, from without inwards, the malleus or hammer, the incus or anvil, and the stapes or stirrup. The first is attached to the inner surface of the membrana tympani; the last is fixed within the circumference of the oval fenestra.

The **malleus** (Fig. 587, B, D), the largest of the three ossicles, has a length of *8 to 9 mm.*, and consists of a head (capitulum mallei), a neck (collum mallei), and

handle (manubrium mallei), together with two processes, viz.: (*a*) processus longus seu anterior, (*b*) processus brevis seu lateralis. The head and neck are situated in the epitympanic recess; the processus brevis and manubrium are fixed to the inner surface of the membrana tympani; whilst the processus longus is directed forwards towards the Glaserian fissure, to which, in the adult, it is connected by ligamentous

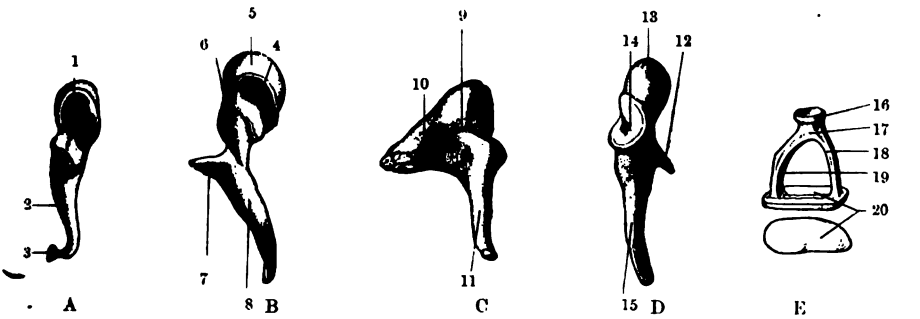


FIG. 587.—TYMPANIC OSSICLES OF LEFT EAR (enlarged about three times).

A, Incus, seen from the front; B, Malleus, viewed from behind; C, Incus, and D, Malleus, seen from inner aspect; E, Stapes.

1. Body of incus, with articular surface for head of malleus.
2. Processus longus.
3. Processus lenticularis.
4. Articular surface for incus.
5. Head.
6. Neck.
7. Processus brevis.
8. Manubrium.
9. Body.
10. Short process.
11. Long process.
12. Processus longus.
13. Head.
14. Facet for incus.
15. Manubrium.
16. Head.
17. Neck.
18. Crus anterius.
19. Crus posterius.
20. Foot-plate.

fibres. The **head**, somewhat rounded, is smooth and convex above and in front, and presents, on its posterior aspect, a facet for articulation with the body of the incus. This facet is directed obliquely downwards and inwards, and reaches slightly on to its mesial surface. More or less elliptical in form, it is constricted near the middle so as to resemble, somewhat, the figure 8; an oblique ridge, corresponding with the constriction, divides the facet into two parts—an upper and larger, directed back-

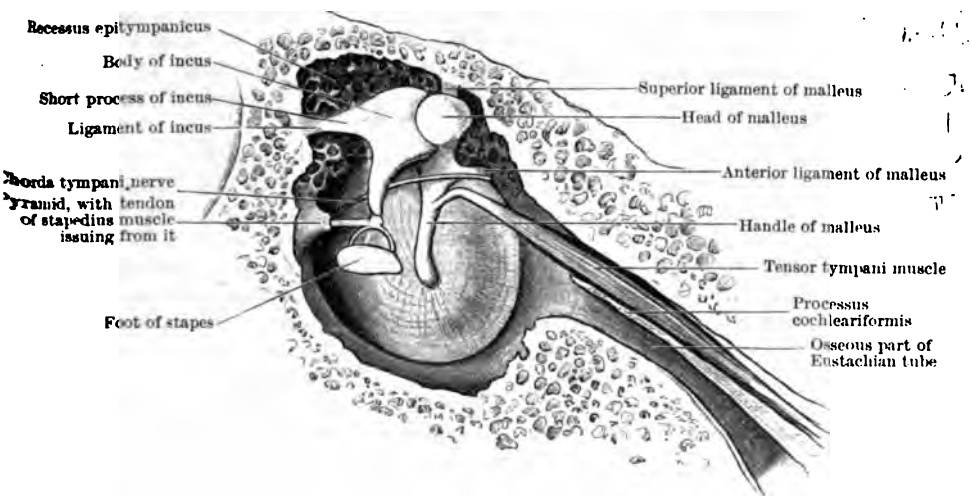


FIG. 588.—LEFT MEMBRANA TYMPANI AND CHAIN OF TYMPANIC OSSICLES (seen from inner aspect). × 3.

wards, and a lower and lesser, directed inwards. Opposite the lower part of the constriction the inferior edge of the facet is very prominent, and is continued upwards into the oblique ridge just referred to; it forms a tooth-like process, the **spur** or **cog-tooth** of the malleus. On the back of the head, below this spur, is an oblique crest, the **crista mallei**, to which is attached the external ligament of the malleus. The **neck** is the slightly constricted portion immediately below the head. Flattened from before backwards, its outer surface is directed towards the membrana flaccida,

whilst its inner is crossed by the chorda tympani nerve. The **handle** is dire downwards, inwards, and backwards from the neck, forming with the long axi the head an angle, opening inwards, of 126° to 150°. Its upper part is flatt from before backwards, but towards the lower end it is twisted on itself, so tha surfaces look outwards and inwards; moreover, the lower end is slightly cu the concavity being directed forwards and outwards. It is fixed, along its e length, to the membrana propria of the tympanic membrane by its periosteum by a layer of cartilage (Gruber). This latter intervenes between the handle the membrane, and must be regarded as a residue of that stage of development v the entire malleus was cartilaginous. On the inner aspect of the handle, nea upper extremity, a slight projection for the attachment of the tendon of the t tympani muscle may be seen. The **long process** is a slender spicule springing the fore-part of the neck and directed forwards towards the Glaserian fissure. the fœtus it constitutes the longest process of the malleus and is directly contin with Meckel's cartilage. In the adult it usually assumes the form of a small jection, since its anterior part is represented merely by fibrous tissue. The **process** may be looked upon as the upper extremity of the handle projected wards; it is fixed to the upper part of the membrana tympani by the cartilagi layer already referred to, and to the extremities of the notch of Rivinus by anterior and posterior malleolar folds.

The **incus** (Fig. 587, A, C) is best likened to a bicuspid tooth with wi divergent fangs. It consists of a body (corpus incudis), a long process (crus long and a short process (crus breve); the two processes form with each other an ang 90° to 100°. The body and short process are situated in the epitympanic re The **body** presents a more or less saddle-shaped surface for articulation with head of the malleus. This surface is directed forwards, and its lower pa hollowed out for the accommodation of the cog-tooth of the malleus. In fro this hollow it is prominent and spur-like. The **short process** is thick, trian in shape, and projects horizontally backwards; its conical extremity, covered cartilage, articulates with the fossa incudis in the postero-inferior part of epitympanic recess. The **long process** projects, almost perpendicularly, downw from the body into the tympanic cavity, where it lies parallel with, but 1¼ behind and internal to, the handle of the malleus. Its lower end is bent inw and narrowed to form a short neck, on the inner extremity of which is a small l of bone, the **processus lenticularis**, for articulation with the head of the st Until the sixth month of fœtal life this process exists as a separate ossicle, ter the **os orbiculare**.

The **stapes** (Fig. 587, E) presents a head (capitulum stapedis), a neck (col stapedis), two crura (crus anterius et posterius), and a base or foot-plate (l stapedis). The **head**, directed outwards, is concave externally for articula with the processus lenticularis of the incus. The **neck** is the slightly constri part immediately internal to the head, and from it the two crura spring; tendon of the stapedius muscle is inserted into the posterior aspect of the neck. anterior crus is shorter and less curved than the posterior. Diverging from other, the crura are directed inwards and are attached—one near the anterior, other near the posterior end of the foot-plate. The **foot-plate** almost comple fills the oval fenestra, and, like it, is somewhat oval or reniform, its anterior being the more pointed. In the recent condition a membrane fills the arch for by the crura and the foot-plate, the crura being grooved for its reception. In child the crura of the stapes are less curved than in the adult, and the ope bounded by them and the foot-plate is nearly triangular.

Articulations of the Tympanic Ossicles.—The joint between the head of malleus and the body of the incus (articulatio incudomalleolaris) is diarthro and may be described as one of reciprocal reception. It is surrounded by a cap ligament, from the inner surface of which a wedge-shaped meniscus projects int joint cavity and incompletely divides it. The articulation of the processus l cularis and the capitulum stapedis (articulatio incudostapedia) is of the natu *an* enarthrosis and is surrounded by a capsular ligament. An interarticular c *lage has* been described as occurring in this joint, while some observers den

resence of a synovial cavity and regard the articulation as a syndesmosis, the rticular surfaces being held together merely by fibrous tissue.

Ligaments binding the Ossicles to the Walls of the Tympanic Cavity (lig. ssiculorum auditus).—The malleus is attached to the walls of the tympanum by hree ligaments (Fig. 588), viz. anterior, superior, and external. The **anterior liga-ment** (lig. mallei anterius) consists of two portions: (*a*) the *band of Meckel*, which is ttached to the base of the processus longus, and passes forwards through the laserian fissure to reach the spine of the sphenoid; it represents the remnant of a ortion of Meckel's cartilage, and was formerly described as the laxator tympani nuscle; (*b*) a firm bundle of fibres, the *lig. mallei anterius of Helmholtz*, which xtends from the spina tympanica posterior at the anterior boundary of the notch f Rivinus to the anterior aspect of the malleus, above the base of the processus ongus. **The superior ligament** (lig. mallei superius) extends, almost vertically, rom the head of the malleus to the roof of the epitympanic recess. The **external igament** (lig. mallei laterale) is short and fan-shaped; its fibres converge from the posterior half of the notch of Rivinus to the crista mallei. The posterior part of this ligament is strong and constitutes the *ligamentum mallei posticum of Helm-holtz*. It forms, together with the ligamentum mallei anterius, the axis around which the malleus rotates, and the two constitute what Helmholtz has termed the "**axis-ligament**" of the malleus.

The posterior extremity of the crus breve of the incus is tipped with cartilage and fixed by means of a ligament, the **ligamentum incudis posterius** (Fig. 588), to the fossa incudis. Some observers describe this as a diarthrodial joint. A superior ligament, the **ligamentum incudis superius**, is sometimes present, but consists mainly of a fold of mucous membrane. The vestibular surface and the circumference of the foot of the stapes are covered by hyaline cartilage, and a similar layer lines the opening of the fenestra ovalis; that encircling the base of the stapes is joined to that which lines the fenestra by a dense ring of elastic fibres, named the **ligamentum annulare baseos stapedis**. The posterior fibres of this annular ligament are thicker and shorter than the anterior, and thus the anterior end of the foot-plate is free to make greater excursions, during the movements of the bone, than the posterior.

Development of the Tympanic Ossicles.—It is generally maintained that the malleus and incus are developed from the upper end of Meckel's cartilage, and that the stapes arises from the mesoblast in the region of the fenestra ovalis where it is developed round a small artery, the stapedial artery, which atrophies in man, but persists in many mammals. On the other hand, Gadow (*Phil. Trans.*, London, vol. clxxix.) says "the whole system of the one to four elements of the middle ear, which have all the same function, is to be looked upon as *one* organ, of *one* common origin, viz. a modification of the hyo-mandibula, the proximal paramere of the second visceral arch."

Muscles of the Tympanic Cavity.—These are two in number, viz. m. tensor tympani and m. stapedius.

The **m. tensor tympani** is the larger, and takes origin from the roof of the carti-aginous part of the Eustachian tube and from the adjacent part of the great wing of the sphenoid. It also receives some fibres from the bony canal in which it lies, and ends in a tendon which bends outwards, nearly at a right angle to the belly of the muscle, round the pulley-like, posterior extremity of the processus cochleariformis. Passing across the cavity of the tympanum this tendon is inserted into the inner edge and anterior surface of the manubrium mallei, near its upper end. When the muscle contracts it draws inwards the handle of the malleus, and so renders tense the membrana tympani; it probably also slightly rotates the malleus around its long axis. It receives its nerve from the motor division of the fifth cranial nerve through the otic ganglion.

The **m. stapedius** arises within the pyramid, and from the canal which prolongs the hollow of the pyramid downwards. Its tendon emerges from the apex of the pyramid and is inserted into the posterior surface of the neck of the stapes. On contraction it draws back the head of the stapes, and so tilts the anterior end of the foot-plate outwards towards the tympanic cavity and the posterior end inwards

towards the labyrinth, thus rendering tense the ligamentum annulare—the outward movement of the anterior end of the foot-plate being greater than the inward movement of its posterior end. The muscle is supplied by the facial nerve.

Movements of the Tympanic Ossicles.—The manubrium mallei follows all the movements of the membrana tympani, while the malleus and incus move together around an axis extending forwards through the short process of the incus and the anterior ligament of the malleus. When the membrana tympani moves inwards it carries with it the handle of the malleus, and the incus, moving inwards at the same time, forces the foot of the stapes towards the labyrinth. This inward movement is communicated to the fluid (perilymph) in the labyrinth, and causes an outward bulging of the secondary tympanic membrane, which closes the fenestra rotunda. These movements are reversed when the membrana tympani is relaxed, unless the outward movement of the membrane be excessive. In such a condition the incus does not follow the full outward movement of the malleus, but merely glides on this bone at the incudo-malleolar joint, and thus the forcible dragging of the foot of the stapes out of the fenestra ovalis is prevented. The cog-tooth arrangement, already described, on the head of the malleus and body of the incus, causes the incudo-malleolar joint to become locked during the inward movements of the handle of the malleus, the joint becoming unlocked during its outward movements.

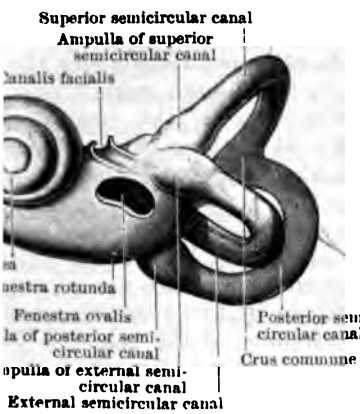
Mucous Lining of the Tympanic Cavity (tunica mucosa tympanica).—This is continuous, through the Eustachian tube, with that of the naso-pharynx; it also extends backwards and lines the mastoid antrum and air-cells. Thin, transparent, and closely united with the subjacent periosteum, it covers the inner aspect of the membrana tympani and is reflected over the ossicles and their ligaments. It also supplies sheaths for the tendons of the tensor tympani and stapedius muscles, and forms the following **mucous folds**, viz.: (*a*) one from the roof of the epitympanic recess to the head of the malleus and body of the incus; (*b*) one enveloping the chorda tympani nerve and long process of the incus; (*c*) two extending from the short process of the malleus—one to the anterior, the other to the posterior margin of the notch of Rivinus. A recess, the **pouch of Prussak**, is situated between the membrana flaccida and the neck of the malleus. Communicating behind with the tympanic cavity, this pouch may serve as a reservoir to confine pus or other fluid, since its opening into the tympanum is above the level of its floor, a condition analogous to the opening from the antrum of Highmore into the nasal cavity. The fold of mucous membrane which extends downwards to envelop the chorda tympani nerve gives rise to two pouches, one in front of, and the other behind, the handle of the malleus; these are named the **anterior** and **posterior recesses of Troltsch**. The epithelium which lines the mucous membrane is flattened over the membrana tympani, promontory, and ossicles, but ciliated and columnar over the greater portion of the rest of the cavity.

The chorda tympani branch of the facial nerve passes from behind, upwards, and forwards through the tympanic cavity. Its course is described on p. 687.

Vessels and Nerves of the Tympanic Cavity.—The **arteries** which supply the tympanic cavity are: (1) The tympanic artery, a branch of internal maxillary, which reaches the cavity by way of the Glaserian fissure. (2) The stylo-mastoid branch of posterior auricular, which passes through the stylo-mastoid foramen and aqueduct of Fallopius; it supplies branches to the mastoid antrum and air-cells, to the stapedius muscle, to the floor and inner wall of the tympanic cavity, and forms an anastomotic circle, around the membrana tympani, with the tympanic artery. (3) The middle meningeal artery sends a branch to the tensor tympani muscle, and, after entering the skull, gives off its petrosal artery, which is conducted to the tympanum along the hiatus Fallopii; some twigs from the posterior division of the middle meningeal reach the antrum and epitympanic recess through the petro-squamous fissure. (4) The internal carotid artery, in its passage through the canal in the temporal bone, gives off one or two tympanic twigs, while (5) a branch from the ascending pharyngeal accompanies the nerve of Jacobson. The **veins** drain their contents into the pterygoid plexus, the middle meningeal vein, and superior petrosal sinus. The **nerves** which supply the muscles of the tympanic cavity have already been referred to (pp. 757, 758). The mucous membrane receives its nerves from the tympanic plexus, which is described on p. 690.

Early Condition of Tympanic Cavity.—During the greater part of intrauterine existence the tympanic cavity is almost completely filled by a soft, reddish, jelly-like embryonic tissue. The narrow, slit-like space is lined by epithelium, which is ciliated over the promontory, but squamous elsewhere. Towards the end of fœtal life the gelatinous tissue becomes thinned and the cavity correspondingly enlarged. At birth it is filled with fluid which becomes absorbed, *coincident* with the passage of air from the naso-pharynx through the Eustachian tube.

ıe innermost, and, at the same time, the essential part of the organ of hearing ıated in the substance of the petrous-temporal bone, and consists of two sets uctures, viz.: (1) a series of cavities hollowed out of the bone and constituting **ony labyrinth** (labyrinthus osseus); these cavities are continuous with each



589.—Left Bony Labyrinth (viewed from the outer aspect).

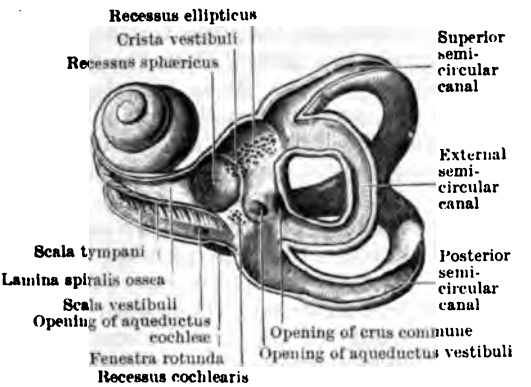


Fig. 590.—Interior of Left Bony Labyrinth (viewed from outer aspect).

, and are named from before backwards the **cochlea, vestibule,** and **semicircular s** (Figs. 589, 590); (2) a complex arrangement of membranous channels (Fig. situated within, but not nearly filling, the bony labyrinth and forming the **ıranous labyrinth** (labyrinthus membranaceus). These channels are named the **s cochlearis, utricle, saccule,** and **membranous semicircular canals**; the utricle ıaccule are lodged within the bony vestibule.

OSSEOUS LABYRINTH.

'estibule.—The vestibule forms the central portion of the osseous labyrinth, and ıunicates behind with the semicircular canals and in front with the cochlea. It newhat ovoid in shape, its long axis being directed forwards and outwards. It ures about 6 mm. antero-posteriorly, 4-5 mm. from roof to floor, and about 3 mm. without inwards. Its outer wall is directed towards the tympanic cavity, and is seen the fenestra ovalis, which, in the recent state, is closed by the foot of tapes. Its inner wall corresponds with the bottom of the internal auditory us, and presents, at its antero-inferior part, a rounded depression, the **recessus ricus**, which lodges the saccule. This recess is perforated by some twelve or n small foramina, which constitute the **macula cribrosa media,** and transmit the ents of the auditory nerve for the supply of the saccule. The recessus ricus is limited above and behind by an oblique ridge, the **crista vestibuli**, the ior extremity of which is triangular in shape and named the **pyramid** (pyramis buli). Posteriorly this crista divides into two limbs, between which is a small ssion, the **recessus cochlearis** of Reichert, perforated by some eight small fora-, which give passage to the nervous filaments for the supply of the posterior mity of the ductus cochlearis. Above and behind the crista vestibuli, in the and inner wall of the vestibule, is an oval depression, the **recessus ellipticus,** h lodges the utricle. The pyramid and adjacent part of the recessus ellipticus erforated by some 25-30 small apertures, which constitute the **macula cribrosa ior seu major.** The foramina in the pyramid transmit the nerves to the le; those in the recessus, the nerves to the ampullary ends of the superior external semicircular canals. Behind and below the recessus ellipticus is a w, gradually deepening to form a canal, the **aqueductus vestibuli**, which passes wards through the petrous bone, and opens, as a slit-like fissure, about midway een the internal auditory meatus and the groove for the lateral sinus. This

aqueduct measures 8-10 mm. in length, and gives passage to the ductus endolymphaticus and a small vein. The posterior part of the vestibule receives the five rounded apertures of the bony semicircular canals; its anterior part leads, by an elliptical opening, into the scala vestibuli of the cochlea. This opening is bounded inferiorly by a thin osseous lamella, the **lamina spiralis ossea**, which springs from the floor of the vestibule immediately to the outer side of the recessus sphæricus, and forms, in the cochlea, the bony part of the septum between the scala tympani below and the scala vestibuli above. From the anterior part of the floor of the vestibule a narrow cleft, the **fissura vestibuli**, extends forwards into the bony canal of the cochlea. It is bounded internally by the lamina spiralis ossea just referred to, and externally by a second, smaller lamina, the **lamina spiralis secundaria**, which projects inwards from the outer wall of the cochlea. These two lamina are continuous with each other around the posterior extremity of the fissure.

Semicircular Canals (canales semicirculares ossei).—The semicircular canals (Figs. 589, 590), three in number, are situated above and behind the vestibule. They are distinguished from each other by their position, and are named superior, posterior, and external. They open into the vestibule by five apertures, since the inner extremity of the superior and the upper extremity of the posterior join to form a common canal or crus commune. Differing slightly in length, each forms about two-thirds of a circle, one extremity of which is dilated and termed the ampulla (ampulla ossea). Somewhat compressed laterally, their greatest internal diameter is from 1 to 1·5 mm., whilst the diameter of the ampulla is about 2 mm.

The **superior semicircular canal** (canalis semicircularis superior), 15-20 mm. in length, is vertical and placed transversely to the long axis of the petrous bone. Its convexity is directed upwards, and its position is indicated on the anterior surface of the petrous-temporal by an eminence. Its ampullated end (ampulla ossea superior) is anterior and external, and opens into the vestibule immediately above that of the external canal. Its opposite extremity joins the non-ampullated end of the posterior canal to form the **crus commune**, which is about 4 mm. in length, and opens into the upper and inner part of the vestibule. The **posterior semicircular canal** (canalis semicircularis posterior) is the longest of the three and measures from 18-22 mm. Its ampullary end (ampulla ossea posterior) is placed inferiorly, and opens into the lower and back part of the vestibule, where may be seen some six or eight small apertures, forming the **macula cribrosa inferior**, for the transmission of the nerves to this ampulla. Its upper extremity ends in the crus commune. The **external canal** (canalis semicircularis lateralis) is the shortest. It measures from 12 to 15 mm., and arches nearly horizontally outwards. Of its two extremities the external is ampullated (ampulla ossea lateralis), and opens into the vestibule immediately above the fenestra ovalis and in close relationship to the ampullary end of the superior canal.

Although the three canals are generally regarded as opening into the vestibule by five orifices, some observers incline to the view that the ampullary ends of the superior and external canals form a common orifice, and that, consequently, there are only four openings for the three canals. Crum Brown (*Journ. Anat. and Physiol.*, London, vol. viii.) pointed out "that the exterior canal of one ear is very nearly in the same plane as that of the other; while the superior canal of one ear is nearly parallel to the posterior canal of the other."

Cochlea.[1]—When freed from its surroundings the cochlea assumes the form of a short cone (Fig. 591); the central part of its **base** (basis cochleæ) corresponds with the bottom of the internal auditory meatus, whilst its apex or **cupola** is directed forwards and outwards, and comes into close relation with the canal for the tensor tympani muscle. It measures about 9 mm. across the base and about 5 mm. from base to apex, and consists of a spirally arranged tube, which forms from 2½ to 2¾ coils around a central pillar termed the **modiolus**. The length of the tube is from 28 to 30 mm., and its diameter, near the base of the cochlea, 2 mm. Its coils are distinguished by the terms basal, central, and apical; the first, or basal coil, gives rise to the promontory on the inner wall of the tympanum.

[1] In the following description the cochlea is supposed to be placed on its base.

ıe modiolus is about 3 mm. in height, and diminishes rapidly in diameter from ıo apex, while its tapered extremity fails to reach the cupola by a distance of ı. Its **base** (basis modioli) corresponds with the **area cochleæ** on the fundus ; internal auditory meatus, and exhibits the **tractus spiralis foraminosus**, which ıits the nerves for the basal and central coils of the cochlea and the **foramen le**, which gives passage to the nerves for the apical coil. The foramina of the ıs spiralis foraminosus traverse the modiolus, at first parallel to its long axis, fter a varying distance, they bend outwards to reach the attached edge of the a spiralis ossea, where they become expanded and form by their apposition a canal, the **canalis spiralis modioli of Rosenthal**, which lodges the **ganglion of** or **ganglion spirale cochleæ**. From this spiral canal numerous small foramina, e transmission of vessels and nerves, pass outwards to the free edge of the a spiralis. The **lamina spiralis ossea**, a thin, flat shelf of bone, winds round the ılus like the thread of a screw, and, projecting about half-way into the cochlear incompletely divides it into two passages, of which the upper is named the **vestibuli**; the lower, the **scala tympani**. The lamina spiralis ossea commences floor of the vestibule, near the fenestra rotunda, and ends close to the apex cochlea in a sickle-shaped process, the **hamulus**, which assists to form an

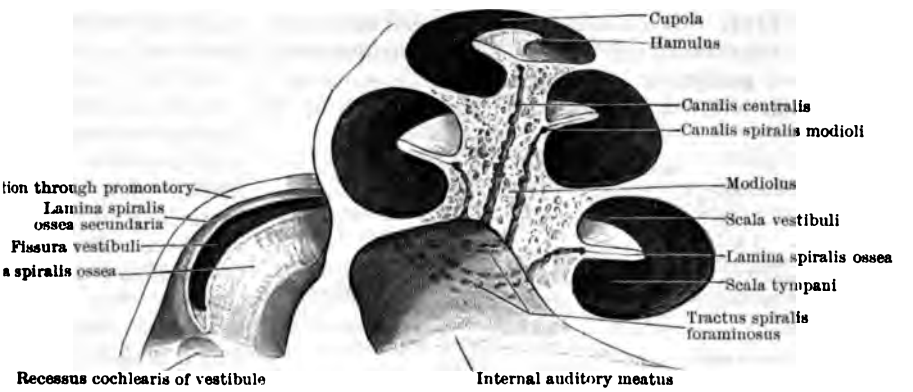


FIG. 591.—SECTION OF BONY COCHLEA.

ıre named the **helicotrema**. In the basil coil the upper surface of the spiral a forms almost a right angle with the modiolus, but the angle becomes more ıore acute on ascending the tube. In the lower half of the basil coil a second r bony plate, the **lamina spiralis secundaria**, projects inwards from the outer f the cochlea towards the lamina spiralis ossea, without, however, reaching it. wed from the vestibule the slit-like fissura vestibuli, already referred to 0), is seen between the two osseous spiral laminæ. A membrane, the **mem-basilaris**, stretches from the free edge of the lamina spiralis ossea to the outer of the cochlea, and completes the septum between the scala vestibuli and tympani, but the two scalæ communicate with each other through the ıg of the helicotrema at the apex of the cochlea. The scala tympani begins fenestra rotunda, through which, in the macerated bone, it communicates the tympanic cavity; in the recent condition the fenestra is closed by the lary tympanic membrane (*vide* p. 752). At the commencement of the scala ını a crest, termed the **crista semilunaris**, stretches from the attached margin lamina spiralis ossea towards the orifice of the fenestra rotunda. Close to this is seen the inner orifice of the **aqueductus cochleæ**, a canal measuring from 10 mm. in length, and opening on the under aspect of the petrous bone internal to ssa jugularis. Through it there is established a communication between the ympani and the subarachnoid space, and through it, also, a small vein passes n the inferior petrosal sinus. The scala vestibuli, the higher of the two es, begins in the vestibule; its diameter in the basal coil is less than that of ala tympani, but in the upper coils it exceeds that of the latter.

ternal Auditory Meatus.—It is convenient, at this stage, to study the

fundus of the internal auditory meatus, which has been referred to as forming the inner wall of the vestibule and the base of the modiolus. It is divided by a transverse ridge, the **crista transversa**, into two parts—an upper or **fossula superior** and a lower or **fossula inferior**. The anterior part of the fossula superior is termed the **area facialis** and exhibits a single large opening, the commencement of the aqueduct of Fallopius, for the transmission of the facial nerve. Its posterior part is named the **area vestibularis superior**, and is perforated by the nerves for utricle and ampullæ of the superior and external semicircular canals. The anterior part of the fossula inferior is termed the **area cochleæ**, and consists of the **canalis centralis** and the surrounding **tractus spiralis foraminosus**, for the passage of the nerves to the cochlea. Behind the area cochleæ, and separated from it by a ridge, is the **area vestibularis inferior**, which transmits the nerves to the saccule, whilst at the posterior part of the fossula inferior is seen a single foramen, the **foramen singulare**, which gives passage to the nerves for the ampulla of the posterior semicircular canal.

MEMBRANOUS LABYRINTH.

The **membranous labyrinth** (labyrinthus membranaceus) assumes, more or less closely (Fig. 592), the form of the bony labyrinth in which it is situated, but does not nearly fill it. It contains a fluid termed **endolymph**, while the interval between it and the bony labyrinth is named the **perilymphatic space**, and is occupied by a fluid termed **perilymph**. The perilymphatic space in the vestibule measures about 3 mm. from without inwards, and about 3·5 mm. from before backwards. It is continuous behind with the perilymphatic space of the semicircular canals, and opens in front into the scala vestibuli. At the apex of the cochlea it is continuous through the helicotrema with the scala tympani, which is shut off from the tympanum by the secondary tympanic membrane. It is also prolonged into the aqueductus cochleæ, at the extremity of which it communicates with the subarachnoid space. The membranous semicircular canals and the membranous canal of the cochlea follow the course of their bony tubes and lie along the inner aspect of their outer walls. The bony vestibule, on the other hand, contains two chief membranous structures, the **utricle** and **saccule**. The former receives the extremities of the membranous semicircular canals, whilst the latter communicates with the membranous canal of the cochlea. Moreover, the cavities of the utricle and saccule are indirectly connected, and thus all parts of the membranous labyrinth communicate with each other, and the contained endolymph is free to move from one portion to another. The vestibule, also, contains the ductus endolymphaticus and the commencement of the ductus cochlearis.

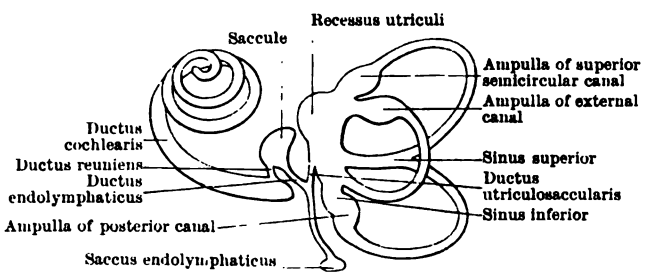


FIG. 592.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE DIFFERENT PARTS ON THE MEMBRANOUS LABYRINTH.

The **utricle** (utriculus), the larger of the two sacs (Fig. 592), occupies the postero-superior portion of the bony vestibule. Its highest part, or **recessus utriculi**, lies in the recessus ellipticus and receives the ampullæ of the superior and external membranous semicircular canals. Its central part receives on its lateral aspect the non-ampullated end of the external canal, and is prolonged upwards and backwards as the **sinus superior**, into which the crus commune of the superior and posterior membranous canals open. The ampulla of the posterior membranous canal opens into its lower and inner part, or **sinus inferior**. The floor and anterior wall of the recessus utriculi are thickened to form the **macula acustica utriculi**, to which are distributed the utricular fibres of the auditory nerve. Whitish in colour, and of an oval or nearly rhombic shape, this macula measures 3 mm. in length and 2·3 *mm. in its* greatest breadth.

The saccule (sacculus) occupies the recessus sphæricus, in the lower and fore-part of the vestibule (Fig. 590). Smaller than the utricle, it is of an oval shape and measures 3 mm. in its longest, and about 2 mm. in its shortest diameter. It presents anteriorly an oval, whitish thickening, the **macula acustica sacculi**. This has a breadth of about 1·5 mm., and to it are distributed the saccular fibres of the auditory nerve. The superior extremity of the saccule is directed upwards and backwards, and forms the **sinus utricularis sacculi**, which abuts against, but does not fuse with, the wall of the utricle. From the lower part of the saccule a short canal, the **ductus reuniens** of Hensen, opens into the ductus cochlearis, a short distance in front of its vestibular or blind extremity. A second small channel, the **ductus endolymphaticus**, is continued from the posterior part of the saccule, and, passing between the utricle and the inner wall of the vestibule, is joined by a small canal, the **ductus utriculosaccularis**, which arises from the inner aspect of the utricle. It then enters and traverses the aqueductus vestibuli and ends, under the dura mater on the posterior surface of the petrous bone, in a dilated blind extremity, termed the recessus Cotugnii, or **saccus endolymphaticus**; this, according to Rüdinger, is perforated by minute foramina, through which the endolymph may pass into the meningeal lymphatics.

The vestibule also contains the blind extremity (cæcum vestibulare) of the ductus cochlearis, which lies immediately below the saccule in the recessus cochlearis of Reichert; from here it passes forwards into the spiral tube of the cochlea.

The walls of the utricle and saccule are composed of connective tissue which blends, along their attached surfaces, with the periosteal lining of the vestibule. It is modified internally to form a homogeneous membrana propria, which is covered by a layer of pavement epithelium and is thickened at the maculæ acusticæ. Towards the periphery of the maculæ the epithelium is cubical, while on them it is columnar.

The **structure of the maculæ** in the utricle and saccule is practically the same; two kinds of cells are found, viz. (*a*) supporting cells, and (*b*) hair cells. The **supporting cells** are somewhat fusiform, each containing, near its middle, a nucleus. Their branched, deep extremities are attached to the membrana propria; their free ends lie between the hair cells and form a thin inner limiting cuticle. The **hair cells** are flask-shaped and do not reach the membrana propria, but end in rounded extremities which lie between the supporting cells. Each contains, at its deepest part, a large nucleus, the rest of the cell being granular and pigmented. From the free end of each there projects a stiff, hair-like process, which, on the application of reagents, splits into several finer filaments. The nerve-fibres pierce the membrana propria, and end in arborisations around the deep extremities of the hair cells. A collection of small, rhombic crystals of carbonate of lime, termed **otoconia**, adheres to each of the maculæ.

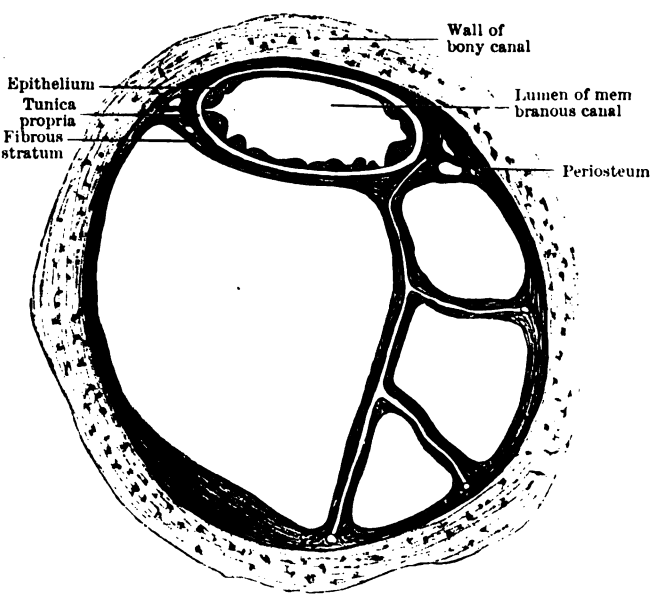


FIG. 593.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF HUMAN SEMICIRCULAR CANAL (Rüdinger).

The **membranous semicircular canals** (ductus semicirculares) are elliptical on transverse section (Fig. 593), and are attached to the greater circumference of the bony tubes. The peripheral portion of the ellipse is fixed to the periosteal lining of the bony canal, whilst the opposite part is free, except that it is connected by irregular bands, the **ligamenta labyrinthi canaliculorum**, which pass through the perilymphatic space to the bony wall. Like the bony canals, each of the membranous canals is dilated at one extremity into an ampulla (ampulla membranacea), which is especially developed towards the concave aspect of the tube. While the membranous ampullæ nearly fill the corresponding portions of the bony tubes, the calibre of the remaining parts of the membranous canals is only equal to about one-fourth of that of the osseous canals.

Each membranous canal consists of three layers, viz.: (*a*) an outer **fibrous stratum** which contains blood-vessels, together with some pigment, and fixes the tube to the bony wall; (*b*) an intermediate, transparent **tunica propria**, presenting a number of papilliform elevations which project towards the lumen. The fibrous layer and tunica propria are thinnest along the attached surface of the tube, and in this region also the papilliform elevations are absent; (*c*) an internal **epithelial layer**, composed of pavement cells. In the ampullæ the tunica propria is much thickened, and projects into the cavity as a transverse elevation, termed the **septum transversum**, which, when seen from above, is somewhat fiddle-shaped; its most prominent part is covered by auditory epithelium forming the **crista acustica**, at each end of which is a half-moon-shaped border of small columnar cells, the **planum semilunatum**. The cells covering the crista acustica consist of **supporting cells** and **hair cells**, and are similar in their arrangement to those in the maculæ of the utricle and saccule. The hairs of the hair cells are, however, considerably longer, and project as far as the middle of the ampullary lumen. In fresh specimens they appear to end free, but in hardened preparations are seen to terminate in a soft, clear, dome-like structure, the **cupola terminalis**, which is striated, the striæ converging towards its concavity. The nerves form arborisations around the bases of the hair cells.

The **membranous cochlea** (ductus cochlearis or scala media) commences in the

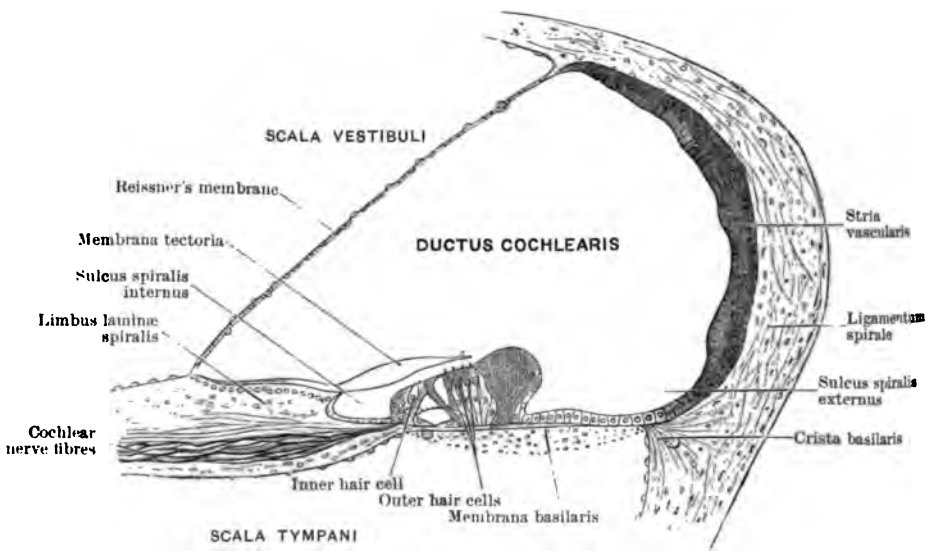


FIG. 594.—SECTION ACROSS THE DUCTUS COCHLEARIS (Retzius).

recessus cochlearis of the vestibule by a blind extremity (cæcum vestibulare), close to which it receives the ductus reuniens of Hensen (*vide* p. 763). It forms a spirally arranged canal inside the bony cochlea, and ends at the apex of the latter in a second blind extremity, the **lagena**, or cæcum cupulare, which is fixed to the cupola and partly bounds the helicotrema. As already stated (*vide* p. 761), the *membrana basilaris* extends from the free edge of the lamina spiralis ossea to the outer

wall of the cochlea. A second, more delicate membrane, the **membrane of Reissner,** or membrana vestibularis, stretches from the thickened periosteum covering the upper surface of the lamina spiralis ossea to the outer cochlear wall, some little distance above the external attachment of the membrana basilaris. A canal is thus enclosed between the underlying scala tympani and the overlying scala vestibuli, and constitutes the membranous cochlea or **ductus cochlearis.** Triangular on transverse section, it possesses a roof, an outer wall, and a floor, and is lined throughout with epithelium and filled with endolymph. On its floor the epithelium is greatly modified, and here are found the endings of the cochlear division of the auditory nerve.

The **roof** or **vestibular wall** of the ductus cochlearis is formed by the membrane of Reissner, which consists of a delicate, nearly homogeneous membrane, covered on its two surfaces by a layer of epithelium. Its entire thickness is about 3 μ.

The **outer wall** of the ductus cochlearis (Fig. 595) consists of the periosteal lining of the bony cochlea, which, however, is much thickened and greatly modified to form what is termed the **ligamentum spirale cochleæ.** Occupying the whole outer wall, this ligament projects inwards inferiorly as a triangular prominence, the **crista basilaris,** to which the outer edge of the membrana basilaris is attached. The fibres of the membrane radiate into the ligament in the form of a series of bundles analogous to the ligamentum pectinatum iridis. In the upper part of the ligamentum spirale the periosteum is of a reddish yellow colour, and contains, immediately under its epithelial lining, numerous small blood-vessels and capillary loops, forming the **stria vascularis.** The lower limit of this stria is bounded by a prominence, the **prominentia spiralis,** in which is seen a vessel, the **vas prominens,** and between this prominence and the crista basilaris is a concavity, the **sulcus spiralis externus.** The height of the outer wall diminishes towards the apex of the cochlea.

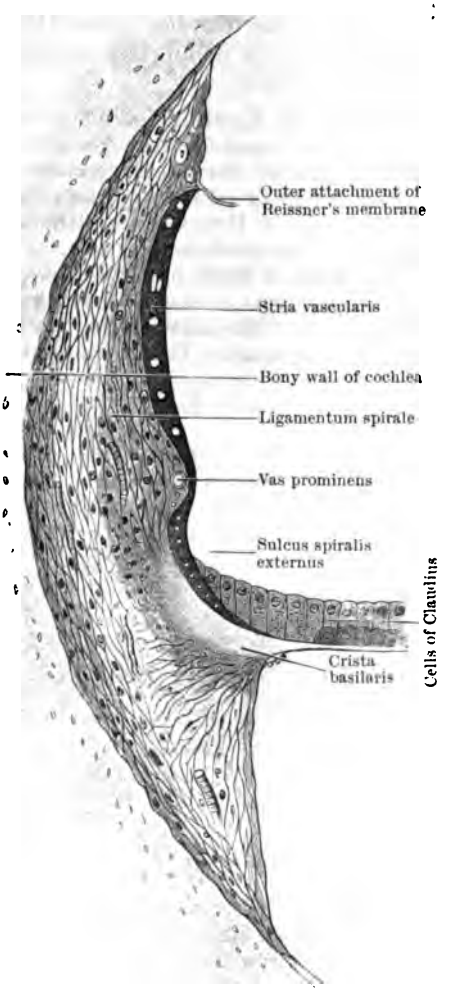


FIG. 595.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH OUTER WALL OF DUCTUS COCHLEARIS (Schwalbe).

The **floor** or **tympanal wall** of the ductus cochlearis is formed by the periosteum covering that portion of the lamina spiralis ossea which is situated to the outer side of Reissner's membrane, and by the **membrana basilaris,** which stretches from the free edge of the lamina spiralis ossea to the crista basilaris. On the inner part of the membrana basilaris the complicated structure termed the **organ of Corti** is situated. The lamina spiralis ossea consists of two plates of bone, between which are placed the canals for the branches of the cochlear nerve. On the upper plate the periosteum is thickened and modified to form the **limbus laminæ spiralis,** the outer extremity of which forms a C-shaped concavity, the **sulcus spiralis internus.** The portions of the limbus which project outwards, above and below this concavity, are termed respectively the **labium vestibulare** and **labium tympanicum.** The latter is perforated by some 4000 small apertures, the **foramina nervosa,** or habenula perforata, for the transmission of the cochlear nerves. Externally it becomes continuous with the

membrana basilaris. The upper surface of the labium vestibulare presents a number of furrows crossing each other nearly at right angles, and intersecting a series of elevations which, at the free margin of the labium, form a row of tooth-like structures, some 7000 in number, the **auditory teeth of Huschke**. Covering the limbus is a layer of apparently squamous epithelium; the deeper protoplasmic portions of the cells, however, with their contained nuclei, fill up the intervals between the elevations and auditory teeth. This layer of epithelium is continuous with that covering the under surface of Reissner's membrane and with that which lines the sulcus spiralis internus.

Membrana Basilaris.—The inner part of this membrane is thin, and supports the organ of Corti; it is named the **zona arcuata**, and reaches as far as the foot-plate of the outer rod of Corti. Its outer part, extending from the foot-plate of the outer rod of Corti to the crista basilaris, is thicker and distinctly striated, and is termed the **zona pectinata**. The substantia propria of the membrane is almost homogeneous, but exhibits, in its deeper part, numerous fibres. These fibres are most distinct in the zona pectinata, and number, according to Retzius, about 24,000. Covering the under surface of the membrana basilaris is a layer of connective tissue, which contains, in its inner part, small blood-vessels, one of which, larger than the rest, lies below the tunnel of Corti and is named the vas spirale. The width of the membrana basilaris increases from 210 μ in the basil coil to 360 μ in the apical coil.

Organ of Corti (Fig. 596).—Placed upon the inner portion of the membrana basilaris, the organ of Corti consists of an epithelial eminence which extends along the entire length of the ductus cochlearis, and comprises the following structures, viz.: (1) Corti's rods or pillars, (2) hair cells (inner and outer), (3) supporting cells of Deiters, (4) the cells of Hensen and Claudius, (5) the lamina reticularis, and (6) a cuticular membrane, the membrana tectoria.

The **rods of Corti** form two rows, **inner** and **outer**, of stiff, pillar-like structures, and each rod presents a base or foot-plate, an intermediate elongated portion, and an upper end or head. The bases of the two rows are planted on the membrana basilaris some little distance apart. The intermediate portions incline towards each other and the heads

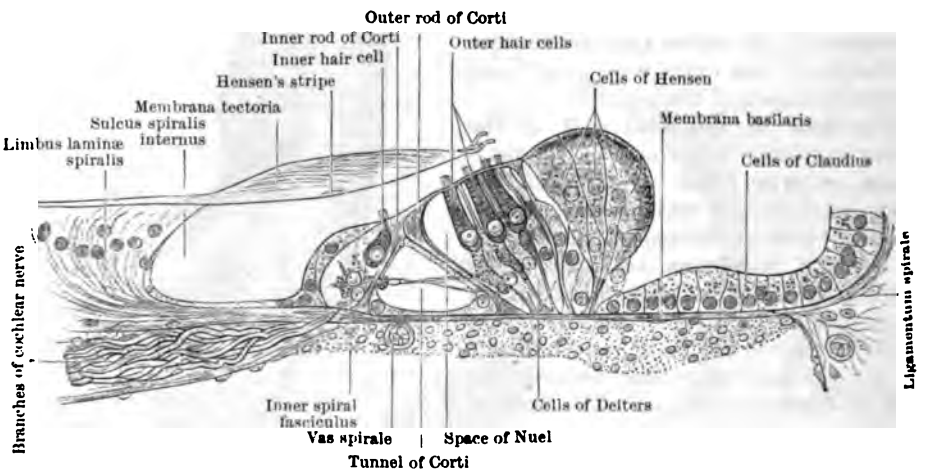


FIG. 596.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF CORTI'S ORGAN FROM THE CENTRAL COIL OF COCHLEA (Retzius).

come into contact, so that, between the two rows above and the membrana basilaris below, there is enclosed a triangular tunnel, the **tunnel of Corti**; this tunnel increases both in height and width on passing towards the apex of the cochlea. The **inner rods** number nearly 6000, and the head of each resembles somewhat the upper end of the ulna, presenting a deep concavity, externally, for the reception of a corresponding convexity on the head of the outer rod. The part of the head which overhangs this concavity is prolonged outwards, under the name of the **head-plate**, and overlaps the head of the outer rod. The expanded bases of the inner rods are situated on the innermost portion of the membrana basilaris, immediately to the outer side of the foramina nervosa of the labium tympanicum. The intermediate parts of the inner rods are sinuously curved, and form, with the

embrana basilaris, an angle of about 60°. The **outer rods** number about 4000, and are nger than the inner, especially in the upper part of the cochlea. They are more inclined rwards the membrana basilaris, and form with it an angle of about 40°. The head of ch is convex internally, to fit the concavity on the head of the inner rod, and is prolonged utwards as a plate, the **phalangeal process**, which becomes connected with the lamina eticularis. In the head is an oval body which has an affinity for certain reagents. The ain part of each rod consists of a nearly homogeneous material, which is finely striated. t the bases of the rods, on the side next the tunnel, is a nucleated mass of protoplasm hich reaches as far as the heads of the rods, and covers also the greater part of the unnel floor. This may be regarded as the undifferentiated part of the cell from which ne rod was developed. Slit-like intervals, for the transmission of nerves, exist between ne intermediate portions of adjacent rods.

Hair Cells.—These, like Corti's rods, form two sets, **inner** and **outer**. The former onsists of a single row lying immediately internal to the inner rods—the latter of three, r, it may be, four rows placed to the outer side of the external rods. The **inner hair ells** are about 3500 in number, and have a greater diameter than the inner rods, and so ach is supported by more than one rod. Somewhat oval in shape, their free extremities re surmounted by about twenty fine hair-like processes, arranged in the form of a rescent, with its concavity directed inwards. The deep end of the cell is rounded, and ontains a large nucleus. It reaches only about half-way down the rod, and in contact ith it are the arborisations of the nerve terminations. To the inner side of this row of air cells are two or three rows of elongated columnar cells, which act as supporting cells, nd are continuous with the low columnar cells lining the sulcus spiralis internus. The **uter hair cells** number about 12,000, and form three rows in the basal coil and four ows in the upper two coils, although in the higher coils the rows are not so regularly rranged. Their rounded free extremities support some twenty hairlets arranged in the orm of a crescent, opening inwards. Their deep extremities reach about half-way to the embrana basilaris, and are in contact with the nerve arborisations.

Alternating with the rows of the outer hair cells are the rows of **Deiters' supporting ells**, the lower extremities of which are expanded on the membrana basilaris, whilst their pper ends are tapered; the nucleus is placed near the middle of each cell, and, in addition, ach cell contains a bright, thread-like structure called the **supporting fibre**. This fibre s attached by a club-shaped base to the membrana basilaris, and expands, at the free nd of the cell, to form a **phalangeal process** of the membrana reticularis.

The **cells of Hensen**, or outer supporting cells, consist of about half a dozen rows, mmediately outside Deiters' cells, and form a well-marked elevation on the floor of the uctus cochlearis. Their deep extremities are narrow and attached to the membrana asilaris, while their free ends are expanded; each cell contains a distinct nucleus and some pigment granules. The columnar cells, situated externally to the cells of Hensen, cover the outer part of the zona pectinata, and are named the **cells of Claudius**. A space, the **space of Nuel**, exists between the outer rods of Corti and the neighbouring row of hair cells. It communicates internally with Corti's tunnel, and extends outwards between the outer hair cells as far as Hensen's cells.

The **lamina reticularis** is a thin cuticular structure which lies over Corti's organ, and extends from the heads of the outer rods as far as Hensen's cells, where it ends in a row of quadrilateral areas which form its outer border. On looking at it from above it is seen to consist of two or three rows of structures, named **phalanges**, which are elongated cuticular plates resembling in shape the digital phalanges. The innermost row is formed by the phalangeal processes of the heads of the outer row of Corti's rods; the succeeding row, or rows, represent the expanded upper ends of Deiters' supporting cells. The number of rows of phalanges, therefore, varies with the number of rows of outer hair cells and the alternating cells of Deiters. The phalanges separate the free ends of the hair cells from each other, since these are seen to occupy the somewhat circular apertures between their constricted middle portions.

The **membrana tectoria** (Fig. 596) is an elastic membrane overlying the sulcus spiralis internus and the organ of Corti. Attached, by its inner end, to the limbus laminæ spiralis, near the lower edge of Reissner's membrane, it reaches outwards as far as the outer row of hair cells. Its inner portion is thin and overlies the auditory teeth of Huschke. Its outer part is, at first, much thickened, but becomes attenuated near its external border, which, according to Retzius, is attached to the outer row of Deiters' cells. Its lower edge presents a firm, homogeneous border, and opposite the inner row of hair cells contains a clear, spirally arranged band, named **Hensen's stripe**. Probably the membrana tectoria acts as a damper comparable to the otoconia in the utricle and saccule.

Auditory Nerve (Fig. 597).—The auditory nerve consists of two main parts, the **ramus vestibularis** and the **ramus cochlearis**; as the former traverses the internal auditory meatus it presents a gangliform swelling, the **ganglion of Scarpa**. The

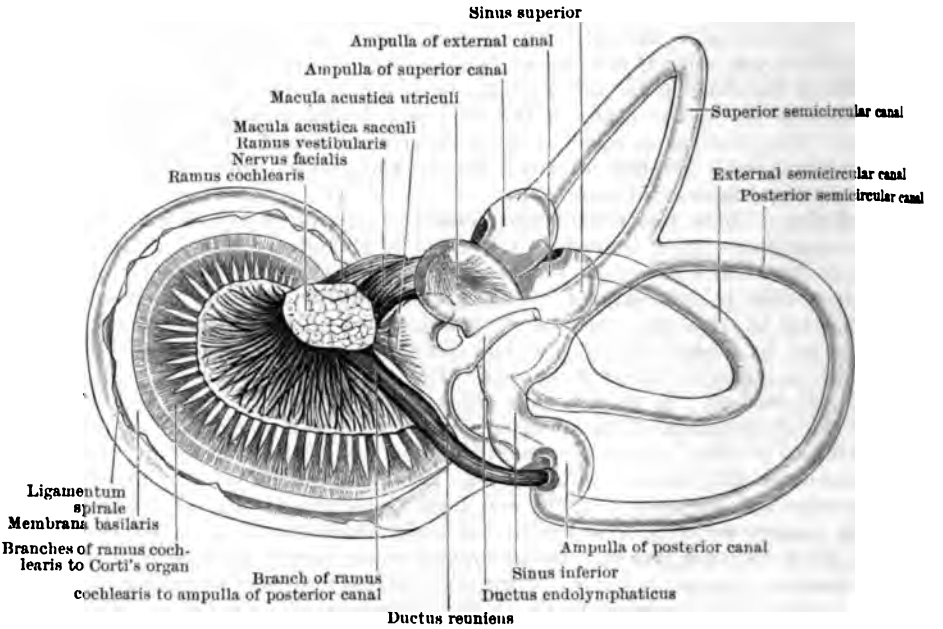


FIG. 597.—MEMBRANOUS LABYRINTH OF A FIVE MONTHS' FŒTUS, viewed from its postero-mesial aspect (Retzius).

ramus vestibularis divides into three branches, the filaments of which pass through the foramina in the area vestibularis superior, and are distributed to the macula acustica utriculi and the ampullæ of the superior and external semicircular canals. The ramus cochlearis gives off a branch to the macula acustica sacculi and another to the ampulla of the posterior semicircular canal. The former exhibits a gangliform swelling beyond which its filaments pass through the foramina in the area vestibularis inferior; the latter is transmitted through the foramen singulare and in this part of its course the nerve possesses two gangliform enlargements. The remainder of the ramus cochlearis is distributed to the hair cells of Corti's organ, the branches for the basal and middle coils entering the foramina of the tractus spiralis foraminosus, that for the apical coil passing up through the canalis centralis of the modiolus. Extending upwards, in the bony canal of the modiolus, the nerve-fibres radiate outwards between the lamellæ of the lamina spiralis ossea. Contained in the spiral canal of the modiolus, near the attached margin of the lamina, is a ganglion which winds spirally round the modiolus, and is named the **ganglion spirale** or ganglion of Corti (Fig. 598). It consists of bipolar nerve-cells, and each nerve-fibre, probably, has its continuity interrupted by one of these cells. Beyond the ganglion spirale the nerve-fibres extend outwards, at first in bundles, and then in a more or less continuous sheet, from the outer edge of which they are again collected into bundles, which pass through the foramina nervosa of the lamina tympanicum. Beyond this they appear as naked axis-cylinders, and, turning in a spiral manner (**inner** or **first spiral fasciculus**), send fibrillæ towards the

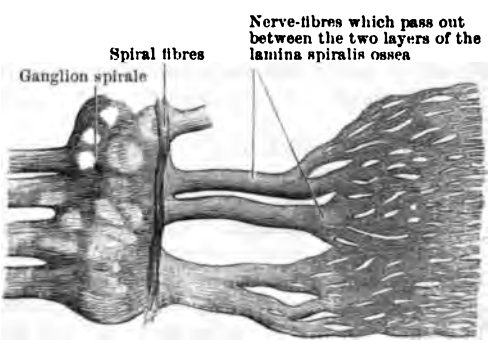


FIG. 598.—PART OF COCHLEAR NERVE, highly magnified (Henle).

r row of hair cells. Other fibrils pass outwards between the inner rods form **a second spiral fasciculus** in Corti's tunnel, from which fibrils extend vards across the tunnel, and, passing between the outer rods, enter Nuel's e. They form a spiral fasciculus on the inner aspect of each row of Deiters' , and from these fasciculi fibrillæ pass towards the bases of the outer hair cells.

chwalbe divides the auditory nerve into three portions, viz.: (1) **ramus utriculo-ampullaris**, sponding with the ramus vestibularis already described; (2) **ramus sacculo-ampullaris**, for saccule and posterior ampulla; and (3) **ramus cochlearis**, for the ductus cochlearis.

essels of the Internal Ear.—The **auditory artery**, a branch of the basilar, enters the internal tory meatus and divides into vestibular and cochlear branches. The vestibular branch sup- the soft tissues in the vestibule and semicircular canals, each canal receiving two arteries, h, starting from opposite extremities of the canal, anastomose on the summit of the arch. cochlear branch divides into numerous twigs, which enter the foramina in the tractus alis foraminosus, and run outwards in the lamina spiralis ossea to reach the soft structures; largest of these arteries runs in the canalis centralis. The stylo-mastoid artery also supplies minute branches to the cochlea. Siebenmann describes the auditory artery as dividing into e branches, viz.: (1) anterior vestibular, (2) cochlear proper, and (3) vestibulo-cochlear. The s from the cochlea and vestibule unite at the bottom of the meatus with the veins from the circular canals to form the **internal auditory vein**, which may either open into the posterior of the inferior petrosal sinus or into the lateral sinus. Small veins also pass through the ductus cochleæ and aqueductus vestibuli, the former opening into the inferior petrosal sinus nto the internal jugular vein, the latter into the superior petrosal sinus.

Development of Labyrinth.

The epithelial lining of the labyrinth is derived from an invagination of the cephalic derm, termed the **auditory pit**, which appears opposite the hind brain immediately e the first eral cleft. mouth of pit is closed he growing ther of its gins, and it assumes the of a hollow cle, the **otic cle**, lined by helium; the clesinks into subjacent oderm, and net by the tory nerve wing out the neural . The vesi- oon becomes -shaped; its r tapering is named the **ssus laby- hi**, and forms

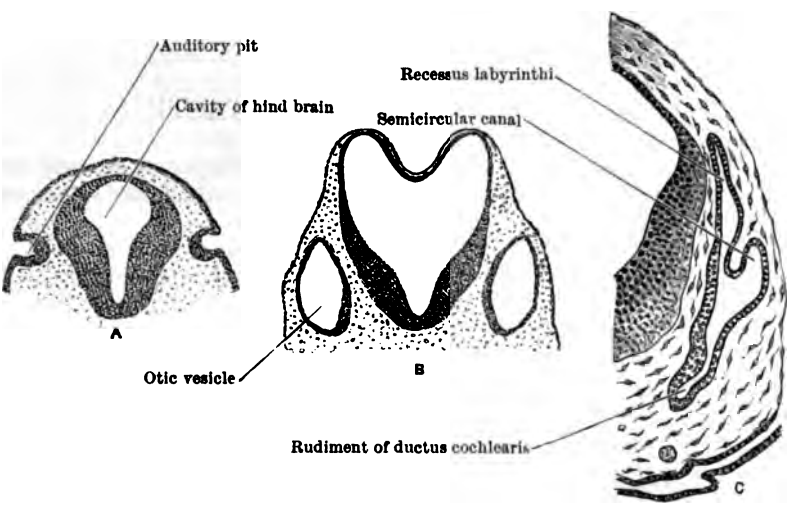


FIG. 599.—SECTIONS THROUGH THE REGION OF THE HIND BRAIN OF FŒTAL RABBITS (to illustrate the development of the labyrinthine epithelium).

In A the ectoderm is invaginated to form the auditory pit; in B the auditory pit is closed and detached from the ectoderm, forming the otic vesicle; while C shows a further stage in the development of the vesicle.

future ductus endolymphaticus. About the fifth week, the lower part of the vesicle olonged forwards as a tubular elongation, the future ductus cochlearis. This is at straight, but soon becomes curved on itself, so that at the twelfth week all three coils lifferentiated. From the upper part of the vesicle the semicircular canals are developed, appear as hollow, disc-like evaginations, the central parts of the two walls of which sce and disappear, leaving only the peripheral rings or canals. The three canals are about the beginning of the second month, and are developed in the following order, superior, posterior, and external. The intermediate part of the otic vesicle represents vestibule, and is divided by a constriction into an anterior part, the saccule, communi- g with the ductus cochlearis, and a posterior portion, the utricle, receiving the ex- ities of the semicircular canals. The constriction extends for some distance into

the ductus endolymphaticus, and thus the utricle and saccule are only indirectly connected by a Y-shaped tube. Another constriction makes its appearance between the saccule and the ductus cochlearis near its commencement, and forms the **canalis reuniens** of Hensen. The epithelial lining is at first columnar, but becomes cubical throughout the whole labyrinth, except opposite the terminations of the auditory nerve, where it forms the columnar epithelium of the maculæ of the utricle and saccule, of the cristæ ampullares and of the organ of Corti. On the floor of the ductus cochlearis two ridges appear, of which the inner forms the limbus laminæ spiralis, whilst the cells of the outer become modified to form the rods of Corti, the hair cells, and the supporting cells of Deiters and Hensen.

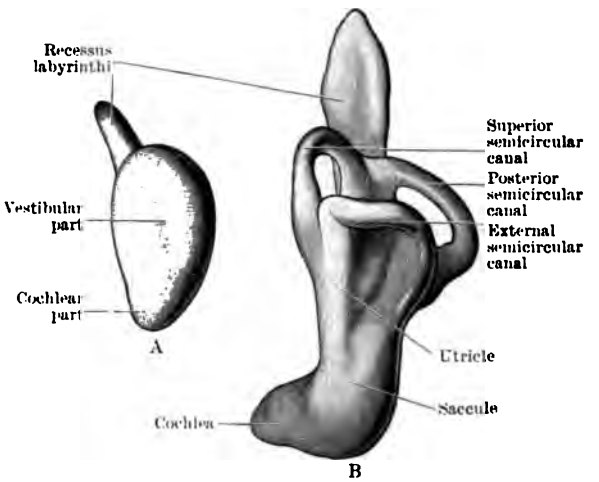


FIG. 600.

A, Left labyrinth of a human embryo of about four weeks; B, Left labyrinth of a human embryo of about five weeks (from W. His, jun.)

The mesoderm surrounding the otic vesicle is differentiated into: (1) a fibrous layer, the wall of the membranous labyrinth; (2) a cartilaginous external capsule, the future petrous bone; and (3) an intervening layer of gelatinous tissue, which is ultimately absorbed to form the perilymphatic space between the bony and membranous labyrinths.

ORGANS OF TASTE.

The peripheral organs of the sense of taste (organon gustus) consist of groups of modified epithelial cells, termed the **taste buds**, which are found on certain parts of the tongue and its immediate neighbourhood.

Taste buds are present in large numbers around the circumference of the papillæ vallatæ, while some are also found on their opposing walls (Fig. 601). They

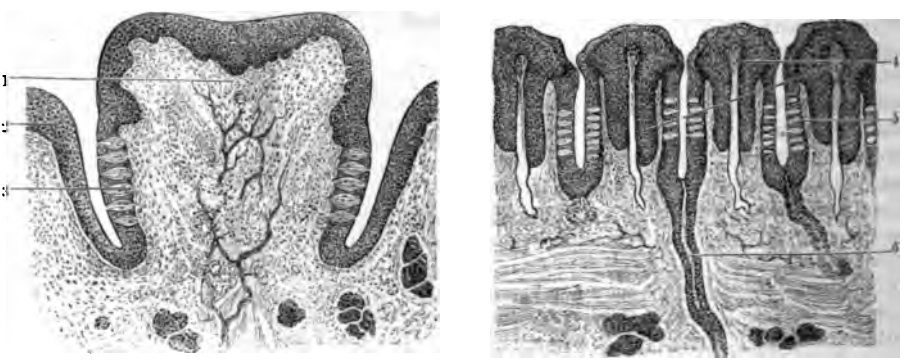


FIG. 601.

A, Section through a papilla vallata of human tongue. B, Section through a part of the papilla foliata of a rabbit.

1. Papilla. 2. Vallum 3. Taste buds. 4. Papillæ. 5. Taste buds. 6. Duct of serous gland.

are very numerous over the fimbriæ linguæ, which correspond with the papillæ foliatæ of the tongue of the rabbit, and are also found over the posterior part and sides of the tongue, either on the papillæ fungiformes or throughout the stratified epithelium. They exist, also, on the buccal surface of the soft palate and on the posterior aspect of the epiglottis.

tructure of Taste Buds (Fig. 602).—They are oval or flask-shaped, and by nests in the stratified epithelium of the regions mentioned. The deep mity of each is somewhat expanded and rests upon the corium; the free end rforated by a minute pore, termed the **gustatory pore**. They consist of modified ielial cells, which are grouped under the two varieties of—(*a*) supporting cells,

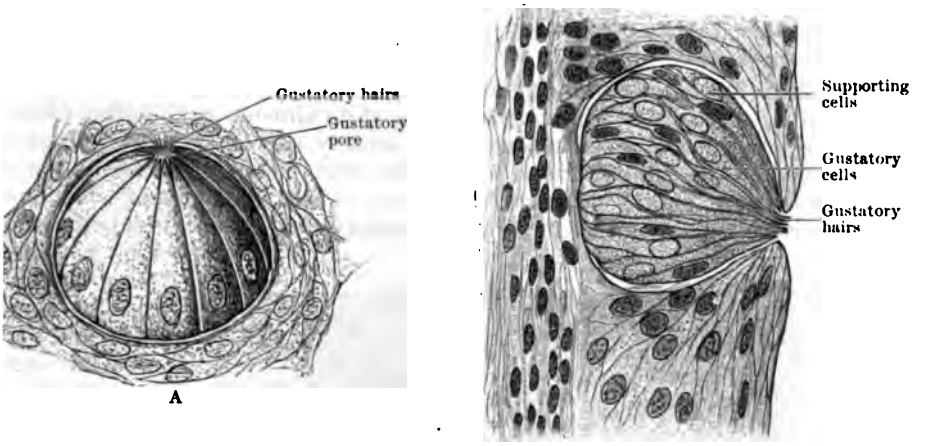


FIG. 602.

ee-quarter surface view of taste bud from the pilla foliata of a rabbit (highly magnified). B, Vertical section of taste bud from the papilla foliata of a rabbit (highly magnified).

(*b*) gustatory cells (Fig. 603). The **supporting cells** are elongated, nucleated lles, and are mostly arranged like cask staves to form the outer envelope of ud. Some are, however, found in the interior of the bud, amongst the **gustatory**

The latter occupy the centre of the bud, and present a nucleated cell-body, h is prolonged into a peripheral and a central process. The peripheral process d-like and almost hyaline, and terminates at the gustatory pore in a hair-filament, **gustatory hair**. The central ss passes inwards towards the deep mity of the bud, where it ends free, r in a single varicose filament or by ning bifurcated or branched.

lerves of Taste. — The nerve which lies the taste buds over the anterior of the tongue is probably the chorda ani, which, although a branch of the l nerve, is generally regarded as being nuous with the pars intermedia of berg; that for the posterior part is the o-pharyngeal. The internal laryngeal ch of the vagus nerve supplies the ottis, together with a small area of the ie immediately in front of it. The nerve s, having lost their medullary sheaths, ramify partly between the gustatory and partly amongst the cells of the bud capsule. It was formerly thought the nerve-fibrils were directly continuous with the central ends of the tory cells, but this view is no longer entertained.

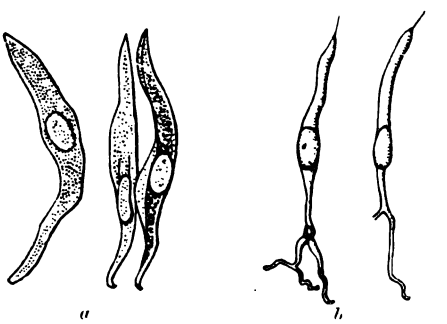


FIG. 603.—ISOLATED CELLS FROM TASTE BUD OF RABBIT (Engelmann).

a, Supporting cells. *b*, Gustatory cells.

he ducts of Ebner's glands open into the bottom of the valleys surrounding apillæ vallatæ, and the serous-like secretion of these glands probably washes ree hair-like extremities of the gustatory cells, and so renders them ready to imulated by successive substances. It should be added that there is a close iation between the senses of smell and taste. This can be best appreciated by dering the defective taste perceptions resulting from inflammatory conditions e nasal mucous membrane, or the common practice of holding the nose in to minimise the taste of nauseous drugs.

THE SKIN OR INTEGUMENT.

ORGANS OF TOUCH.

The Skin.

The **skin** (integumentum commune) covers the body, and is continuous, at the orifices on its surface, with the mucous lining of its alimentary and other canals. It contains the peripheral terminations of the sensory nerves, and serves as an organ of protection to the deeper tissues. It is the chief factor in the regulation of the body temperature, and by means of the sweat and sebaceous glands, which open on its free surface, constitutes an important excretory structure. Its superficial layers are modified to form appendages in the shape of hairs and nails.

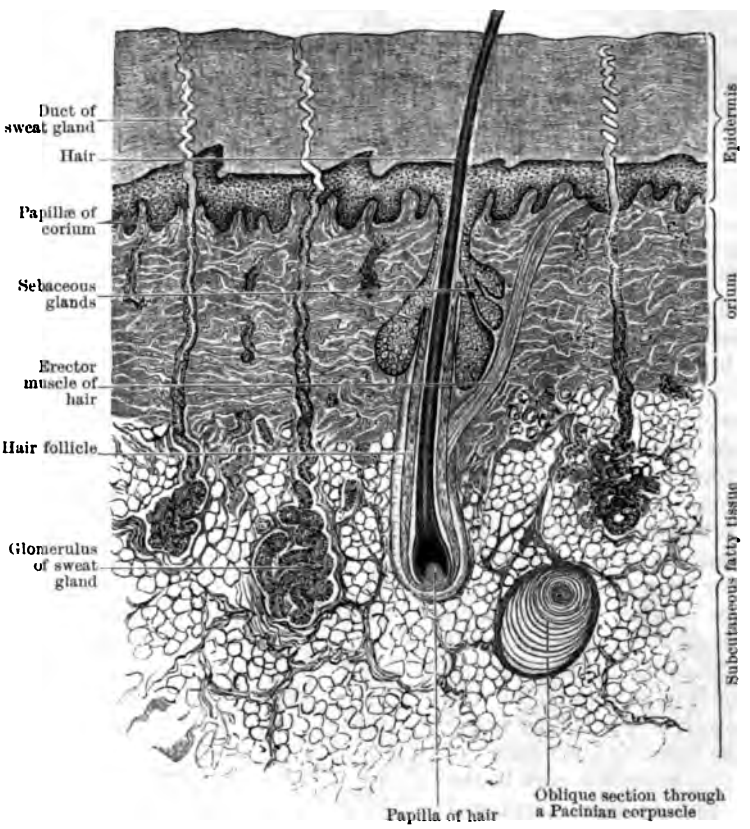


Fig. 604. Vertical Section of the Skin (schematic).

The superficial area of the skin averages about one and a half square metres, whilst its thickness varies from 0·5 to 4 mm., being greatest on the palms of the hands and soles of the feet, and on the back of the neck and shoulders, and least on the eyelids and penis. It is very elastic and resistant, and its colour, determined partly by its own pigment and partly by that of the blood, is deeper on exposed parts and in the regions of the genitals, axillæ, and mammary areolæ, than elsewhere. The colour also varies with race and age, the different races of the world being roughly classified, according to the colour of their skin, into the three groups of white, yellow, and black. Pinkish in colour in childhood, the skin assumes a yellowish tinge in old age, while in certain diseases (*e.g.* icterus and melasma Addisonii) it undergoes marked alteration.

The surface of the skin is perforated by the hair follicles and by the ducts of the sweat and sebaceous glands, and on the palms, soles, and flexor aspect of the digits it presents numerous permanent ridges (cristæ cutis) which correspond with rows of underlying papillæ. Over the terminal phalanges these ridges form distinctive patterns, which are retained from youth to old age, and are utilised for purposes of identification. Folds of the skin (retinacula cutis) are seen in the neighbourhood of the joints, and it can be thrown into wrinkles by the contraction of the *subcutaneous* muscles, where these exist. Over the greater part of the body it is freely

ɔvable; but on the scalp and outer surface of the pinna, as well as on the palms d soles, it is bound down to the subjacent tissues.

The skin consists of two strata, viz.: a deep, termed the dermis or corium, and superficial, named the epidermis (Fig. 604).

The **corium** gives elasticity and sensibility to the skin, and consists essentially a felted interlacement of connective tissue and elastic fibres. In its deeper part, **stratum reticulare**, the fibrous bundles are coarse and form an open network, in e meshes of which are vessels, nerves, pellets of fat, hair follicles, and glands. is reticular stratum passes, as a rule, without any line of demarcation, into the nniculus adiposus or subcutaneous fatty tissue, but in some parts it rests upon a yer of striped or unstriped muscular fibres—the latter in the case of the scrotum. n the superficial layer, or **stratum papillare**, of the corium, the connective tissue-undles are finer and rm a close network. rojecting from its free rface are numerous nger-like, single, or ranched elevations, ermed **papillæ** (Fig. 05), the free ends of hich are received into orresponding depressions on the under surface of the epidermis. hese papillæ vary in ize, being small on the yelids, but large on the alms and soles, where hey may attain a length f 225 μ, and produce he permanent curved idges already alluded o. Each ridge usually ontains two rows of apillæ, between which ie ducts of the sweat lands pass to reach he surface. The apillæ consist of fine onnective tissue and astic fibres, mostly arranged parallel to the long axis of the papilla. The ajority contain capillary loops, but some the terminations of nerves. The perficial surface of the corium is covered by a thin, homogeneous basement embrane.

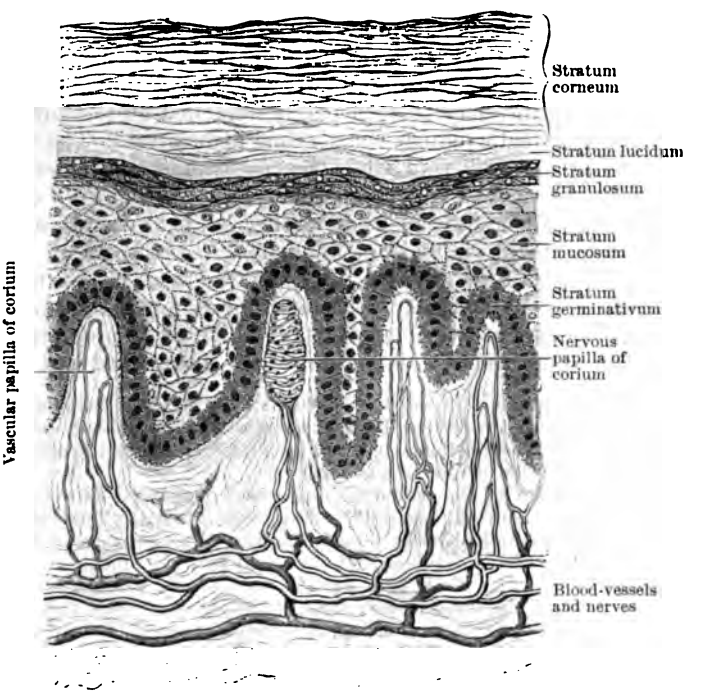


FIG. 605.—VERTICAL SECTION OF EPIDERMIS AND PAPILLÆ OF CORIUM (highly magnified).

The **epidermis** covers the corium; it is non-vascular and consists of stratified pithelium. Its superficial layers are modified to form the **stratum corneum**, or **horny yer** of the skin, which may be separated by maceration or blistering from the deeper, ɔfter portion, or **stratum mucosum** (Malpighi). The epidermis consists from within utwards of the following five strata (Fig. 605):—

1. The **basilar layer**, or **stratum germinativum**, which comprises a single stratum f nucleated columnar cells planted by denticulated extremities on the basement embrane of the corium.

2. The **stratum mucosum**, which consists of six or eight layers of polygonal, ucleated "prickle" or "finger" cells, the processes of which join those of adjacent ells. Between the cells of this layer are minute channels, in which leucocytes or igment granules may be seen. The cells of the stratum mucosum are characerised by the presence of numerous epidermic fibrils, which are coloured violet by æmatoxylin and red by carmine. These fibrils are unaffected by boiling, but well up under the action of acids and alkalies, and form the filaments of union

between adjacent cells. On account of their presence, L. Ranvier (*Compt. r* Paris, Jan. 1899, tome cxxviii.) has named this layer the **stratum filamentc** The dark colour of the negro's skin is caused by the presence of numerous pig granules in the deeper layers of this stratum; the pigment—of which *mel* forms an important constituent—is absent from the more superficial layers o epidermis.

3. The **stratum granulosum**, which comprises two or three layers of horizon arranged, flattened cells, scattered around the nuclei of which are elliptic spherical granules of *eleidin*, a substance staining deeply with carmine, and prol representing an intermediate stage between the protoplasm of the deeper cells the keratin of the superficial layers.

4. The **stratum lucidum**, which is an apparently homogeneous layer, but reality made up of several strata of flattened or irregular squames, some of w may contain eleidin granules.

5. The **stratum corneum**, which comprises several layers of flattened nucleated squames, the more superficial of which are from time to time rem by friction, and may be seen partly detached on the surface. Ranvier named t partly detached squames the **stratum disjunctum**. The deeper cells contain gra of a fatty material which has the consistency and plasticity of beeswax, and s with osmic acid. The peripheral parts of the cells consist of **keratin**, a hi resistant substance which is unaffected by mineral acids, and is indigestib pepsin-hydrochloric acid. Macleod (*Proceedings of the Anatomical Socie Great Britain and Ireland*, May, 1902) found that after digestion of the str corneum in the latter fluid the cells "presented the appearance of a fine net like a honeycomb, the contents of which had completely gone. The periphe the cell alone resisted the action of the pepsin and had become keratinised."

L. Ranvier (*op. cit.*) has pointed out that the **stratum lucidum** is really double, and has n the deeper of its two layers the **stratum intermedium**; this he describes as consisting of t three layers of clear cells with atrophied nuclei, while in the cell-walls the epidermic fibrils rolled up like the threads of a cocoon."

Regeneration of the epidermis is generally regarded as taking place by cell proliferati the stratum germinativum, the young cells gradually passing through the polyhedral granular stages, and ultimately becoming the horny squames of the stratum corneum. Pro Thomson of Oxford considers that, although this view meets all the requirements in white a difficulty is met with if it is applied to coloured races, where most pigment is found i deeper cells of the stratum mucosum, while the superficial layers are free from colour. I deeper cells advance to the surface, it is only reasonable to suppose that they would carry pigment with them. This theory, therefore, necessitates a satisfactory explanation o disappearance of the pigment from the superficial layers. He suggests that possibly the gr of the epidermis is analogous to the growth of the cork cambium of plants, the stratum muc corresponding to the green cells, and the stratum corneum to the corky layer of the cambiu such be the case—and he insists that there is much evidence in support of it—the deeper would advance inwards towards the corium, and the superficial cells would grow outwards to the surface. Under this view the active layers would be the stratum granulosum and str lucidum, and by it many of the difficulties would be explained, including the mysterious appearance of the pigment from the superficial layers; it would also afford a reasonable explan of how it happens that, in old age, a negro's hair becomes white, while his skin retair blackness.

Vessels and Nerves of the Skin.—The **arteries** form a plexus in the cutaneous tissue from which branches extend into the corium, where they su the hair follicles and glands, and form a second plexus under the papillæ, to w small loops are given. The **veins** and **lymphatics** commence in the papillæ, after forming a subpapillary plexus, open into their respective subcutaneous ve

The **nerves** of the skin vary in number in different parts of the body, b extremely numerous where the sense of touch is acute, *e.g.* on the palmar as of the terminal phalanges, while in the skin of the back, where the sensibili less, they are fewer in number. They form a plexus in the corium, and ei terminate amongst the cells of the epidermis, or in special end organs na **tactile corpuscles**. Those ending in the epidermis form a rich subepithelial pl from which delicate fibrils pass between the cells of the rete mucosum, where become beaded, and end in rounded swellings on flattened discs—**the tactile** *of Ranvier.*

The special end organs are of three chief varieties (Fig. 606): (*a*) **Corpuscula ulboidea** (Krausii), found on the lips, glans penis, etc., and consisting of a connective issue capsule enclosing a core of elongated and polygonal cells, amongst which the axis-cylinder of the nerve fibril becomes branched and its ramifications end in clubbed extremities. (*b*) **Corpuscula lamellosa** (Vateri and Pacini). These are small, oval bodies, with a long diameter of 2 to 3 mm., and are found in the subcutaneous tissue attached to the nerve trunks. They are very numerous on the digital nerves, but are present in many other situations, *e.g.* in the mesentery. Each possesses a sheath, consisting of a number of concentrically arranged connective tissue lamellæ, covered by endothelium continuous with the perineurium. The central part of each corpuscle consists of a soft, almost homogeneous core. The nerve-fibre passes along the centre of the stalk of the corpuscle, and, reaching the core, loses its medullary sheath, whilst its axis-cylinder passes into the core and becomes branched near its distal extremity, the branches ending in bulbous enlargements. (*c*) **Corpuscula tactus** (Meissneri). These are very numerous on the flexor aspect of the hands and feet, and especially so in the skin over the terminal phalanges; but they also exist in other parts of the body. They occupy certain of the papillæ of the corium, and are oval in shape, their long diameter in the hand being from 110 μ to 160 μ. They consist of a connective tissue capsule, which sends imperfect septa into the interior of the corpuscle. One or two nerve-fibres perforate the capsule, either directly or after taking a spiral course around it; and losing, as a general rule, their medullary sheath, their axis-cylinders break up into fibrils, which end in globular or discoid enlargements.

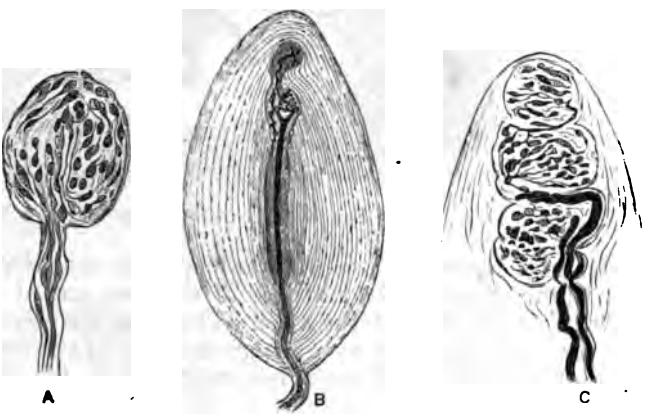


FIG. 606.—TACTILE CORPUSCLES.
A, End bulb (Krause).
B, Corpuscle of Pacini } (after Ranvier).
C, Corpuscle of Meissner }

Ruffini has described a special variety of terminal corpuscle in the human finger. They are termed **Ruffini's endings**, and are situated either at the junction of the corium and subcutaneous issue, or are embedded in the latter. Of an oval shape, they consist of a connective capsule within which the axis-cylinder divides into varicose filaments, and these terminate in small nobs.

APPENDAGES OF THE SKIN.

The appendages of the skin comprise the nails, the hairs, the sebaceous, and the udoriparous or sweat glands.

Nails.—The nails or ungues (Figs. 607, 608) are epidermal structures, and, in ıan, represent the hoofs and claws of the lower animals. The **root** of the nail, or adix unguis, is hidden from view and embedded in a fold of skin; the **body** (corpus nguis), or uncovered part, rests on the corium and ends in a **free edge** (margo iber). The greater part of the lateral margins is overlapped by a duplicature f skin, termed the **nail-wall** or **vallum unguis**. The nails are pink in colour, with he exception of a small semilunar area near the root, which is more opaque than he rest, and is named the **lunula**. The lunulæ diminish in size from the thumb owards the little finger, while the thickness of the nail diminishes towards its root nd lateral margins. The corium under the nail is highly vascular and sensitive, nd presents, especially under the anterior part of the body, numerous longitudinlly arranged papillæ. The part of the corium under the body is termed the **nail ed**; that under the root, the **nail matrix**. The deep part of the nail consists of

the stratum germinativum and stratum mucosum, while its superficial horny portion is constituted by a greatly thickened stratum lucidum, and consists of nucleated, keratinised squames. The stratum corneum is represented by the thin cuticular fold overlapping the lunula, and termed the **eponychium**, while the stratum granulosum can only be traced as far forwards as the nail root.

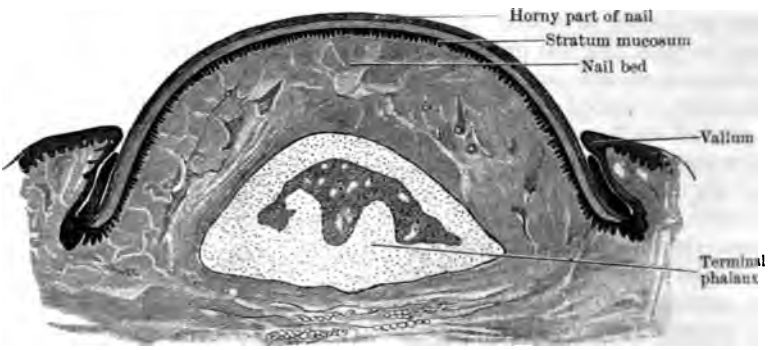


FIG. 607.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A NAIL.

Hairs.—Hairs (pili) are well developed on the scalp, pubes, and margins of the eyelids, in the axilla, the vestibule of the nose, and at the entrance to the concha, and also on the face of the male. Those on the genitals and face appear about puberty. Rudimentary over the greater part of the body, they are entirely absent on the flexor surfaces of the hands and feet, over the dorsal aspect of the terminal

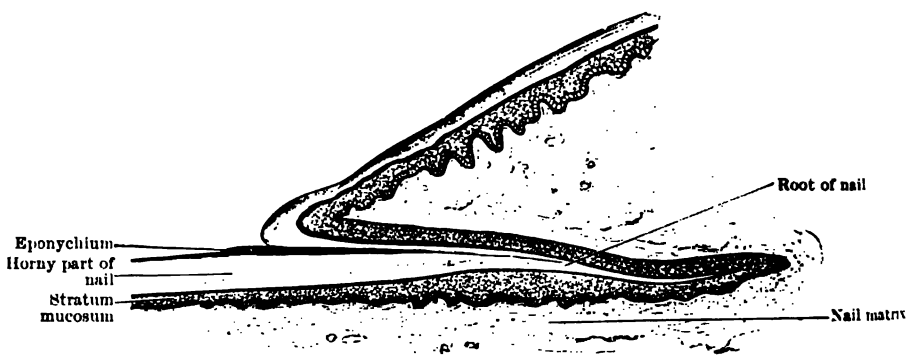


FIG. 608.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH ROOT OF NAIL.

phalanges, the glans penis, the inner surface of the prepuce, and inner aspect of the labia. Marked variations, individual and racial, exist as to the colour of the hair, and also as to the manner of its growth; hence the terms straight, curly, woolly, etc. are used to designate it. Straight hairs are coarser than curly ones, and have, moreover, a circular or oval outline on transverse section, curly hairs being flat and riband-like.

The **root of the hair** (radix pili) is embedded in a depression of the skin, termed the **hair follicle** (Fig. 604); while the free portion is named the **stem or shaft**, and consists from without inwards of three parts, viz. cuticle, cortex, and medulla. The *cuticle* is formed by a layer of imbricated scales which overlap one another from below upwards. The *cortex* consists of longitudinally arranged fibres made up of elongated, closely applied, fusiform cells, which contain pigment and sometimes air spaces, the latter especially in white hairs. The *medulla*, absent from the fine hairs of the body generally and from the hairs of young children, forms a central core, which appears black by transmitted, and white by reflected light, and is composed of polyhedral nucleated cells containing pigment, fat granules, and air spaces.

The **hair follicle** (folliculus pili) consists of an oblique or curved—the latter in

rly hairs—invagination of the epidermis and corium, which in the case of large irs extends into the subcutaneous tissue (Fig. 604); some little distance below its fice the ducts of the sebaceous glands open into it. The portion of the follicle rived from the corium (dermic coat) consists of a fibrous sheath of external longi-dinal and internal circular connective tissue fibres, the latter being lined by a aline layer directly continuous with the basement membrane of the corium. The rts of the follicle derived from the epidermis are named the **inner** and **outer root eaths.** Below the orifices of the sebaceous gland ducts the outer root sheath is rmed by the stratum germinativum and stratum mucosum, while above them all ıe epidermal strata contribute to it. The inner root sheath surrounds the cuticle the hair, and consists from without inwards of— (*a*) ***Henle's layer***, a single stratum nucleated, cubical cells; (*b*) ***Huxley's layer***, a single or double layer of polyhedral ucleated cells; and (*c*) *a **delicate cuticle***, consisting of a single layer of flattened

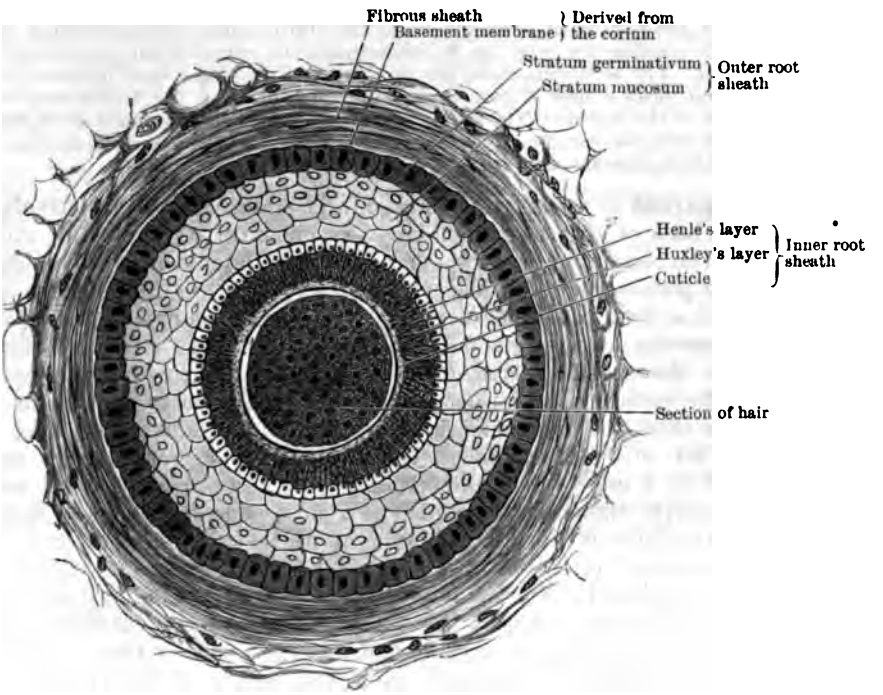


Fig. 609.—Transverse Section of Hair Follicle with contained Hair (highly magnified).

ubricated cells, with atrophied nuclei. The bottom of the hair follicle is indented ı a vascular **papilla** (papilla pili), derived from the corium and capped by the ılb (bulbus pili) or expanded part of the hair root. The cells of the bulb are ntinuous with those of the outer root sheath, and form the different parts of the ıir, as well as its inner root sheath. The vessels form capillary loops in the papilla the hair, and send twigs into the outer layer of its fibrous sheath; the inner ıd outer root sheaths and the different parts of the hair are non-vascular. The ırves terminate in longitudinal and annular fibrils below the level of the sebaceous ands and outside the hyaline layer of the follicle.

Sebaceous glands (glandulæ sebaceæ) exist wherever there are hairs, and their ıcts open into the superficial part of the hair follicles (Fig. 604); the number of ands associated with each follicle varies from one to four. On the labia minora ıd mammary areolæ they open on the surface of the skin independently of hair llicles, and in the latter situation undergo great enlargement during pregnancy. ıe deep extremity of each gland expands into a cluster of oval or flask-shaped **veoli**, which are surrounded by a basement membrane, and filled with polyhedral lls containing oil droplets. By the breaking down of the superficial cells, their ly contents are liberated as the *sebum cutaneum* and discharged into the hair llicle, whilst the deeper cells undergo proliferation. The size of the gland bears

The **sudoriparous** or **sweat glands** are relatively few in number on the back of the trunk, but are very plentiful on the palms and soles, where they open on the summits of the curved ridges. Each consists of an elongated tube, the deeper part of which forms its secretory part, and is coiled in the subcutaneous tissue or deep part of the corium in the form of an ovoid or spherical ball termed the **glomerulus** or **corpus glandulæ sudoriferæ** (Fig. 694). The superficial part of the tube or **ductus sudoriferus** extends through the corium and epidermis and opens on the surface by a funnel-shaped orifice, the **porus sudoriferus**; where the epidermis is thick the duct is spirally coiled. The **glomeruli**, as a rule, vary in diameter from 0·1 to 0·5 mm., but in the axillæ they are much larger, and may measure from 1 to 4 mm. Each is surrounded by a capillary network and by a capsule of connective tissue, inside which is a homogeneous basement membrane. The lumen of the tube is lined by a layer of nucleated, granular, and striated, columnar or prismatic epithelium, between the deep extremities of which and the basement membrane is a layer of non-striped muscular fibres, the long axis of which is more or less parallel with that of the tube. The excretory ducts are devoid of muscular fibres and consist of a basement membrane lined by two or three layers of polyhedral cells which are covered, next the lumen of the tube, by a thin cuticle.

The **glands of Moll** (glandulæ ciliares), opening at the margins of the eyelids, and the **glandulæ ceruminosæ** of the external auditory meatus, are modified sudoriparous glands; the former are, however, not coiled up to form glomeruli, while the cell protoplasm of the latter contains yellowish pigment, and their gland ducts, in the fœtus, open into hair follicles.

Development of the Skin and its Appendages.

Skin. The vascular and sensitive corium is developed from the mesoderm, the cells of which, immediately underlying the ectoderm, have, by the second month of fœtal life, become aggregated together and flattened parallel to the surface of the embryo. By the third month they are seen to form two layers, the superficial of which becomes the corium, and the deeper the subcutaneous tissue; the papillæ of the corium make their appearance in the fourth month. The epidermis, nails, hairs, sweat and sebaceous glands are all of ectodermal origin.

The epidermis at first consists of a single layer of cells, but by the end of the second month it is duplicated, and then exhibits a superficial layer of irregular cells and a deeper layer of more or less cubical cells. By the third month three strata are seen: (*a*) a deep layer, consisting of a single stratum of cubical cells—the future **stratum germinativum**; (*b*) a middle layer, comprising two or three strata of irregular cells—the future **stratum**

osum; and (*c*) an outer layer, a double stratum of large cells. This outer layer ars to be homologous with a thin membrane, termed the *epitrichium*, first described overing the embryo of the sloth and overlying its hairs, but since shown to be present rds and mammals. Over the hairy parts of the body it disappears about the sixth th; but over the free edge and root of the nails, and on the palms and soles, it lops into several layers of cells, which, in these parts, probably persist to form the stratum corneum. The part which persists over the root of the nail is termed *eponychium*, and covers the proximal part of the lunula (*vide* p. 776). The stratum lum is differentiated from the cells of the epitrichium, and, where the latter is lost, ibly forms the superficial layer of the epidermis as it does the horny part of the nails.

Nails.—The first rudiment of the nails is seen about the beginning of the third th of embryonic life, and consists of a thickening of the epitrichium over the extremity ie digits. Owing to the growth of the palmar aspect of the digits, the nail rudiment es to be placed dorsally, and, at its proximal edge, an ingrowth of the stratum osum occurs to form its root, while the future nail becomes limited behind and later- by a groove. The superficial cells of the stratum mucosum become keratinised to a thick stratum lucidum, the future nail proper, over the greater part of which the richium disappears. The latter persists in the adult as the perionyx across the root ie nail, and, until fifth month, also forms a thick mass over the extremity of the nail, is continued into the stratum corneum over the end of the digit. The future distal of the nail, at this stage, is continuous with the stratum lucidum in front of it; but continuity is lost, and by the seventh month the nail presents a free border. The grow in length, and are renewed, in case of removal, by a proliferation of the cells ie stratum mucosum at the root of the nail, while an increase in their thickness takes e from the part of the same stratum which underlies the lunula.

Hairs.—The hair rudiments appear about the third month of embryonic life as solid growths of the stratum mucosum, which pass obliquely into the subjacent corium. deep end of this column of cells becomes expanded to form the hair bulb, and rests papilla derived from the corium, the epidermis immediately overlying which becomes rentiated into the hair and its inner root sheath, while the peripheral cells form its r root sheath. The surrounding corium becomes condensed to form the fibrous sheath e hair follicle, the hyaline layer of which is continuous with the basement membrane ring the corium. The hair gradually elongates, and, reaching the neck of the follicle, tremity lies at first under the epitrichium, but becomes free on the disappearance of atter. This takes place about the fifth month, and the first crop of hairs constitutes *anugo*, which is well developed by the seventh month. The lanugo consists of very ate hairs, some of which are shed before, the remainder shortly after birth—the last op out being those of the eyelashes and scalp—and are replaced by stronger hairs. ding and renewal of the hairs take place during life, the renewal being, of course, absent e case of baldness. Prior to the shedding of a hair active growth and proliferation e cells of the hair bulb cease, and the papilla becomes atrophied, while the hair root, ually approaching the surface, at last drops out. New hairs arise from epidermic , which extend downwards from the follicle, and their development is identical with of the original hairs.

Sebaceous Glands.—These appear about the fifth month as solid outgrowths from ides of the hair follicles, and consist of epidermal offshoots continued from the cells ie outer root sheath. Their deep ends become enlarged and lobulated, to form the ting part of the gland, while the narrow neck connecting this with the follicle forms uct. The sebaceous secretion, together with the cast-off epidermal cells, is collected ie surface of the body during the last months of intrauterine life, and forms a layer rying thickness, termed the *vernix caseosa* or *smegma embryonum*.

Sweat Glands.—These, like the hairs, arise as solid downgrowths of the stratum osum. They descend, however, perpendicularly, instead of obliquely, and are of a wish colour; they appear on the palms and soles early in the fifth month, but much over the hairy parts of the body. The downgrowths extend through the corium, and, aching the subcutaneous tissue, become coiled up to form the secreting part of the l. The lumen of the gland does not open on the surface until the seventh month.

THE VASCULAR SYSTEM.

By Alfred H. Young and Arthur Robinson.

The vascular system consists of a series of tubular vessels, with more or less distinct walls, which run through all parts of the body. Some contain blood, others are filled with a colourless fluid called lymph; hence the distinction between the blood-vascular system and the lymph-vascular system. The two systems differ, not only as regards their contents, but also in their relations to the tissues amongst which they lie; for whilst the vessels of the former system, with the possible exception of the splenic vessels, are closed, those of the latter communicate freely with intercellular spaces and serous sacs.

The **blood-vascular system** is tubular throughout; the tubes or vessels possess distinct walls; they vary in size and in the structure of their walls, but all contain blood, which is conveyed through them to and from the tissue elements of the body. The blood is propelled along the vessels chiefly by a central propulsive organ—the **heart**. The outgoing vessels from the heart, along which blood is transmitted to the tissues, are termed **arteries**; the vessels which return blood from the tissues to the heart are known as **veins**; whilst the smallest tubes—those which connect the arteries and veins together, constituting at once the terminations of the arteries and the commencements of the veins—are called **capillaries**.

Blood capillaries are very small (hair-like) vessels with exceedingly thin walls, which permit of the easy passage outwards of the nutritive plasma from the blood to the tissues, and, in the opposite direction, of some of the products of tissue changes and of modified food material from the alimentary canal.

Arteries and veins are simply conducting passages; structurally they differ from capillaries in the greater complexity of their walls. They vary greatly in size, but are always larger than capillaries. The calibres of the arteries and veins increase progressively from the periphery up to the heart, where the vessels reach their greatest size. With the increase in calibre there is a corresponding increase in the thickness and complexity of their walls.

Structure of Blood Capillaries.—Capillaries measure from $\frac{1}{3000}$ to $\frac{1}{2000}$ of an inch in diameter, and about $\frac{1}{25}$ to $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch in length. Their walls are simple, and, in the smallest capillaries, consist principally of elongated elastic endothelial cells, with sinuous edges, pointed extremities, and oval nuclei. The cells are cemented to one another along their margins by intercellular cement, which readily stains with nitrate of silver. Here and there the cement substance appears to accumulate, forming minute spots indicative of the less perfect apposition of the edges of the cells. These spots, when small, form the so-called **stigmata**; when larger they are known as **stomata**.

The larger capillaries are invested by a connective tissue sheath consisting of branched cells which are united together and to the endothelial cells of the capillary wall. This sheath is termed the **adventitia capillaris**.

Capillaries are arranged in networks, the nature and character of which differ in different tissues. The small arteries which end in them are known as **capillary arterioles**, and the venous radicles which commence from them are appropriately termed **capillary veins**.

ture of arteries and veins.—The delicate elastic endothelial membrane he wall of the simplest capillaries extends as a continuous lining through- whole of the blood-vascular system. The constituent cells are fusiform, nd pointed in the arteries, whilst in the veins they are somewhat shorter der.

nost essential structural difference between capillaries and the arteries and ich they unite together, is to be found in the presence, in both of the latter, ntary muscular fibres inter- ween the endothelial lining outer connective tissue In small vessels, *e.g.* capil- rioles, the muscle cells are number and more or less . In larger vessels the come stronger and thicker, fibres increase and form uous layer, whilst yellow nd ordinary white connec- ue are added in varying proportions. The walls of the vessels thus become plex, and numerous strata may be distinguished; these, however, are for nce regarded as forming three layers, which are known as the inner, nd outer coats, superadded to which is the investing common sheath.

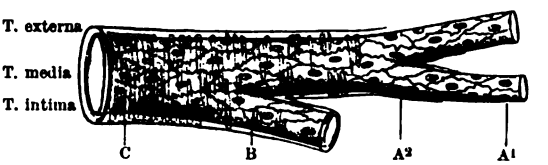
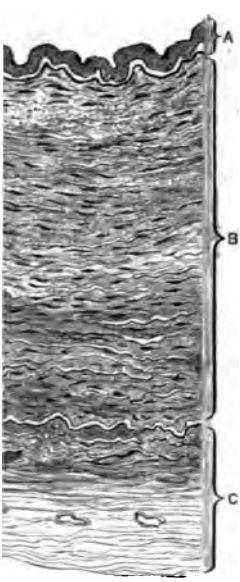


FIG. 610.—STRUCTURE OF BLOOD-VESSELS (diagrammatic).
A¹, Capillary—with simple endothelial walls. A², Larger capillary —with connective tissue sheath, "adventitia capillaris." B, Capillary arteriole—showing muscle cells of middle coat, few and scattered. C. Artery—muscular elements of the tunica media forming a continuous layer.

cture of Arteries.—The walls of arteries are stronger and thicker than veins of corresponding size, the inner and middle coats being particularly lastic and muscular elements.

r coat (tunica intima).—The simple endothelial layer of the arterioles is ened by the addition of yellow elastic tissue, the fibres of which are arranged in such a manner as to simulate a fene- strated membrane. In arteries of medium size the elastic lamina is separated from the endothelium by a layer of connective tissue consisting of branched cells and numerous fibrils. In the larger arteries the sub-endothelial connective tissue is considerably increased, and delicate elastic fibres appear which connect it with the more externally situated fene- strated elastic layer.



-TRANSVERSE SECTION GH THE WALL OF A LARGE Y.
intima. B, Tunica media. C, Tunica externa.

The **middle coat** (tunica media) in the capil- lary arterioles consists solely of scattered unstriped muscle fibres; the individual fibres are circularly disposed, but do not entirely surround the vessel. In small arteries the muscle cells are so far increased in amount that they form a continuous though thin layer. As the arteries increase in size additional layers of muscle cells are added, and the greater thickness of the arterial wall is mainly due to this increase of the muscular elements of the middle coat. In the larger vessels delicate laminæ of elastic tissue alternate with the layers of muscular fibres, and in the aorta and the carotid arteries, as well as in some of the branches of the latter, the elastic elements largely preponderate. In the first part of the aorta, in the pulmonary artery, and in the arteries of the retina, the muscular fibres are entirely replaced by elastic tissue.

external coat (tunica externa) of an artery consists almost entirely of d connective tissue, with connective tissue corpuscles lying in corre- spaces. In all but the smallest arteries numerous elastic fibres are also The elastic element is specially strong near the middle coat in small dium sized vessels, and is sometimes described as the external elastic

the blood-vessels are supplied by numerous small arteries, called *vasa* which are distributed to the outer and middle coats. They arise either vessels they supply or from adjacent arteries, and after a short course walls of the vessels in which they end. The blood is returned by small orum.

phatics.—Although the cell spaces in the middle and inner coats may be as the commencement of lymphatics, definite lymphatic vessels are limited uter coat.

ves.—Arteries and veins are well supplied with both medullated and non- ted nerve-fibres. The fibres form dense plexuses on the outer surfaces of sels, from which filaments pass to the middle coat to be distributed almost to its muscular fibres.

isions of the Blood-Vascular System.—Blood-vessels convey blood to or he tissues of the body generally, or to and from the lungs. The former ute the **systemic vessels** or **general system**; the latter form the **pulmonary** . These two systems are connected together by the heart.

e venous trunks passing to the liver form a subsidiary part of the general ic group of vessels, which is known as the **portal system.**

THE HEART.

e **heart** (cor) is a hollow muscular organ, and is enclosed in a fibro-serous own as the pericardium. It receives blood from the veins, and propels it id along the arteries. The cavity of the fully developed heart is completely ted into right and left halves by an obliquely placed longitudinal septum, ch half is divided into an upper receiving chamber, the **auricle**, and a lower g chamber, the **ventricle**. The separation of the auricle from the ventricle, er, is not complete. Externally a comparatively shallow constriction, ig transversely to the long axis of the organ, indicates the distinction en the auricles and ventricles; internally a wide aperture is left between uricle and ventricle of each side. Each **auriculo-ventricular aperture** is ed with a valve which allows the free passage of blood from the auricle to the cle, but effectually prevents its return.

as already been pointed out that the delicate walls of the blood capillaries allow of the ssage outwards of nutritive plasma from the blood. It passes into spaces, or intercellular ls, in which the tissue elements lie; thus the latter are directly bathed in blood plasma. ercellular spaces form the commencement of the lymph-vascular system. They communi- gether, and open into lymph-vessels which carry the used plasma back to the blood-vascular , but in addition they also convey new nutritive material, the product of digestive es, from the alimentary canal.

mph-vessels, in other words, convey material from the tissues. Blood-vessels convey al both to and from the tissues.

removal of waste products from the blood is provided for by special organs, some of which ply interposed in the course of the general circulation—*e.g.* the liver, the kidneys, and the The lungs, however, where the impure or venous blood receives its main supply of oxygen es up most of its carbonic oxide, etc., do not lie in the course of the general or systemic tion; from them a secondary or pulmonary circulation is established, by which venous conveyed from the heart to the lungs by the pulmonary artery and its branches, and, after through the pulmonary capillaries, is returned again to the heart as pure arterial blood pulmonary veins.

heart, anatomically a single organ, is correspondingly modified, and, as described above, ided by a septum into a right and a left part. The right side receives the blood from temic veins, and ejects it into the pulmonary artery; whilst the left side receives blood ie pulmonary veins, and ejects it into the main systemic artery—the aorta.

e **shape** of the heart is that of an irregular and somewhat flattened cone; and , an apex, two surfaces (inferior and antero-superior), and two borders (right ft) are distinguishable.

oblique groove—the **auriculo-ventricular groove** (sulcus coronarius)—runs ersely to the long axis of the organ, and separates the upper auricular from the lower ventricular part. The separation of the auricular portion ght and left chambers is only marked externally at the base of the heart,

membrane of Henle. In some arteries longitudinally arranged unstriped muscular fibres are also found in the external coat.

The **sheath of an artery** (vagina vasis).—In addition to the three coats above described, arteries are enclosed in a sheath of the surrounding connective tissue, and are more or less connected with it by fine strands of fibrillated connective tissue.

Structure of Veins.—The walls of veins are similar in structure to those of arteries; they are, however, thinner, so much so, that, although veins are cylindrical tubes when full of blood, they collapse when empty, and their lumina almost disappear. The structural details of the three coats vary somewhat in different veins; in most the inner coat is marked by folds which constitute valves. Like the arteries, the veins are enclosed in connective tissue sheaths.

The **inner coat** (tunica intima).—In the majority of the veins the inner coat includes an internal endothelial layer, a middle layer of sub-endothelial connective tissue, and an outer layer of elastic tissue. The inner coat of a vein is less brittle than the inner coat of an artery, and is more easily peeled off from the middle coat. The sub-endothelial tissue is a fine fibrillated connective tissue, less abundant than in the arteries, and indeed in many cases it is absent. The elastic layer consists of lamellæ of elastic fibres which are arranged longitudinally, and it rarely forms a fenestrated membrane.

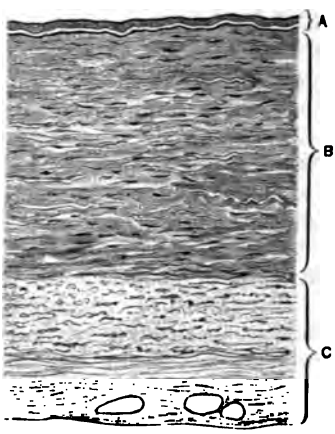


FIG. 612.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF THE WALL OF A VEIN.

A, Tunica intima. B, Tunica media. C, Tunica externa.

One of the chief peculiarities of the inner coat is the presence of folds of its substance which constitute **valves**. The valves are of semilunar shape, and they are usually arranged in pairs. Their convex borders are continuous with the vessel wall, and their free borders are turned towards the heart: whilst, therefore, they do not interfere with the free flow of blood onwards, they prevent any backward flow towards the periphery, and they help to sustain the column of blood in all vessels in which there is an upward flow. Each valve consists of a fold of the inner or endothelial layer, strengthened by a little connective tissue. As a general rule, the wall of the vein is dilated above each valve into a shallow pouch or sinus; consequently, when the veins are distended they assume a nodulated appearance. The valves are more numerous in the deep than in the superficial veins, and in the veins of children than in the veins of adults.

The **middle coat** (tunica media) is much thinner than the corresponding coat of an artery, and it contains a smaller amount of muscular and a larger amount of ordinary connective tissue; indeed, so much does the latter preponderate that it separates the muscular fibres into a number of bands isolated from each other by strands of connective tissue, and the muscle fibres do not form a continuous layer. In some of the veins the more internal muscular fibres do not retain the transverse direction which is usually met with both in arteries and veins; on the contrary, they run longitudinally. This condition is met with in the branches of the mesenteric veins, in the femoral and iliac veins, and in the umbilical veins. The middle coat is absent in the thoracic part of the inferior vena cava; it is but slightly developed in many of the larger veins, whilst in the jugular veins its muscular tissue is very small in amount.

The **external coat** (tunica externa).—This coat consists of white fibrous and elastic tissue. In many of the larger veins a considerable amount of muscular tissue is also present; this is the case in the iliac and axillary veins, the abdominal part of the inferior vena cava, the azygos veins, and in the renal, spermatic, splenic, superior mesenteric, portal, and hepatic veins. The striped muscle fibres of the heart are prolonged into it at the terminations of the venæ cavæ. The external coat is frequently thicker than the middle coat, and the two are not easily separable from one another.

***Vascular* and Nervous Supply of Arteries and Veins.—Blood-vessels.**—The

ılls of the blood-vessels are supplied by numerous small arteries, called *vasa sorum*, which are distributed to the outer and middle coats. They arise either ɔm the vessels they supply or from adjacent arteries, and after a short course ıter the walls of the vessels in which they end. The blood is returned by small ɜnæ vasorum.

Lymphatics.—Although the cell spaces in the middle and inner coats may be ɡarded as the commencement of lymphatics, definite lymphatic vessels are limited ɔ the outer coat.

Nerves.—Arteries and veins are well supplied with both medullated and non-ıedullated nerve-fibres. The fibres form dense plexuses on the outer surfaces of ıe vessels, from which filaments pass to the middle coat to be distributed almost ıtirely to its muscular fibres.

Divisions of the Blood-Vascular System.—Blood-vessels convey blood to or ɔm the tissues of the body generally, or to and from the lungs. The former ɲstitute the **systemic vessels** or **general system**; the latter form the **pulmonary ɜtem.** These two systems are connected together by the heart.

The venous trunks passing to the liver form a subsidiary part of the general ɜtemic group of vessels, which is known as the **portal system.**

THE HEART.

The **heart** (cor) is a hollow muscular organ, and is enclosed in a fibro-serous ɔ known as the pericardium. It receives blood from the veins, and propels it to and along the arteries. The cavity of the fully developed heart is completely ɲarated into right and left halves by an obliquely placed longitudinal septum, ıd each half is divided into an upper receiving chamber, the **auricle**, and a lower ɐcting chamber, the **ventricle.** The separation of the auricle from the ventricle, ɔwever, is not complete. Externally a comparatively shallow constriction, ɹnning transversely to the long axis of the organ, indicates the distinction ɜtween the auricles and ventricles; internally a wide aperture is left between ıe auricle and ventricle of each side. Each **auriculo-ventricular aperture** is ɔovided with a valve which allows the free passage of blood from the auricle to the ɜntricle, but effectually prevents its return.

It has already been pointed out that the delicate walls of the blood capillaries allow of the ɾe passage outwards of nutritive plasma from the blood. It passes into spaces, or intercellular ɐnnels, in which the tissue elements lie; thus the latter are directly bathed in blood plasma. ıe intercellular spaces form the commencement of the lymph-vascular system. They communi-te together, and open into lymph-vessels which carry the used plasma back to the blood-vascular ɜtem, but in addition they also convey new nutritive material, the product of digestive ocesses, from the alimentary canal.

Lymph-vessels, in other words, convey material from the tissues. Blood-vessels convey ıterial both to and from the tissues.

The removal of waste products from the blood is provided for by special organs, some of which ɔ simply interposed in the course of the general circulation—*e.g.* the liver, the kidneys, and the in. The lungs, however, where the impure or venous blood receives its main supply of oxygen d gives up most of its carbonic oxide, etc., do not lie in the course of the general or systemic ɔulation; from them a secondary or pulmonary circulation is established, by which venous ɔod is conveyed from the heart to the lungs by the pulmonary artery and its branches, and, after ɜsing through the pulmonary capillaries, is returned again to the heart as pure arterial blood the pulmonary veins.

The heart, anatomically a single organ, is correspondingly modified, and, as described above, is divided by a septum into a right and a left part. The right side receives the blood from ɐ systemic veins, and ejects it into the pulmonary artery; whilst the left side receives blood ɔm the pulmonary veins, and ejects it into the main systemic artery—the aorta.

The **shape** of the heart is that of an irregular and somewhat flattened cone; and base, an apex, two surfaces (inferior and antero-superior), and two borders (right d left) are distinguishable.

An oblique groove—the **auriculo-ventricular groove** (sulcus coronarius)—runs ınsversely to the long axis of the organ, and separates the upper auricular rtion from the lower ventricular part. The separation of the auricular portion ɔ right and left chambers is only marked externally at the base of the heart,

by the auricles; it is separated from the sternum by the roots of the aorta and the pulmonary artery, and is continuous laterally with the auricular appendices which, projecting forwards, embrace the great vessels. The lower section of the antero-superior surface is convex; it is formed by the ventricular part of the heart, and is divided by an anterior interventricular sulcus into a smaller left and a larger right part. At the junction of the auricular and ventricular parts of this surface are the orifices of the pulmonary artery and the aorta, the former lying in front of the latter.

The *right margin* of the heart consists of an upper auricular part and a lower ventricular part. The former is almost vertical; it lies behind the cartilages of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs on the right side about half an inch from the margin of the sternum; it is in relation with the right pleura and lung, the phrenic nerve with its accompanying vessels intervening, and it is marked by a shallow groove—the sulcus terminalis—which passes from the front of the superior vena cava to the front of the inferior vena cava. The lower part of the right margin (margo acutus) is sharp, thin, and usually concave, corresponding with the curvature of the anterior part of the diaphragm; it is formed by the right ventricle, and it lies almost horizontally in the angle between the diaphragm and the anterior wall of the thorax, passing from the sixth right costal cartilage behind the lower part of the body of the sternum, or the ensiform cartilage, and behind the cartilages of the sixth and seventh ribs on the left side to the apex of the heart.

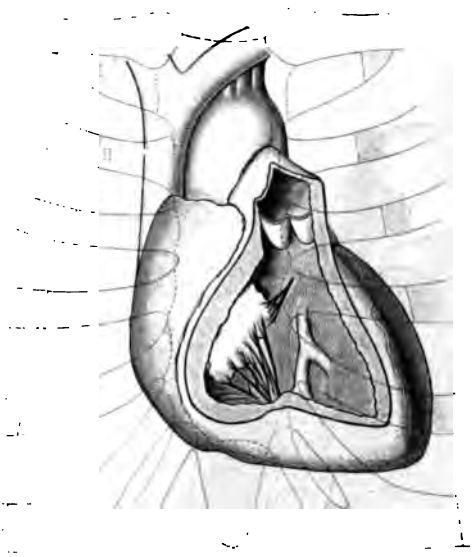


FIG. 615.—THE RELATION OF THE HEART TO THE ANTERIOR WALL OF THE THORAX.

I, II, III, IV, V, VI, the upper six costal cartilages.

The *left margin* (margo obtusus) is formed mainly by the left ventricle, and only to a small extent by the left auricle. It is thick and rounded. It lies in relation with the left pleura and lung, the phrenic nerve and its accompanying vessels intervening, and it passes from just above the third left costal cartilage, about an inch from the sternum, to the apex of the heart, descending obliquely and with a convexity to the left.

THE CHAMBERS OF THE HEART.

Auricles (auricula cordis).—The auricular or basal portion of the heart is cuboidal in form. Its long axis, which lies transversely, is curved, with the concavity of the curve forwards. It is divided into two chambers—the right and left auricles—by a septum which runs from the front backwards and to the right, so obliquely that the right auricle lies in front and to the right, and the left auricle behind and to the left.

Each auricle is also somewhat cuboidal in form, the long axes of both being vertical, and each chamber possesses a well-marked ear-shaped, forward prolongation, which projects from the anterior and upper angle, and is known as the **auricular appendix**.

The **right auricle** (atrium dextrum) receives, posteriorly, the superior vena cava above and the inferior vena cava below. Between these, and a little above its middle, it is crossed posteriorly by the lower right pulmonary vein. It is continuous below and in front with the right ventricle at the auriculo-ventricular aperture. Above and in front it is in relation with the ascending aorta, and from the junction of this aspect with the right lateral boundary the right auricular appendix

s prolonged forwards. On the right side it forms the upper portion of the right margin of the heart, and is in relation with the right phrenic nerve and its accompanying vessels, and with the right pleura and lung, the pericardium intervening. On the left the auricle is limited by the oblique septum which separates it from the left auricle. The **sulcus terminalis** is a shallow groove on the surface of the right auricle, which passes from the front of the superior vena cava to the front of the inferior vena cava, and indicates the junction of the primitive sinus venosus with the auricle proper.

The interior of the auricle is lined with a glistening membrane, the **endocardium**; its walls are smooth, except anteriorly and in the auricular appendix where muscular bundles, the **musculi pectinati**, form a series of small vertical

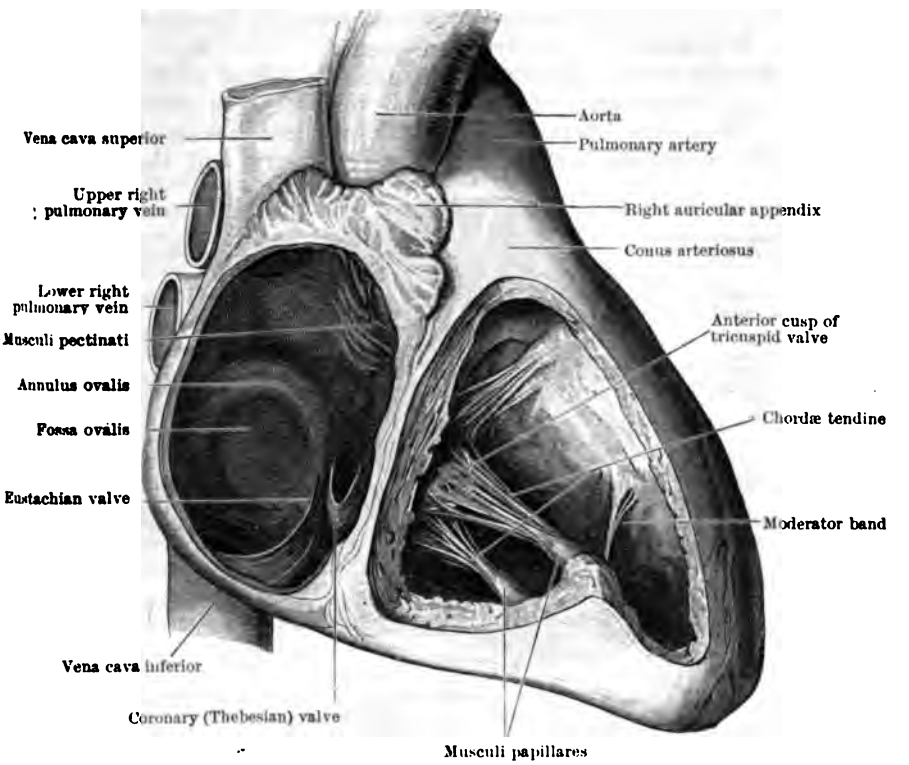


FIG. 616.—THE CAVITIES OF THE RIGHT AURICLE AND RIGHT VENTRICLE OF THE HEART.

columns. These terminate above in a crest, the **crista terminalis**, which corresponds in position with the sulcus terminalis externally.

At the upper and back part of the cavity is the opening of the superior vena cava, devoid of a valve. At the lower and back part is the orifice of the inferior vena cava, bounded in front by the rudimentary Eustachian valve; and immediately in front and to the left of the Eustachian valve, between it and the auriculo-ventricular orifice, is the opening of the coronary sinus, guarded by the Thebesian valve. The auriculo-ventricular aperture, guarded by a tricuspid valve, is known as the **tricuspid orifice**. It is situated in the inferior part of the anterior boundary, and admits three fingers. A number of small fossæ, **foramina Thebesii** (foramina venarum minimarum), are scattered over the walls, and into some of these the **venæ minimi cordis** open. In the septal wall is an oval depression, the **fossa ovalis**, bounded above and in front by a raised margin, the **annulus ovalis** (limbus fossæ ovalis), which is continuous inferiorly with the Eustachian valve; this fossa is the remains of an aperture, the **foramen ovale**, through which the two auricles communicated with each other before birth, and even in the adult a portion of the aperture persists at the upper part of the fossa in about one in five cases. Between the apertures of the superior and inferior venæ cavæ, and behind the upper part

of the fossa ovalis, a small eminence may be distinguished, which is called the **tubercle of Lower** (tuberculum intervenosum); in the fœtus it probably directs the blood from the superior vena cava to the tricuspid orifice.

The **Eustachian valve** (valvula venæ cavæ inferioris) is a thin and sometimes fenestrated fold of endocardium and sub-endocardial tissue, which extends from the anterior and lower margin of the orifice of the inferior vena cava to the anterior part of the annulus ovalis. Varying very much in size, it is usually of falciform shape, its apex being attached to the annulus and its base to the margin of the inferior caval orifice. It is an important structure in the fœtus, directing the blood from the inferior vena cava through the foramen ovale into the left auricle.

The **Thebesian valve** (valvula sinus coronarii) is usually a single fold of endocardium which is placed at the orifice of the coronary sinus; occasionally it consists of two cusps. It is almost invariably incompetent.

The **left auricle** (atrium sinistrum) is in relation behind with the descending thoracic aorta and the œsophagus. Below and in front it is continuous with the left ventricle. Its antero-superior surface is concave, and lies in close relation to the roots of the ascending aorta, the pulmonary artery, and the left coronary

Conus arteriosus
Left anterior cusp of pulmonary valve
Right anterior cusp of pulmonary valve
Left posterior cusp of pulmonary valve
Right coronary artery
Anterior cusp of aortic valve
Left posterior cusp of aortic valve
Left coronary artery
Right posterior cusp of aortic valve
Anterior (infundibular) cusp of tricuspid valve
Anterior cusp of mitral valve
Right (marginal) cusp of tricuspid valve
Posterior cusp of mitral valve
Posterior (septal) cusp of tricuspid valve
Left ventricle
Right ventricle

FIG. 617.—THE BASES OF THE VENTRICLES OF THE HEART, showing the auriculo-ventricular, aortic, and pulmonary orifices and their valves.

artery. Its right side, formed by the interauricular septum, is directed forwards and to the right. Its left side forms a very small portion of the left margin of the heart, and from its junction with the antero-superior surface the long and narrow auricular appendix is prolonged forwards round the left side of the ascending portion of the aorta and the trunk of the pulmonary artery.

The four pulmonary veins enter the upper part of the posterior surface, two on each side.

The interior of the left auricle is lined with endocardium, and its walls are smooth, except in the auricular appendix where musculi pectinati are present, and on the septum, in a position corresponding with the upper part of the fossa ovalis on the right side, where there are several musculo-fibrous bundles radiating forwards and upwards. These septal bundles are separated at their bases by small semilunar depressions, in the largest of which remains of the foramen ovale may be found. Foramina Thebesii, and the apertures of venæ minimi cordis, are scattered irregularly over the inner aspect, whilst in the inferior part of the anterior boundary is the auriculo-ventricular aperture. The latter is oval in form; its long axis is placed obliquely from before backwards, and from left to right, and is capable of admitting two fingers. It is guarded by a valve formed of two large cusps, and is known as the **mitral orifice.**

Ventricles.—The ventricular portion of the heart is conical and somewhat

flattened. The base, directed upwards and backwards, is partly continuous with the auricular portion and partly free. It is perforated by four orifices, the two auriculo-ventricular, the aortic, and the pulmonary. The auriculo-ventricular orifices are placed one on each side below and behind; in front and between them is the aortic orifice, whilst the orifice of the pulmonary artery is still farther forward, and slightly to the left of the aortic.

In the triangle (trigona fibrosa) between the auriculo-ventricular and the aortic orifices is embedded the central fibro-cartilage, a mass of fibro-cartilaginous tissue which is the representative of the os cordis of the ox. It is continuous with the upper part of the interventricular septum, and with fibrous rings which surround the apertures at the bases of the ventricles.

The inferior surfaces and the antero-superior surfaces of the ventricles constitute respectively the greater portions of the corresponding surfaces of the heart; the former rest upon the diaphragm, whilst the latter are directed upwards and forwards towards the sternum and the costal cartilages of the left side. The apex of the left ventricle forms the **apex** of the heart.

The right margin, which is thin, forms the horizontal portion of the right margin of the heart; and the left margin, which is thick and rounded, forms almost the whole of the left margin of the heart.

The ventricular portion of the heart is divided into right and left chambers. The **interventricular septum** (septum ventriculorum) is placed obliquely, with one surface directed forwards and to the right, and the other backwards and to the left; it bulges into the right ventricle, and its lower margin lies to the right of the apex of the heart, which is, therefore, formed entirely by the left ventricle. The margins of the septum are indicated on the surfaces by anterior and inferior interventricular sulci.

The **right ventricle** (ventriculus dexter) is triangular in form. Its base is directed upwards and to the right, and in the greater part of its extent it is continuous with the right auricle, with which it communicates by the auriculo-ventricular orifice; but its left and anterior angle projects in front of the auricle, and gives origin to the pulmonary artery. Its inferior wall rests upon the diaphragm. The antero-superior wall lies behind the lower part of the left half of the sternum and the cartilages of the fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs of the left side. The left or septal wall, which is directed backwards and to the left, bulges into its interior, and on this account the transverse section of the cavity has a semilunar outline. The cavity itself is a bent tube consisting of an inferior portion or **body** into which the auriculo-ventricular orifice opens, and of an antero-superior part, the **infundibulum** or **conus arteriosus**, which terminates in the pulmonary artery. The angle between the two limbs is formed by a thick ledge of muscle.

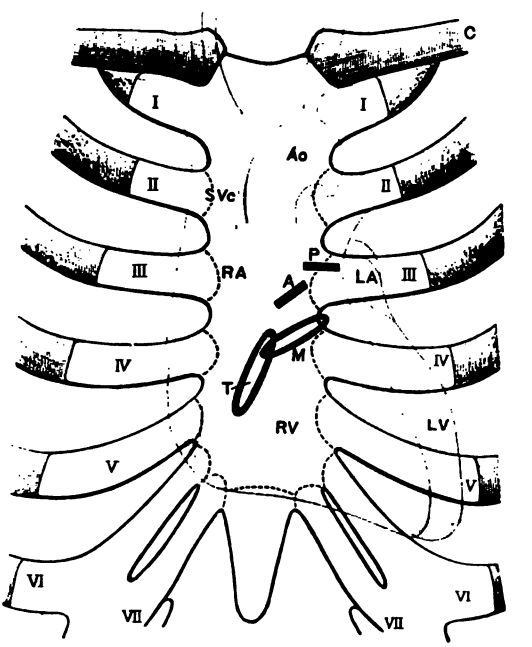


FIG. 618.—THE RELATIONS OF THE HEART AND THE AURICULO-VENTRICULAR, AORTIC, AND PULMONARY ORIFICES TO THE ANTERIOR THORACIC WALL.

I to VII, Costal cartilages.
A, Aortic orifice.
Ao, Aorta.
C, Clavicle.
LA, Left auricle.
LV, Left ventricle.
M, Mitral orifice.
P, Pulmonary orifice.
RA, Right auricle.
RV, Right ventricle.
SVc, Superior vena cava.
T, Tricuspid orifice.

The **right auriculo-ventricular orifice** is guarded by a **tricuspid valve** (valvula tricuspidalis). The three cusps of this valve are a right or marginal (cuspis medialis), a left or infundibular (cuspis anterior), which intervenes between the auriculo-ventricular orifice and the infundibulum, and a posterior or septal (cuspis

posterior). Each cusp consists of a fold of endocardium, strengthened by a little intermediate fibrous tissue, and the bases of the cusps are generally continuous with each other at the auriculo-ventricular orifice, where they are attached to a fibrous ring, but they may be separated by small intermediate cusps which fill the angles between the main segments. The apices of the cusps hang down into the ventricle. The margins, which are thinner than the central portions, are notched and irregular. The auricular surfaces are smooth. The ventricular surfaces are roughened, and, like the margins and apices, they give attachment to fine tendinous cords, the **chordæ tendineæ**, the opposite extremities of which are attached to muscular bundles, the **musculi papillares**, which project from the wall into the cavity of the ventricle.

The **pulmonary orifice**, which lies in front and to the left of the tricuspid orifice, is guarded by a **pulmonary valve** composed of three semilunar segments (valvulæ semilunares a. pulmonalis), two of which are placed anteriorly and one posteriorly. The convexity or outer border of each semilunar segment is attached to the wall of the pulmonary artery. The inner border is free, and it presents at its centre a small nodule, the **corpus Arantii** (nodulus valvulæ semilunaris), and on each side of this body a small, thin marginal segment of semilunar form, the **lunule** (lunula valvulæ semilunaris). Each segment of the valve is formed by a layer of endocardium on its ventricular surface, an endothelial layer of the inner coat of the artery on its arterial surface, and an intermediate stratum of fibrous tissue. Both the attached and the free margins of the cusps are strengthened by tendinous bands, and strands of condensed fibrous tissue radiate from the outer borders to the corpora Arantii, but they do not enter the lunulæ. When the valve closes the corpora Arantii are closely apposed, the lunulæ of the adjacent segments of the valve are pressed together, and they project vertically upwards into the interior of the artery.

The cavity of the right ventricle is lined by endocardium; the walls are smooth in the conus arteriosus, but are rendered rugose and sponge-like in the body by the inward projection of numerous muscular bundles, the **columnæ carneæ** (trabeculæ carneæ). These bundles are of three kinds; the simplest are merely columns raised in relief on the wall of the ventricle; those of the second class are rounded bundles, free in the middle, but attached at each end to the wall of the ventricle. One special bundle of this group, called the **moderator band**, is attached by one extremity to the septum, and by the other to the antero-superior wall, at the base of the anterior papillary muscle; it tends to prevent over-distension of the cavity. The third group of columnæ carneæ are the **musculi papillares**, conical bundles continuous at their bases with the muscular wall of the ventricle, and terminating at their apices in numerous chordæ tendineæ which are attached to the apices, the borders, and ventricular surfaces of the cusps of the tricuspid valve.

The musculi papillares of the right ventricle are—(1) a large anterior muscle, from which the chordæ pass to the infundibular and marginal segments of the valve; (2) a smaller and more irregular posterior muscle, sometimes represented by two or more segments, from which chordæ pass to the marginal and septal cusps; and (3) a group of muscular bundles, varying in size and number, which spring from the septum and are united by chordæ to the infundibular and septal cusps.

The walls of the right ventricle, the septal excepted, are much thinner than those of the left, but the columnæ carneæ of the first and second classes are coarser and less numerous in the right than in the left ventricle.

The **left ventricle** (ventriculus sinister) is a conical chamber, and its cavity is oval in transverse section. The base is directed upwards and backwards, and in the greater part of its extent it is continuous with the corresponding auricle with which it communicates through the mitral orifice, but in front and to the right of its communication with the auricle it is continued into the ascending aorta.

The **mitral orifice** is oval; its long axis runs obliquely from above and to the left downwards and to the right, and it is guarded by a valve consisting of two cusps, which is known as the **mitral valve** (valvula bicuspidalis). The two cusps of the valve are triangular and of unequal size. The smaller of the two, *placed to the* left and behind, is named the marginal, and the larger, placed to the

right and in front, between the mitral and aortic orifices, is known as the **aortic cusp**. The bases of the cusps are either continuous with each other at their attachments to the fibrous ring round the mitral orifice, or they are separated by small intermediate cusps of irregular form and size. The apices of the cusps hang down into the cavity of the ventricle. The auricular surfaces are smooth; the ventricular surfaces are roughened by the attachments of the chordæ tendineæ, which are also connected with the irregular and notched margins and with the apices. The structure is the same as that of the cusps of the tricuspid valve, but the ventricular surface of the anterior (or aortic) cusp is relatively smooth; therefore the blood flow into the aorta is facilitated.

The **aortic orifice** is circular; it lies immediately in front and to the right of the mitral orifice, from which it is separated by the anterior cusp of the mitral valve, and it is guarded by the **aortic valve**, formed of three semilunar segments (valvulæ semilunares aortæ), one of which is placed anteriorly and the other two posteriorly. The structure of these cusps and their attachments are similar to those of the cusps of the pulmonary valve.

The cavity of the left ventricle is separable, like that of the right, into two portions, the body and the aortic vestibule; the latter is a small section placed immediately below the aortic orifice, and its walls are non-contractile, consisting of fibrous and fibro-cartilaginous tissue. The cavity is lined by endocardium. The inferior wall and the apex are rendered sponge-like by numerous fine columnæ carneæ of the first and second classes, whilst the upper part of the antero-superior wall and the septum are relatively smooth.

There are two papillary muscles of much larger size than those met with in the right ventricle—an anterior and a posterior; each is connected by chordæ tendineæ with both cusps of the mitral valve.

The walls of the left ventricle, with the exception of the septum, are three times as thick as those of the right ventricle, and they are thickest in the region of the widest portion of the cavity, which is situated about a fourth of its length from the base. The muscular portion of the wall attains its minimum thickness at the apex, but the thinnest portion of the boundary is at the upper part of the septum, which consists entirely of fibrous tissue; here it is occasionally deficient, and an aperture is left through which the cavities of the two ventricles communicate.

The **interventricular septum** (septum ventriculorum) is a musculo-membranous partition. It is placed obliquely, one surface looking forwards and to the right, and bulging into the right ventricle, and the other backwards and to the left towards the left ventricle. Its antero-superior and inferior margins correspond respectively with the anterior and inferior portions of the interventricular sulcus, and it extends from the right of the apex to the interval between the pulmonary and aortic orifices. In the main part of its extent it is muscular (septum musculare ventriculorum), and this portion is developed from the wall of the ventricular part of the heart; but its upper and posterior portion, the **pars membranacea** (septum membranaceum ventriculorum), which is developed from the septum of the aortic bulb, is entirely fibrous, and constitutes the thinnest portion of the ventricular walls. The pars membranacea lies between the aortic vestibule on the left and the upper part of the right ventricle, as well as the lower and left part of the right auricle, on the right.

Structure of the Heart.

The walls of the heart consist mainly of peculiar striped muscle, the **myocardium**, which is enclosed between the visceral layer of the pericardium, or **epicardium**, externally, and the **endocardium** internally. The muscular fibres differ from those of ordinary voluntary striped muscle in several ways: they are shorter, many of them being oblong cells with forked extremities which are closely cemented to similar processes of adjacent cells; they form a reticulum, and the nuclei lie in the centres of the cells. Moreover, in some of the lower mammals, in the young child up to the end of the first year, and occasionally in the human adult also, still more peculiar fibres, the **fibres of Purkinje**, are found immediately beneath the sub-endocardial tissue. These are large cells which unite with each other at their extremities; their central portions consist of granular protoplasm, in which sometimes one, but more frequently two nuclei are embedded, and the peripheral portion of each cell is transversely striated. These cells, in short, present in a permanent form a condition which is transitory in all other striped muscle cells.

The reticulating cardiac muscle cells are grouped in sheets and strands which have a more or less characteristic and definite arrangement in different parts of the heart; by careful dissection, and after special methods of preparation, it is possible to recognise many layers and bundles, some of which are, however, probably artificially produced.

In the **auricles** the muscular fasciculi fall naturally into two groups, those special to each auricle, and those common to both auricles; the former are situated deeply under cover of the latter.

The *deep special fibres* are—(*a*) Looped fibres which pass over the auricles from before backwards or from side to side; their extremities are attached to the fibrous rings which surround the auriculo-ventricular orifices. (*b*) Annular fibres which surround (1) the extremities of the large vessels which open into the auricle, (2) the auricular appendices, and (3) the fossa ovalis.

The *superficial fibres*, which are common to both auricles, for the most part run transversely across the auricles, but a few of them turn into the interauricular septum. They are most numerous on the anterior aspect.

In the **ventricles**, also, two main groups of fasciculi, a superficial and a deep, have been described, but it is in this region especially that there is doubt regarding the individuality of many of the muscular bundles which have been noted, for it appears probable that many of them are artificial products due to the method adopted by the dissector. There is no doubt that in the middle of the thickness of the ventricular walls the arrangement of the fibres is mainly circular, some surrounding one and some both ventricles. Near the surfaces the fasciculi assume an oblique direction, and it is not improbable that many of the bundles are arranged in figure of 8 loops, whose upper extremities are attached to the fibrous rings round the auriculo-ventricular orifices.

The *superficial fibres* of the ventricles are attached above to the fibrous rings at the base, and from this attachment they pass obliquely downwards to the apex, those on the anterior surface trending towards the left, and those on the inferior surface towards the right. On the inferior surface almost all the fasciculi appear to pass across the septum, but on the anterior surface the middle fasciculi dip into it, and only those near the base and apex cross from right to left. All the superficial fibres which reach the apex are coiled there into a whorl or vortex, through which they pass upwards into the substance of the left ventricle, those descending from the front and left side entering the base of the posterior papillary muscle, whilst those from the back and right side terminate in the anterior papillary muscle. The muscular fasciculi which enter the papillary muscles are continued, by means of the chordæ tendineæ, to the flaps of the mitral valve and so to the fibrous ring round the mitral orifice; obviously, therefore, many of the superficial fasciculi of the ventricles form simple oblique loops which commence externally at the fibrous rings round the right and left auriculo-ventricular orifices, and terminate internally by gaining attachment to the ring round the left of these orifices (mitral).

The *deep fasciculi* of the ventricles may be subdivided into two main groups—(1) Those common to both ventricles, and (2) those special to each ventricle.

The fasciculi common to both ventricles include—(*a*) Fibres which commence above from the posterior sections of the fibrous ring at the base of the right ventricle; either directly or by means of the chordæ tendineæ of the posterior papillary muscle they pass obliquely downwards to the septum, traverse it, and ascend to the front of the fibrous ring at the base of the left ventricle. (*b*) Fibres from the anterior portions of the fibrous ring at the base of the right ventricle, which pass obliquely downwards and assume a transverse course in the posterior wall of the left ventricle. (*c*) Annular fibres which encircle both ventricles.

The deep special fibres of the left ventricle are (*a*) V-shaped loops which commence at the fibrous ring at the base, and descend to the apex, where they turn upwards in the septum, and terminate by joining the central fibro-cartilage; (*b*) fibres which descend from the base, enter the lower and front part of the septum, and, passing through it, assume an annular course in the posterior wall.

The deep special fibres of the right ventricle are (*a*) looped fibres which pass downwards in the external wall from the fibrous rings to the apex, where they enter the septum and ascend to the central fibro-cartilage; (*b*) circular fibres round the pulmonary orifice; and (*c*) radiating fasciculi from the base of the anterior papillary muscle to the front part of the pulmonary orifice.

The **epicardium**, or visceral portion of the pericardium, consists of white connective and of elastic tissue, the latter forming a distinct reticulum in the deeper part. The surface which looks towards the pericardial cavity is covered with flat polygonal endothelial plates, which are partially separated here and there by stomata through which the pericardial cavity communicates with the lymphatics of the epicardium.

The **endocardium** lines the cardiac cavities and is continuous with the inner coats of the vessels which enter and leave the heart. It consists, like the epicardium, of white connective tissue and elastic fibres, but it is much thinner than the epicardium, and its elastic fibres are in some places blended into a fenestrated membrane. Its inner surface is covered with endothelial cells, and it rests externally upon the sub-endocardial tissue, in which there are blood-vessels and nerves; the endocardium itself is entirely devoid of vessels.

Size of the Heart.—The heart is about five inches (125 mm.) long, three and a half inches (87 mm.) broad; its greatest depth from its antero-superior to its inferior surface is two and a half inches (62 mm.), and it is roughly estimated as being about the same size as the closed fist. The size, however, is variable, the volume increasing at first rapidly, and then gradually, with increasing age, from 22 cc. at birth to 155 cc. at the fifteenth year, and to 250 cc. by the twentieth year. From this period to the fiftieth year, when the maximum volume (280 cc.) is attained, the in-

rease is much more gradual, and after fifty a slight decrease sets in. The volume is the same n both sexes up to the period of puberty, but thereafter it preponderates in the male.

Weight.—The average weight of the heart in the male adult is 11 ounces (310 grms.), and in he female adult 9 ounces (255 grms.); but the weight varies greatly, always, however, in definite elation to the weight of the body, the relative proportions changing at different periods of life. 'hus at birth the heart weighs 13½ drachms (24 grms.), and its relation to the body weight s as 1 to 130, whilst in the adult the relative proportion is as 1 to 205. The heart is said to ncrease rapidly in weight up to the seventh year, then more slowly up to the age of puberty, 'hen a second acceleration sets in; but after the attainment of adult life the increase, which ontinues till the seventieth year, is very gradual.

The above changes affect the whole heart, but the several parts also vary in their relation to ach other at different periods of life. During fœtal life the right auricle is heavier than the left; n the first month after birth the two become equal, and at the second year the right again begins o preponderate, and it is heavier than the left during the remainder of life. In the latter part f fœtal life the two ventricles are equal; after birth the left grows more rapidly than the right, ntil, at the end of the second year, a position of stability is gained, when the right is to the left s 1 to 2, and this proportion is maintained until death.

Capacity.—During life the capacity of the ventricles is probably the same, and each is capable f containing about four ounces of blood, whilst the auricles are a little less capacious. After eath the cavity of the right ventricle appears larger than that of the left.

Vascular Supply of the Heart.—The walls of the heart are supplied by the **coronary arteries**). 800), the branches of which pass through the interstitial tissue to all parts of the muscular ubstance and to the sub-endocardial and sub-epicardial tissues; the endocardium and the valves re devoid of vessels. The capillaries, which are numerous, form a close-meshed network around he muscular fibres. Sometimes the valves contain a few muscular fibres, and in these cases they lso receive some minute vessels. The majority of the veins of the heart end in the coronary inus, which opens into the lower part of the right auricle; some few very small veins, how- ver, open directly into the right auricle, and others are said to end in the left auricle, and n the cavities of the ventricles.

Lymphatics of the Heart.—Lymphatic vessels are freely distributed throughout the whole ubstance of the heart, but they are most numerous in the sub-endocardial and the sub-pericardial ssues, and the vessels which lie in the latter situation communicate through stomata with the ericardial cavity. The smaller lymphatic vessels accompany the blood-vessels; ultimately they nverge to two main trunks—an anterior and an inferior—which lie respectively, at their com- encements, in the anterior and the inferior auriculo-ventricular sulci. Each is formed by one more tributaries which collect lymph from the ventricles and auricles. The inferior trunk companies the right and the anterior trunk the left coronary artery. At the upper part of the art the trunks pass backwards, at the sides of the pulmonary artery, pierce the pericardium, and ey terminate in the glands which lie round the bifurcation of the trachea.

Nerves of the Heart.—The heart receives its nerves from the superficial and deep cardiac exuses which lie beneath the arch of the aorta, and through them it is connected with the gus, the spinal accessory (through the vagus), and the sympathetic nerves. After leaving the exuses many of the nerve-fibres enter the walls of the auricles, and anastomose together in the b-epicardial tissue, forming a plexus in which many ganglion cells are embedded, especially ar the terminations of the inferior vena cava and the pulmonary veins. From the sub- icardial auricular plexus, nerve filaments, on which nerve ganglion cells have been found, pass to the substance of the auricular walls.

Other fibres from the cardiac plexuses accompany the coronary arteries to the ventricles, and on these also ganglion cells are found in the region immediately below the auriculo-ventricular lcus.

The nerve-fibres which issue from the ganglionated plexuses of the heart are non-medullated. ney form fine plexuses round the muscle fibres, and they terminate either in fine fibrils on the rfaces of the muscle fibres, or in nodulated ends which lie in contact with the muscle cells.

THE PERICARDIUM.

The **pericardium** is a fibro-serous sac which surrounds the heart. It lies in the iddle mediastinum, and is attached below to the diaphragm, and above and behind the roots of the great vessels. Anteriorly and posteriorly it is in relation with ljacent structures; laterally it is in close apposition with the pleural sacs.

The **fibrous pericardium** is a strong fibrous sac of conical form; its base is tached to the central tendon and to a part of the muscular substance of the aphragm, and it is pierced by the inferior vena cava. At its apex and posteriorly is gradually lost upon the great vessels which enter and emerge from the heart, ving sheaths to the aorta, the two branches of the pulmonary artery, the superior na cava, the four pulmonary veins, and the ligamentum arteriosum. Its nterior surface forms the posterior boundary of the anterior mediastinum, and it ves attachment, above and below, to the superior and inferior sterno-pericardial

ligaments. In the greater part of its extent it is separated from the anterior wall of the thorax by the anterior margins of the lungs and pleural sacs, but it is in direct relation with the left half of the lower portion of the body of the sternum and, in many cases, with the inner ends of the cartilages of the fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs of the left side. Its posterior surface forms the anterior boundary of the posterior mediastinum; it is in relation with the œsophagus and the descending aorta, both of which it separates from the back of the left auricle. Each lateral aspect is in close contact with the mediastinal portion of the parietal pleura, the phrenic nerve and its accompanying vessels intervening. The inner surface of the fibrous sac is lined by the serous pericardium, which is closely attached to it.

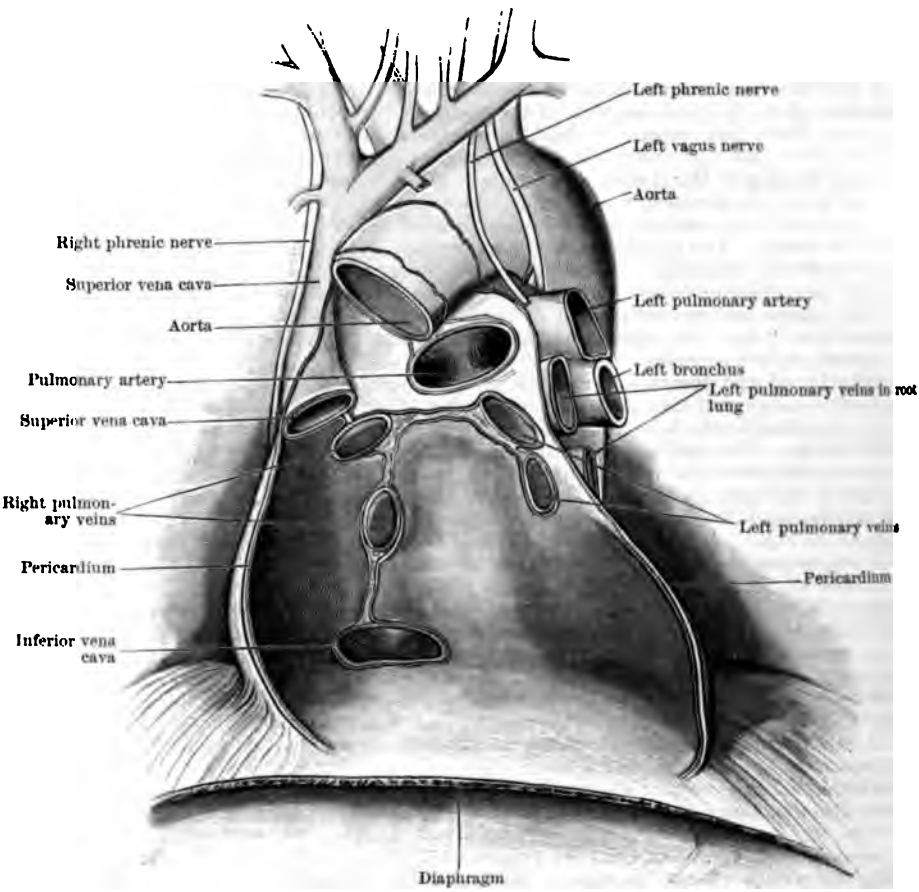


FIG. 619.—POSTERIOR WALL OF THE PERICARDIUM AFTER REMOVAL OF THE HEART, showing the relation of the serous pericardium to the great vessels. From a formalin preparation made by Professor Birmingham.

The **serous pericardium** is a closed sac containing a little fluid (liquor pericardii). It is surrounded by the fibrous pericardium and invaginated by the heart. It is, therefore, separable into two portions—the parietal, which lines the inner surface of the fibrous sac, and the visceral, which ensheaths, or partially ensheaths, the heart and the great vessels; but the two portions are, of course, continuous with each other where the serous layer is reflected on to the great vessels as they pierce the fibrous layer. The majority of the great vessels receive only partial coverings from the visceral layer: thus the superior vena cava is covered in front and laterally; the pulmonary veins in front, above, and below; and the inferior vena cava, for a very short distance, in front and laterally. The aorta and the pulmonary artery are enclosed together in a complete sheath of the visceral layer; and when the pericardial sac is opened from the front it is possible to pass the fingers behind them and in front of the auricles, from the right to the left side, through a passage called the **great transverse sinus** of the pericardium. The

paces or pouches which intervene between the vessels which receive partial coverings rom the serous pericardium are also called sinuses; and the largest of them, which s bounded below and on the right by the inferior vena cava, and above and on the eft by the left inferior pulmonary vein, is known as the **great oblique sinus**. It asses upwards and to the right behind the left auricle, and lies in front of the esophagus and the descending thoracic aorta.

A small fold of the serous pericardium, the **vestigial fold** of Marshall (ligamentum v. cavæ sinistræ), passes from the left pulmonary artery to the left superior pulmonary vein behind the left extremity of the transverse sinus. It merits special attention because it encloses the remains of the left superior vena cava, which atrophies at an early period of fœtal life.

Structure.—The fibrous pericardium consists of ordinary connective tissue fibres felted together into a dense, unyielding membrane. The serous pericardium is covered on its inner aspect by a layer of flat endothelial cells which rest upon a basis of mixed white and elastic fibres in which run numerous blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves.

THE ARTERIES.

THE PULMONARY ARTERY.

The **pulmonary artery** (a. pulmonalis) springs from the anterior and left angle of the base of the right ventricle, at the termination of the infundibulum. It s slightly larger at its commencement than the aorta, and is dilated immediately above the valves into three pouches, the sinuses of Valsalva. It runs upwards and backwards towards the concavity of the aortic arch, curving from the front round the left side of the ascending aorta to reach a plane posterior to the latter; and it terminates, by dividing into right and left branches, opposite the sixth dorsal vertebræ. Its length is a little more than two inches.

Relations.—The pulmonary artery is enclosed within the fibrous pericardium, and enveloped along with the ascending aorta in a common sheath of the visceral layer of the serous pericardium. It lies behind the inner extremity of the second left intercostal space, from which it is separated by the anterior margins of the left lung and pleural sac.

Its posterior relations are the root of the aorta, the anterior wall of the left auricle, and the first part of the left coronary artery. To the right it is in relation with the right coronary artery and the right auricular appendix, and to the left with the left coronary artery and the left auricular appendix. Immediately above its bifurcation, between it and the aortic arch, is the superficial cardiac plexus.

The **right branch of the pulmonary artery** is longer and larger than the left. It passes to the hilum of the right lung, forming one of the constituents of its root, and, entering the lung, descends with the main bronchus to the lower extremity of the organ.

Relations.—Before it enters the lung the right pulmonary artery passes behind the ascending aorta, the superior vena cava, and the upper right pulmonary vein. At first t lies below the arch of the aorta and the right bronchus, in front of the œsophagus, and above the left auricle and the lower right pulmonary vein; then it crosses in front of the right bronchus immediately below the eparterial branch, and reaches the hilum of the ung. After entering the lung the artery descends, behind and to the outer side of he main bronchus and between its ventral and dorsal branches.

Branches.—Before entering the hilum it gives off a large branch to the upper lobe which accompanies the eparterial bronchus, and in the substance of the lung it gives off numerous branches which correspond with and accompany the dorsal, ventral, and accessory branches of the right bronchus.

The **left branch of the pulmonary artery**, shorter, smaller, and somewhat higher in position than the right, passes outwards and backwards from the bifurcation of the pulmonary stem, and runs in the root of the left lung to the hilum; it hen descends in company with the main bronchus to the lower end of the lung.

Relations.—Before it enters the lung it is crossed in front by the upper left pulmonary vein; *behind* it, is the left bronchus and the descending aorta; *above*, the aortic arch, to which it is connected by the ligamentum arteriosum, and the left recurrent

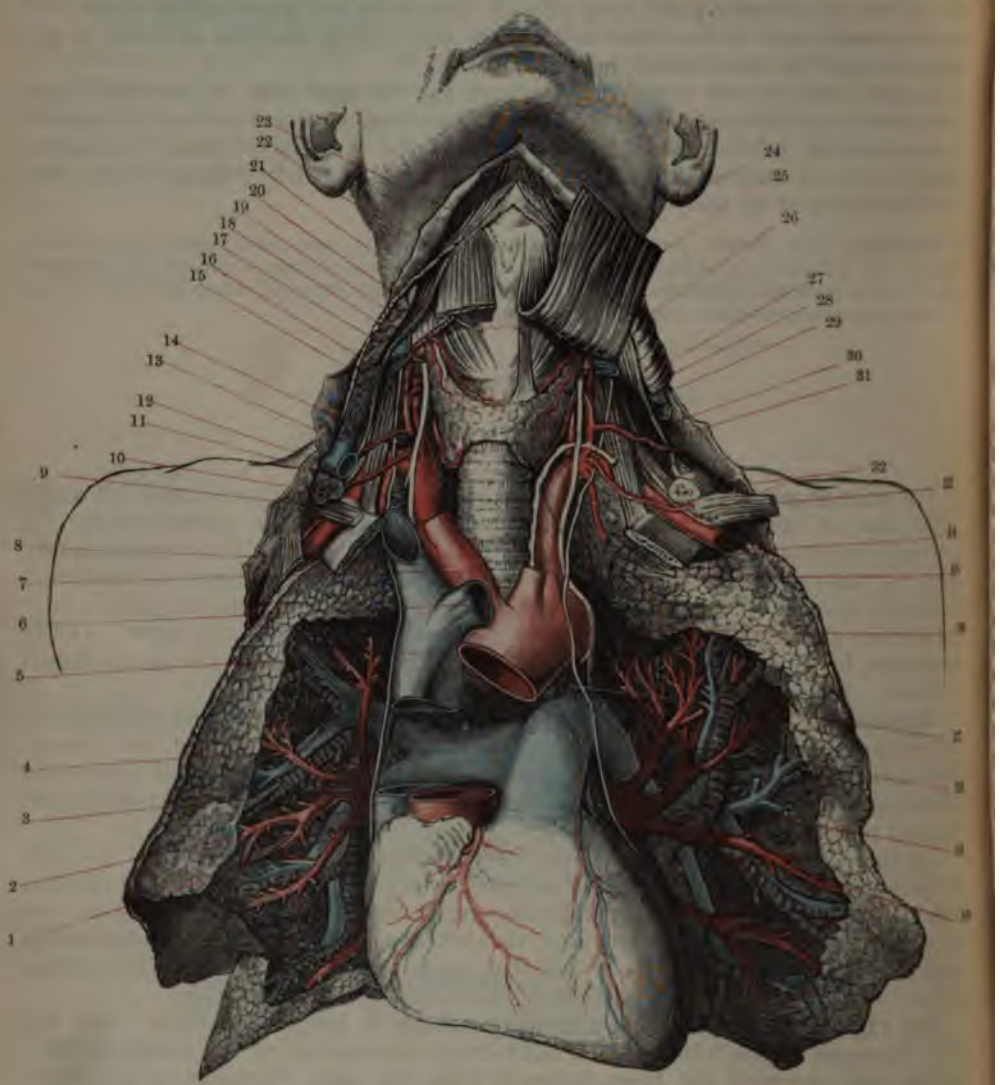


FIG. 620.—THE PULMONARY ARTERIES AND VEINS AND THEIR RELATIONS.

Parts of the ascending aorta and superior vena cava have been removed.

1. Aorta.
2. Superior vena cava.
3. Upper right pulmonary vein.
4. Right pulmonary artery.
5. Superior vena cava.
6. Left innominate vein.
7. Innominate artery.
8. Right innominate vein.
9. Subclavius muscle.
10. Clavicle.
11. Internal mammary artery.
12. Subclavian vein.
13. Suprascapular artery.
14. Transverse cervical artery.
15. Vertebral artery.
16. Inferior thyroid artery.
17. Internal jugular vein.
18. Common carotid artery.
19. Superior thyroid artery.
20. Sterno-thyroid muscle.
21. Omo-hyoid muscle.
22. Sterno-hyoid muscle.
23. Platysma.
24. Sterno-hyoid muscle.
25. Sterno-thyroid muscle.
26. Sterno-mastoid muscle.
27. Phrenic nerve.
28. Vagus nerve.
29. Vertebral artery.
30. Inferior thyroid artery.
31. Thoracic duct.
32. Left subclavian artery.
33. Subclavius muscle.
34. 1st rib.
35. Left common carotid artery.
36. Aorta.
37. Ligamentum arteriosum.
38. Left pulmonary artery.
39. Upper left pulmonary vein.
40. Pulmonary artery.

laryngeal nerve; *below*, it is in relation with the lower left pulmonary vein. After entering the lung it descends, like the right pulmonary artery, behind and on the outer side of the stem bronchus, and between its ventral and dorsal branches.

Branches.—Just before passing through the hilum it gives off a branch to the upper lobe, and in the substance of the lung its branches correspond with the ventral, *dorsal*, and accessory branches of the bronchial tube.

THE SYSTEMIC ARTERIES.

THE AORTA.

aorta is the main trunk of the arterial system. It commences at the base ‹ft ventricle and ascends, with an inclination to the right, to the level of ›nd right costal cartilage; then curving backwards and to the left, it the left side of the lower border of the fourth dorsal vertebra, and finally ȝ through the thorax into the abdomen, where it terminates, on the left of the ›lane, at the level of the fourth lumbar vertebra, by bifurcating into the two iliac arteries. The portion of the aorta which is situated in the thorax is, enience, termed the thoracic aorta, and the rest of the vessel is known as ›minal aorta.

THE THORACIC AORTA.

thoracic aorta is subdivided into the ascending portion, the arch, and the ing portion.

ascending aorta (aorta ascendens) lies in the middle mediastinum. It from the base of the left ventricle, behind the left margin of the , opposite the lower border of the third left costal cartilage and the the sixth dorsal vertebra. From its origin it passes upwards, forwards, the right, and it terminates in the arch of the aorta, behind the right of the sternum, at the level of the second costal cartilage. Its *length* 2 to 2¼ inches (50 to 57 mm.), and its breadth is 1⅛ inches (28 mm.) adult it is a little narrower at its commencement than the pulmonary ȝ, but in old age it enlarges and exceeds the latter vessel in size. The r, however, is not uniform throughout the whole length of the ascending our distinct dilatations are present. Three of these, small and pouch-like, wn as the sinuses of Valsalva (sinus aortæ). They are situated at the ‹f the aorta, immediately above the semilunar cusps of the valve which ›he aperture of communication with the left ventricle; one is anterior in , and two are situated posteriorly. The fourth dilatation is formed by e bulging of the right wall, and is known as the *great sinus* of the

ıtions.—The ascending aorta is completely enclosed within the fibrous peri- which blends above with the sheath of the vessel. It is enveloped, together stem of the pulmonary artery, in a tubular prolongation of the serous pericar- d at its origin has the pulmonary artery in front, the anterior wall of the left ehind, and the right auricular appendix on its right side. In the upper part of ȝ the ascending aorta is overlapped by the anterior margins of the right lung and ural sac, whilst behind it are the right auricle, the right branch of the pulmonary ıe right bronchus, and the left margin of the superior vena cava. The superior a lies on the right side, and partly behind the upper part of the ascending aorta, e pulmonary artery is at first in front of it and then, at a higher level, on its left

ıches.—Two branches arise from the ascending aorta, viz. the right and the left arteries. The former springs from the anterior, and the latter from the left sinus of Valsalva (p. 800).

arch of the aorta (arcus aortæ) lies in the superior mediastinum behind ›r part of the manubrium sterni, and connects the ascending with the ng aorta. It commences behind the right margin of the sternum, on a ›h the second costal cartilage, and extends to the lower border of the fourth ertebra. As its name implies, it forms an arch; in this there are two ‹es, one with the convexity upwards, and the other with the convexity › and to the left. From its origin it runs for a short distance upwards, ds, and to the left, in front of the trachea; then it passes backwards, ıe left side of the trachea to the left side of the body of the fourth dorsal , and finally turns downwards to become continuous with the descending

At its commencement it has the same diameter as the ascending aorta, 1¼ inches (28 mm.), but after giving off three large branches, the diameter is reduced to a little less than one inch (23 mm.)

Relations.—It is overlapped in front and on the left side by the right and left lungs and pleural sacs, but much more by the latter than the former, and in the interval between and behind the pleural sacs it is covered by the remains of the thymus gland. As it turns backwards it is crossed vertically on the left side by four nerves in the following order from before backwards:—the left phrenic, the inferior cervical cardiac branch of the left vagus, the superior cardiac branch of the left sympathetic, and the trunk of the left vagus, and the left superior intercostal vein passes obliquely upwards and to the right between the vagus and phrenic nerves.

Behind and *to the right side* of the arch are the trachea, deep cardiac plexus, the left recurrent laryngeal nerve, the left border of the œsophagus, and the thoracic duct. *Above* are its three large branches—the innominate, the left common carotid, and the left subclavian arteries—and crossing in front of the roots of these is the left innominate vein. *Below* is the bifurcation of the pulmonary artery and the root of the left lung; the ligamentum arteriosum, which is also below, attaches it to the commencement of the left pulmonary artery, whilst to the right of the ligament is the superficial cardiac plexus, and to its left is the left recurrent laryngeal nerve.

Branches.—The three great vessels which supply the head and neck, part of the thoracic wall, and the upper extremities—viz. the innominate, the left common carotid, and the left subclavian arteries—arise from the aortic arch.

The **descending aorta** (aorta descendens).—The thoracic portion of the descending aorta lies in the posterior mediastinum; it extends from the termination of the arch, at the lower border of the left side of the fourth dorsal vertebra, to the aortic opening in the diaphragm, where, opposite the twelfth dorsal vertebra, it becomes continuous with the abdominal portion. Its length is from seven to eight inches (17·5 to 20 cm.), and its diameter diminishes from 23 mm. at its commencement to 21 mm. at its termination.

Relations.—Immediately *behind* it is the vertebral column and the anterior common ligament. It rests also on the vena azygos minor superior and the vena azygos minor inferior, whilst from its posterior aspect the aortic intercostal branches are given off.

In front it is in relation, from above downwards, with the root of the left lung, the pericardium which separates it from the back of the left auricle, the œsophagus with the œsophageal plexus of nerves, and the crura of the diaphragm which separate it from the Spigelian lobe of the liver. On the *left side* are the left lung and pleura. On the *right side* the thoracic duct and the vena azygos major form immediate relations along its whole length. The œsophagus also lies to the right of the upper part of the descending aorta, whilst the right lung and pleura are in close relation below.

Branches.—Nine pairs of aortic intercostal arteries, two left bronchial arteries, four or five œsophageal, some small pericardial, and a few posterior mediastinal branches usually arise from the descending aorta.

THE ABDOMINAL AORTA.

The abdominal portion of the descending aorta lies in the epigastric and umbilical regions of the abdomen. It extends from the middle of the lower border of the last dorsal vertebra to the left side of the body of the fourth lumbar vertebra, where it bifurcates into the right and left common iliac arteries. The point of division is a little below and to the left of the umbilicus, opposite a line drawn transversely across the abdomen on a level with the highest points of the iliac crests.

At its commencement it is 21 mm. in diameter, but after the origin of two large branches, the cœliac axis and the superior mesenteric arteries, it diminishes considerably, and then retains a fairly uniform diameter to its termination.

Relations.—*Behind*, it is in contact with the upper four lumbar vertebræ and

intervening intervertebral discs, the anterior common ligament, and the left lumbar veins; the lumbar and the middle sacral arteries spring from this aspect of the vessel. In *front*, and in close relation with it, there are from above downwards the following structures: the cœliac axis and solar plexus, the pancreas and splenic vein, the superior mesenteric artery, the left renal vein, the third part of the duodenum, the root of the mesentery, the aortic plexus, the inferior mesenteric artery, the peritoneum and coils of small intestine. More superficially the stomach, the transverse colon, and the great and small omenta, are in front. On the *right side*, in the upper part of its extent, are the thoracic duct and

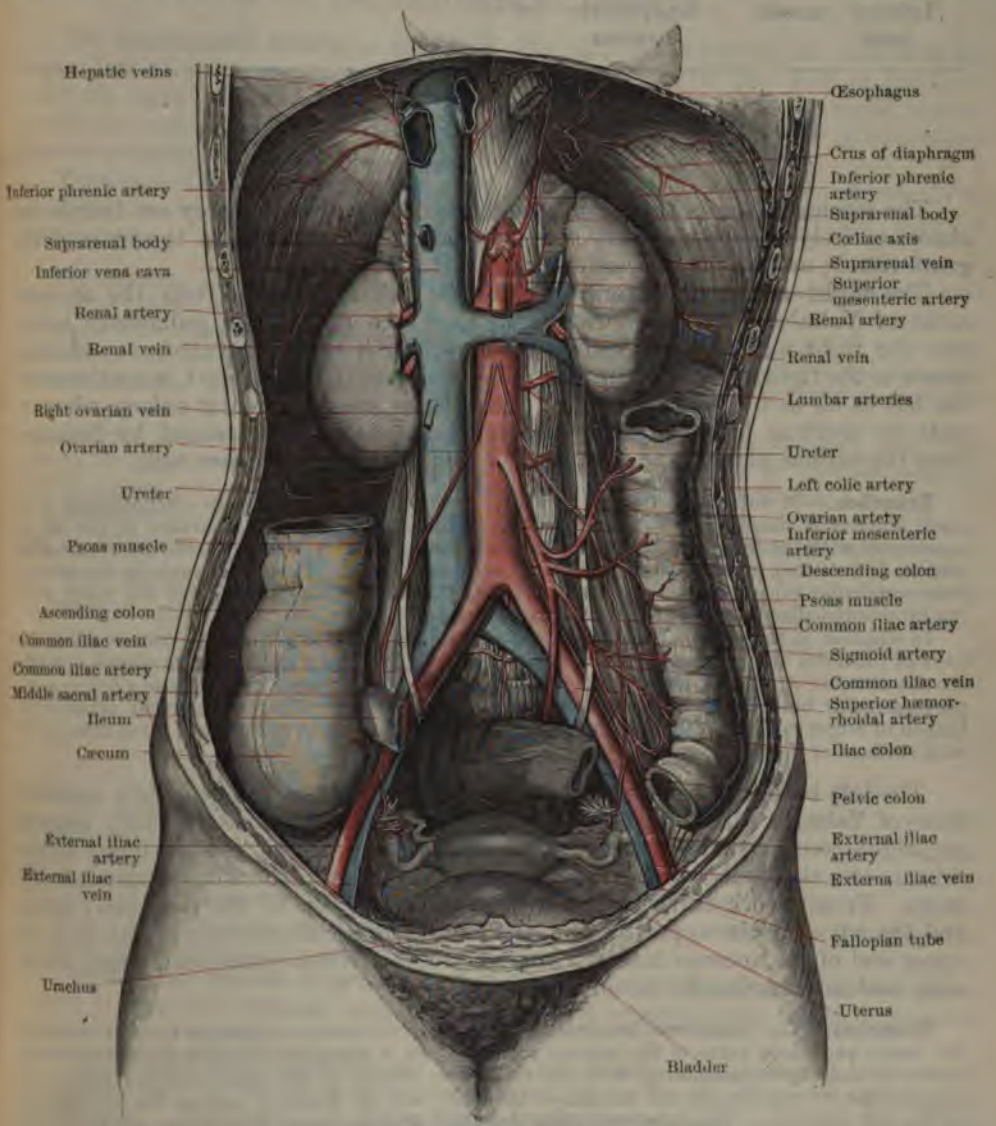


FIG. 621.—THE ABDOMINAL AORTA AND ITS BRANCHES.

receptaculum chyli, the vena azygos major, and the right crus of the diaphragm, the latter separating it from the right semilunar ganglion and from the upper part of the inferior vena cava. In its lower part it is in direct relation with the inferior vena cava. On the *left side*, the left crus of the diaphragm with the left semilunar ganglion, and the fourth part of the duodenum, are in close relation with its upper part, whilst in the lower portion of its extent the peritoneum and some coils of the small intestine are in contact with it.

Branches.—The branches form two groups, visceral and parietal, and each group consists of paired and unpaired vessels, as follows:—

Visceral.		Parietal.	
Unpaired.	**Paired.**	**Unpaired.**	**Paired.**
Cœliac axis	Suprarenal	Middle sacral	Inferior phrenic
Superior mesenteric	Renal		Lumbar (four pairs)
Inferior mesenteric	Spermatic or ovarian		Common iliac

BRANCHES OF THE ASCENDING AORTA.

Coronary Arteries.

The coronary arteries are two in number, a right and a left; they are distributed almost entirely to the heart, but give also some small branches to the roots of the great vessels, and to the pericardium (Figs. 613, 614, and 617).

The **right coronary artery** (a. coronaria dextra) springs from the anterior sinus of Valsalva. It runs forwards, between the root of the pulmonary artery and the right auricular appendix, to the auriculo-ventricular sulcus, in which it passes to the right, and then, turning round the margin of the heart, is continued to the left as far as the posterior end of the inferior interventricular sulcus, where it ends by dividing into two terminal branches. It is accompanied by branches from the cardiac plexus, and is in relation with the right coronary vein.

Branches.—Of the two terminal branches, one, the **transverse** (ramus circumflexus), is of small size; it is simply the continuation of the main trunk which runs farther to the left to anastomose with the transverse branch of the left coronary artery. The other, the **interventricular** (ramus descendens), is much larger than the transverse branch. It runs forwards in the inferior interventricular sulcus, supplies both ventricles, and anastomoses, at the apex of the heart, with the interventricular branch of the left coronary artery.

In addition to the terminal branches small **aortic** and **pulmonary twigs** are distributed to the roots of the aorta and pulmonary artery respectively. A **right auricular branch** passes upwards on the anterior surface of the right auricle, between it and the ascending aorta; one or more preventricular branches, of small size, descend on the anterior surface of the right ventricle; a branch of larger size, the **marginal artery**, descends along the right margin and gives branches to both surfaces of the right ventricle.

The **left coronary artery** (a. coronaria sinistra) arises from the left posterior sinus of Valsalva. In its course and distribution it resembles in many respects the right coronary artery, the chief difference being that it divides much sooner into its two terminal branches; the trunk of the artery is therefore correspondingly short. From its origin it runs forwards between the root of the pulmonary artery and the left auricular appendix, and, reaching the auriculo-ventricular sulcus at the upper end of the anterior interventricular groove, divides immediately into transverse and interventricular terminal branches.

Branches.—The **transverse terminal branch** (ramus circumflexus) runs to the **left margin** of the heart, and there turns to the inferior surface where it comes into relation with the coronary sinus; it ends by anastomosing with the transverse branch of the right coronary artery. It supplies the left auricle, the left margin of the heart, and the posterior part of the lower surface of the left ventricle. The **interventricular terminal branch** (ramus descendens anterior) passes down the anterior interventricular sulcus to the apex of the heart, where it anastomoses with the interventricular branch from the right coronary; it supplies both ventricles, and is accompanied by cardiac nerves and by the great cardiac vein.

A **left auricular branch**, or branches of small size, pass to the wall of the left auricle, and small **aortic** and **pulmonary branches** are also given to the roots of the aorta and pulmonary artery.

BRANCHES OF THE ARCH OF THE AORTA.

The branches which arise from the arch of the aorta supply the head and neck, the upper extremities, and part of the body wall.

They are three in number, viz. the **innominate**, the **left common carotid**, and

the **left subclavian arteries**. The innominate is a short trunk from the termination of which the right common carotid and the right subclavian arteries spring (Figs. 620 and 624); thus there is at first a difference between the stem vessels of opposite sides, but beyond this the subsequent course and the ultimate distribution of these vessels closely correspond.

THE INNOMINATE ARTERY.

The **innominate artery** (a. anonyma, Fig. 620) arises behind the middle of the lower part of the manubrium sterni, from the convexity of the arch of the aorta near its right or anterior extremity, and terminates opposite the right sterno-clavicular articulation, where it divides into the right subclavian and right common carotid arteries.

Course.—The trunk, which measures from one and a half to two inches (37 to 50 mm.) in length, runs upwards, backwards, and outwards in the superior mediastinum.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—It is in contact behind, with the trachea below and with the right pleural sac above.

Anterior.—The left innominate vein crosses in front of the lower part of the artery, and above this the sterno-thyroid muscle separates it from the sterno-hyoid and the right sterno-clavicular joint. The remains of the thymus gland, which separate it from the manubrium sterni, are also in front.

Lateral.—The right innominate vein and the upper part of the superior vena cava are on the right side of the artery. On its left side is the origin of the left common carotid artery, whilst at a higher level the trachea is in contact with it.

Branches.—As a rule the innominate artery does not give off any branches except its two terminals, but occasionally it furnishes an additional branch, the thyroidea ima

The **thyroidea ima** is an inconstant and slender vessel. When present it sometimes arises from the arch of the aorta, but it usually springs from the lower part of the innominate. It passes upwards in front of the trachea, through the anterior part of the superior mediastinum and the lower part of the neck, and gives off branches to the lateral lobes and isthmus of the thyroid body and to the trachea.

THE ARTERIES OF THE HEAD AND NECK.

The vessels distributed to the head and neck are chiefly derived from the carotid trunks; there are, however, in addition, other vessels which arise from the main arterial stems of the upper extremities, and it will be advantageous to describe the most important of these, viz. the vertebral arteries, with the carotid system. The smaller additional branches will be considered along with the remaining branches of the subclavian arteries.

The **carotid system of arteries** consists on each side of a **common carotid trunk**, which divides into **internal** and **external carotid arteries**, from which numerous branches are given off.

The internal carotid arteries are distributed almost entirely to the contents of the cranial cavity internal to the dura mater, and to the structures in the cavity of the orbit. The external carotid arteries, on the other hand, supply structures of the head and neck more externally situated.

It is to be observed, however, that the vascular supply of the brain is not wholly derived from the internal carotid vessels, but that the vertebral arteries also contribute largely to it.

THE COMMON CAROTID ARTERIES.

The right and the left common carotid arteries are of unequal length. The right common carotid commences at the bifurcation of the innominate artery, behind the right sterno-clavicular articulation; the left arises in the superior mediastinum from the arch of the aorta, but each terminates at the level of the upper border of the thyroid cartilage; the left artery has thus a short intra-

thoracic course, and so far its relations call for separate consideration; whilst in the rest of its course it passes, like the right common carotid, upwards in the neck and has almost similar relations.

Thoracic Portion of the Left Common Carotid.—The thoracic or mediastinal portion of the left common carotid artery (a. carotis communis sinistra) extends from the upper aspect of the aortic arch, a little behind and to the left of the origin of the innominate artery, to the left sterno-clavicular articulation, where the cervical portion commences. It is about one or one and a half inches in length (25 to 37 mm.), and it runs upwards and slightly outwards through the upper part of the superior mediastinum, lying farther back than the innominate artery.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—The vessel is in contact behind and from below upwards with the trachea, the left recurrent laryngeal nerve, the œsophagus, and the thoracic duct.

Anterior.—The left innominate vein runs obliquely across the front of the artery, upon which cardiac branches from the left vagus and sympathetic descend vertically. These structures, together with the remains of the thymus gland and the anterior margins of the left lung and pleura, separate the artery from the manubrium sterni, and from the origins of the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles.

Lateral.—The innominate artery below and the trachea above are on the right side. The left pleura, and, on a posterior plane, the left phrenic and vagus nerves and the left subclavian artery are on its left side.

Cervical Portion of the Left Common Carotid Artery.—The cervical part of the left common carotid artery is about three and a half inches long; it extends from the left sterno-clavicular articulation to the level of the upper border of the thyroid cartilage and the lower border of the third cervical vertebra, where it ends by dividing into the external and internal carotid arteries.

Course.—It runs upwards, outwards, and backwards, through the muscular and the lower part of the carotid divisions of the anterior triangle of the neck. In the lower part of its extent it is separated from its fellow of the opposite side by the trachea and the œsophagus, and in the upper part by the relatively wide pharynx.

Relations.—It is enclosed, together with the internal jugular vein and the vagus nerve, in a sheath of deep cervical fascia—the **carotid sheath**.

Posterior.—The longus colli and scalenus anticus below, and the rectus capitis anticus major above, are separated from the posterior surface of the artery and sheath by the prevertebral fascia and the sympathetic cord. The inferior thyroid artery crosses close behind the vessel about the level of the first ring of the trachea; lower down the vertebral artery and the thoracic duct are posterior to it, and the vagus nerve lies behind and to its outer side.

Anterior. The descendens cervicis nerve descends superficial to the artery, usually outside the sheath, but sometimes enclosed in it. Opposite the sixth cervical vertebra the omo-hyoid muscle and the sterno-mastoid branch of the superior thyroid artery cross the carotid artery, which is overlapped, above the omo-hyoid muscle, by the anterior border of the sterno-mastoid, and it is frequently crossed, in this part of its extent, by the superior thyroid vein. Below the omo-hyoid the artery is covered by the sterno-thyroid, the sterno-hyoid, and the sterno-mastoid muscles, and it may be overlapped by the lateral lobe of the thyroid body; it is also crossed beneath the muscles by the middle thyroid vein, whilst occasionally a communication between the common facial and anterior jugular veins descends in front of the artery along the anterior border of the sterno-mastoid. Just above the sternum the anterior jugular vein is in front of the artery, but separated from it by the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles.

Lateral.—The trachea and œsophagus, with the recurrent laryngeal nerve in the angle between them, are internal to the lower part of the artery; the pharynx and larynx are internal to its upper part. The carotid gland lies immediately to the inner side of the termination of the artery.

The internal jugular vein occupies the outer part of the carotid sheath, and lies not only to the outer side of the artery, but also overlaps it in front, especially in the lower part of its extent.

Branches.—As a rule no branches are given off from either of the common carotid arteries except the terminal branches and some minute twigs from each to the corresponding carotid sheath and carotid body.

The right common carotid artery, as already stated, differs as regards origin from the left common carotid. In length and general position it corresponds with the cervical portion of the left common carotid, and its relations also are very similar. Such differences as exist may be briefly summarised as follows:—The internal jugular vein on both sides lies external to the artery; on the left side it runs well in front of the carotid artery in the lower part of the neck, whilst on the right side the vein is separated from the outer surface of the artery at its lower end by a well-marked interval in which the vagus nerve appears. The thoracic duct does not come into relation with the right common carotid, and there is also a

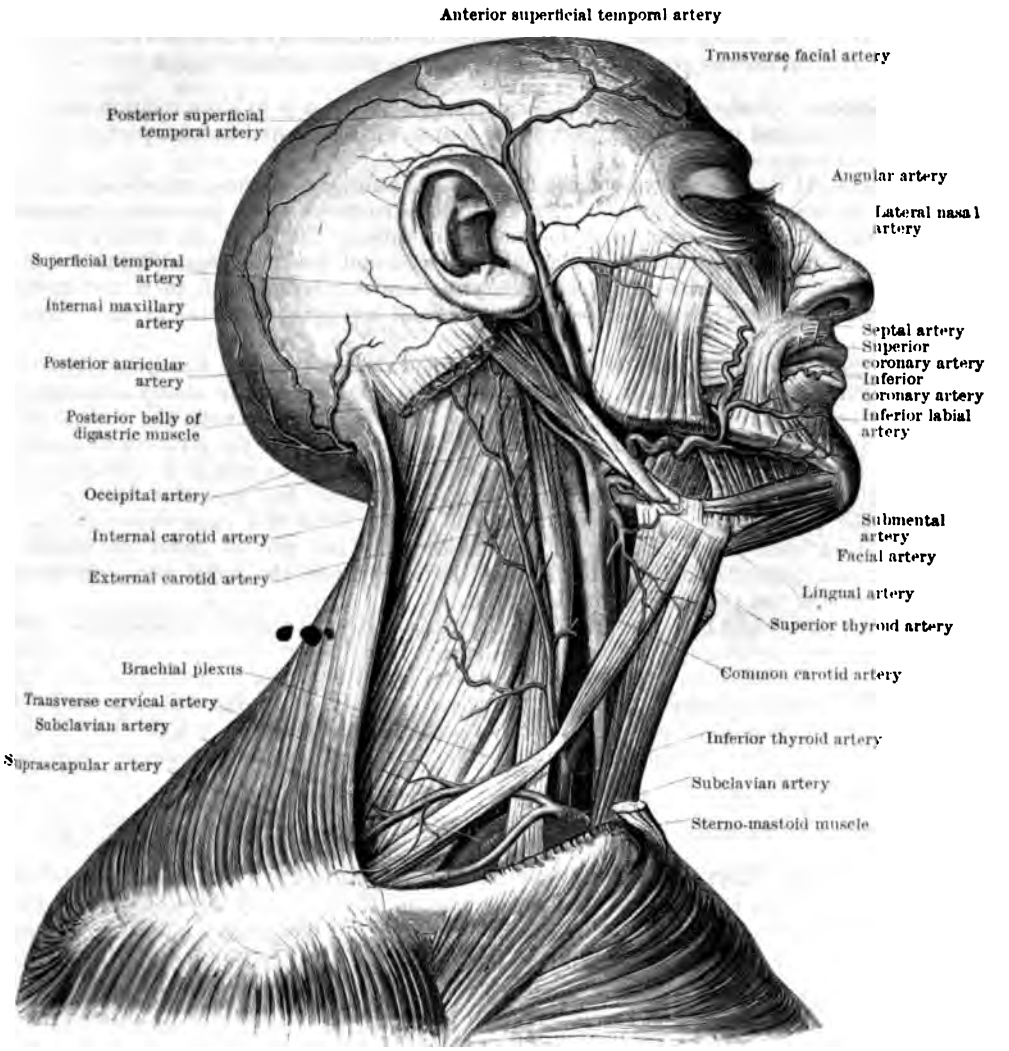


FIG. 622.—THE CAROTID AND SUBCLAVIAN ARTERIES AND THEIR BRANCHES.

difference in the relations of the recurrent laryngeal nerves to the arteries on the two sides. On the left side the nerve crosses behind the mediastinal part of the left artery, and lies internal to its cervical part, whilst the corresponding nerve on the right side passes behind the lower part of the carotid artery in the neck to reach its inner side, and the œsophagus has a less intimate relation with the right than with the left common carotid artery.

THE EXTERNAL CAROTID ARTERY.

The external carotid artery (a. carotis externa, Fig. 623) is the smaller of the two terminal branches of the common carotid; its length is about two and a half inches

(62 mm.) It extends from the upper border of the thyroid cartilage to the back of the neck of the mandible, where it terminates by dividing into the superficial temporal and the internal maxillary arteries.

Course.—It commences in the carotid triangle, passes upwards internal to the posterior belly of the digastric and the stylo-hyoid muscles to enter the posterior part of the submaxillary triangle, where it disappears behind the lower part of the parotid gland, and it terminates under cover, or in the substance, of the upper part of the gland.

At its commencement it lies somewhat in front of and to the inner side of the internal carotid artery, but, inclining slightly backwards as it ascends, it becomes superficial to the latter vessel, and its course is indicated by a line drawn from the lobule of the ear to the posterior extremity of the great cornu of the hyoid bone.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—In the lower part of its extent it is in close relation with the internal carotid, and in the upper part of its course with the cartilaginous portion of the external auditory meatus.

Lateral.—At its commencement the fibres of the inferior constrictor muscle are in contact with its inner side, but at a higher level the structures which intervene between it and the internal carotid—viz. the stylo-pharyngeus muscle, the tip of the styloid process, the stylo-glossus muscle, the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, and the pharyngeal branch of the vagus—separate it from the wall of the pharynx; whilst internal both to it and to the internal carotid artery are the external and internal laryngeal branches of the superior laryngeal nerve.

Superficial.—In the carotid triangle the lingual, ranine, common facial, and superior thyroid veins are superficial to it, and the hypoglossal nerve crosses the artery immediately below the origin of its occipital branch. On the boundary line between the carotid and the submaxillary triangles the posterior belly of the digastric and the stylo-hyoid muscles cover the artery, and from the tip of the mastoid process downwards it is overlapped by the anterior border of the sterno-mastoid muscle. Above the posterior belly of the digastric the parotid gland is superficial to the artery, while still more superficially are the superficial fascia and the skin. In the substance of the parotid gland the temporo-maxillary vein descends on the outer side of the artery, and the facial nerve crosses on the outer side of the vein at a right angle to it.

Branches.—Eight branches arise from the external carotid artery; of these three—the superior thyroid, the lingual, and the facial—spring from its anterior aspect in the carotid triangle; two arise from its posterior aspect, viz. the occipital and the posterior auricular, the former commencing below the posterior belly of the digastric and the latter above it; one from its inner side, viz. the ascending pharyngeal, which rises in the carotid triangle; and two from its termination, viz. the superficial temporal and the internal maxillary.

Branches of the External Carotid Artery.

(1) **Superior Thyroid Artery** (a. thyroidea superior, Figs. 622 and 624).—This vessel springs from the front of the lower part of the external carotid artery, just below the tip of the great cornu of the hyoid bone, and terminates at the upper extremity of the lateral lobe of the thyroid body by dividing into its terminal branches.

Course.—From its commencement in the carotid triangle the artery runs at first forwards and a little upwards; it then turns downwards to its termination.

Relations.—*Internally* it is in relation with the inferior constrictor muscle and the external laryngeal branch of the superior laryngeal nerve.

Superficially it is covered at its origin by the anterior border of the sterno-mastoid afterwards, for a short distance, by fascia, platysma, and skin, and in the lower part of its extent by the omo-hyoid, the sterno-hyoid, and the sterno-thyroid muscles, and it is overlapped by an accompanying vein.

Branches.—(1) *In the carotid triangle* (*a*) an **infra-hyoid branch** (ramus hyoideus) runs along the lower border of the great cornu of the hyoid bone, under cover of the thyro-hyoid muscle, to anastomose with its fellow of the opposite side and with the supra-hyoid branch of the lingual artery. It supplies the thyro-hyoid muscle and membrane.

(*b*) A **laryngeal branch** (a. laryngea superior) runs forwards beneath the thyro-hyoid muscle. It pierces the thyro-hyoid membrane in company with the internal laryngeal nerve, supplies the muscles, ligaments, and mucous membrane of the larynx, and

anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with branches of the crico-thyroid artery, and with the terminal branches of the inferior thyroid artery.

(*c*) The **sterno-mastoid branch** (ramus sterno-cleidomastoideus) passes downwards and backwards along the upper border of the anterior belly of the omo-hyoid muscle, and across the common carotid artery to the under surface of the sterno-mastoid muscle. It anastomoses, in the sterno-mastoid, with branches of the occipital and suprascapular arteries.

(2) *In the muscular triangle* (*d*) a **crico-thyroid branch** (ramus crico-thyroideus) runs forwards, either over or under the sterno-thyroid, and crosses the crico-thyroid muscle to anastomose in front of the crico-thyroid membrane with its fellow of the opposite side, and, by branches which perforate the crico-thyroid membrane, with laryngeal branches of the superior and inferior thyroid arteries. It supplies the adjacent muscles and membrane.

(*e*) The **terminal branches** are **anterior** and **posterior** respectively.

The **anterior terminal branch** (ramus anterior), often much larger than the crico-thyroid artery, descends along the anterior border of the lateral lobe of the thyroid body, and, extending on to the upper border of the thyroid isthmus, anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side. The **posterior branch** (ramus posterior) descends along the posterior border of the lateral lobe, and both terminal branches supply the thyroid body (rami glandulares). They anastomose with each other and with branches from the inferior thyroid artery.

(2) **Lingual Artery.**—The lingual artery (a. lingualis, Figs. 622 and 624) springs from the front of the external carotid, opposite the tip of the great cornu of the hyoid bone, and terminates, as the ranine artery, beneath the tip of the tongue, where it anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side.

Course.—From its commencement, and whilst in the carotid triangle, the first part of the artery forms a loop with the convexity upwards. A second part passes forwards, internal to the hyo-glossus muscle, immediately above the great cornu of the hyoid bone, to the anterior border of the muscle, where it gives off a sublingual branch. A third part passes obliquely forwards and upwards under cover of the anterior border of the hyo-glossus, and a fourth part runs directly forwards on the under surface of the tongue to the tip. The third and fourth parts are frequently described together as the **ranine artery** (a. profunda linguæ).

Relations.—The first part of the lingual artery is crossed superficially by the hypoglossal nerve, but besides this it is only covered by skin, fascia, and the platysma; it rests internally against the middle constrictor of the pharynx. In the rest of its course the artery is for the most part more deeply placed. The second part, remaining in contact internally with the middle constrictor, passes internal to the hyo-glossus muscle, by which it is separated from the hypoglossal nerve, the ranine vein, and the lower part of the submaxillary gland. The third part ascends almost vertically, parallel with and under the anterior fibres of the hyo-glossus, which is here covered by the mylo-hyoid, and between it and the genio-hyo-glossus. The fourth part runs forwards between the inferior lingualis and the genio-hyo-glossus muscles, and is only covered on its lower surface by the mucous membrane of the tongue. Thus the lingual artery at its termination, near the frænum linguæ, is again comparatively superficial.

Branches.—(*a*) The **supra-hyoid** (ramus hyoideus), a small branch which arises in the carotid triangle and runs along the upper border of the great cornu of the hyoid bone. It anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side and with the infra-hyoid branch of the superior thyroid artery.

(*b*) The **dorsalis linguæ** (ramus dorsalis linguæ) is a branch of moderate size which arises from the second part of the artery. It ascends external to the genio-hyo-glossus to the dorsum of the tongue, where it branches and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side round the foramen cæcum. It supplies the posterior part of the tongue as far back as the epiglottis, and sends branches backwards to the tonsil which anastomose with the tonsillar branches of the ascending palatine branch of the facial and with the ascending pharyngeal artery.

(*c*) A **sublingual branch** (a. sublingualis) arises at the lower part of the anterior border of the hyo-glossus muscle and runs forwards and upwards, between the mylo-hyoid and the genio-hyo-glossus, to the sublingual gland, which it supplies; it also supplies the mylo-hyoid, the genio-hyo-glossus, and the genio-hyoid muscles, and it anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the continuation of the lingual by a branch which it sends along the frænum linguæ, and through the mylo-hyoid muscle with the submental branch of the facial.

(3) **Facial Artery.**—The facial or external maxillary artery (a. maxillaris externa, Fig. 622) springs from the front of the external carotid immediately above the lingual, and terminates at the side of the nose, where it divides into lateral nasal and angular branches.

Course.—It commences in the carotid triangle and passes upwards internal to the posterior belly of the digastric and the stylo-hyoid muscles. It turns over the upper border of the digastric, and runs forwards and downwards in a groove in the submaxillary gland to the anterior border of the lower margin of the ramus of the mandible, then it turns round the lower border of the body of the mandible, and is continued upwards and inwards, in the face, to its termination.

Relations.—In the carotid triangle the artery is comparatively superficial, except just at its origin, which is beneath the anterior fibres of the sterno-mastoid muscle. Its deep surface rests on the middle and superior constrictor muscles which separate it from the lower part of the tonsil. As it passes into the submaxillary triangle it is crossed by the stylo-hyoid muscle and by the posterior belly of the digastric. In the submaxillary triangle it is embedded in a groove in the posterior part of the submaxillary gland, and it is separated by the gland from the more superficially situated facial vein. In the upper part of the submaxillary region the artery is just under cover of the ramus of the lower jaw.

Turning round the lower border of the body of the jaw, which it grooves slightly, the artery becomes more superficial than in any other part of its course, being covered only by platysma, fascia, and skin. At this point the facial vein is close behind the artery, and lies on the surface of the masseter. On the face the artery lies between the platysma, the risorius, the zygomaticus major, and the levator labii superioris, which, with skin and fascia, are superficial to it, and the buccinator and levator anguli oris, which are deeper. The termination of the artery is in the substance of the levator labii superioris et alæ nasi.

The facial vein, though still posterior to the artery in the face, runs a somewhat straighter course, and is situated at some little distance from it.

Branches.—Four named branches are given off in the neck, and seven in the face.

In the Neck.—(*a*) The **ascending palatine** (a. palatina ascendens, Fig. 624) is a small artery which arises from the facial as it enters the submaxillary triangle. It ascends internal to the internal pterygoid and upon the superior constrictor, and, passing between the stylo-glossus and the stylo-pharyngeus muscles, reaches the apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, where it turns downwards accompanying the levator palati muscle, pierces the pharyngeal aponeurosis, and enters the soft palate.

It supplies the lateral wall of the upper part of the pharynx, the soft palate, the tonsils, and the Eustachian tube, and it anastomoses with the tonsillar branch of the facial, the dorsalis linguæ, the posterior palatine branch of the internal maxillary, and with the ascending pharyngeal artery which sometimes replaces it.

(*b*) The **tonsillar** (ramus tonsillaris), a small artery which arises close to the ascending palatine. It passes upwards between the internal pterygoid and the stylo-glossus, pierces the superior constrictor, and terminates in the tonsil. It supplies the middle and superior constrictor muscles, and it anastomoses with the dorsalis linguæ, with the ascending palatine branch, and with the ascending pharyngeal artery.

(*c*) The **submaxillary** or **glandular branch** is frequently represented by two or three small twigs (rami glandulares) which pass directly from the facial trunk into the substance of the submaxillary gland.

(*d*) The **submental branch** (a. submentalis) arises from the facial just as the latter vessel turns round the inferior border of the body of the jaw. It is the largest branch given off in the neck, and it runs forwards, on the outer surface of the mylo-hyoid muscle, and internal to the upper part of the submaxillary gland, to the symphysis menti, where it turns upwards round the margin of the jaw, and terminates by anastomosing with branches of the mental and inferior labial arteries. In the neck the submental artery supplies the mylo-hyoid muscle, and the submaxillary and sublingual glands, the latter by a branch which perforates the mylo-hyoid muscle. It anastomoses with the mylo-hyoid branch of the inferior dental and with the sublingual artery. In the face it supplies the structures of the lower lip, and anastomoses with the mental branch of the inferior dental, and with the inferior labial and inferior coronary branches of the facial artery.

In the Face.—(*e*) The **inferior labial branch** (a. labialis inferior) arises from the front of the facial artery immediately above the lower border of the mandible. *It runs forwards* beneath the depressor muscles of the angle of the mouth and the

lower lip, supplying the skin, muscles, and mucous membrane, and anastomoses with the mental branch of the inferior dental, with the inferior coronary, with the submental, and with its fellow of the opposite side.

(*f*) The **inferior coronary** springs from the front of the facial artery, either together with or directly above the inferior labial branch. It runs forwards beneath the depressor anguli oris, and between the fibres of the orbicularis oris and the mucous membrane of the lip. It supplies the adjacent parts, and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, and with the mental, inferior labial, and submental arteries.

(*g*) The **superior coronary** (a. labialis superior) springs from the front of the facial beneath the zygomaticus major, and runs forwards and inwards between the orbicularis oris and the mucous membrane of the upper lip to the middle line. It supplies the skin, muscles, and mucous membrane of the upper lip, and by a *septal branch* the lower and front part of the septum of the nose. It anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the lateral nasal, and, on the septum nasi, with the naso-palatine branch of the spheno-palatine artery.

(*h*) The **masseteric branch**, sometimes represented by several twigs, arises from the posterior aspect of the facial trunk a short distance above the lower margin of the jaw. It passes upwards and backwards across the masseter, and anastomoses with the transverse facial artery.

(*i*) The **buccal** is an inconstant branch which, when present, arises from the back of the facial artery above the masseteric branch, and runs upwards and backwards, across the buccinator muscle, to anastomose with the buccal branch of the internal maxillary artery.

(*k*) The **lateral nasal**, one of the terminal branches of the facial artery, is usually small. It ramifies on the ala of the nose, supplying the skin, muscles, and lower lateral cartilages, and anastomosing with the angular branch, with the nasal branch of the ophthalmic, and with branches of the spheno-palatine artery.

(*l*) The **angular** (a. angularis), the other terminal branch of the facial, continues the direction of the main trunk along the side of the nose to the inner angle of the orbit. It supplies the skin and muscles of the side of the nose, and anastomoses with the lateral nasal, and with the nasal and palpebral branches of the ophthalmic artery.

(4) **Occipital Artery** (a. occipitalis, Figs. 622, 623, and 650).—This vessel arises from the back of the external carotid artery, below the posterior belly of the digastric muscle, and terminates near the inner end of the superior curved line of the occipital bone by dividing into internal and external terminal branches.

Course.—It commences in the carotid triangle and runs upwards and backwards, parallel with and under cover of the posterior belly of the digastric, to the interval between the transverse process of the atlas and the base of the skull, where it turns backwards in a groove on the under surface of the mastoid portion of the temporal bone; as it leaves the groove it alters its direction and runs upwards and inwards on the superior oblique muscle to the junction of the inner and middle thirds of the superior curved line of the occipital bone, where it enters the superficial fascia of the scalp.

Relations.—In the first or ascending part of its course the occipital artery crosses successively the internal carotid artery, the hypoglossal nerve, the vagus nerve, the internal jugular vein, and the spinal accessory nerve; it is covered by the lower fibres of the posterior belly of the digastric and the anterior part of the sterno-mastoid muscle, and, close to its origin, it is crossed by the hypoglossal nerve. In the second, or more horizontal part of its course, it is still under cover of the sterno-mastoid and digastric, and lies internally against the rectus capitis lateralis, which separates it from the vertebral artery. In the third part of its course it rests upon the superior oblique and complexus, and is under cover of the sterno-mastoid, the splenius capitis, and the trachelo-mastoid muscles. At its termination it is crossed by the great occipital nerve; it passes either through the trapezius or between the trapezius and the sterno-mastoid, and pierces the deep fascia of the neck before it enters the superficial fascia of the scalp.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** (rami musculares) go to the surrounding muscles. The **sterno-mastoid branch** (a. sternocleido-mastoidea) is the most important of this group; it springs from the commencement of the occipital, is looped downwards across the hypoglossal nerve, and is continued downwards and backwards, below and in front of the spinal accessory nerve, into the sterno-mastoid muscle where it anastomoses with the sterno-mastoid branch of the superior thyroid artery.

(*b*) The **meningeal** are irregular branches (rami meningei) given off from the occipital

behind the mastoid process. They enter the posterior fossa of the skull through the anterior condyloid foramen, or through the foramen lacerum posterius; they supply the upper part of the internal jugular vein, the lateral sinus, and the dura mater in the posterior fossa of the skull, and they anastomose with the middle meningeal and with meningeal branches of the ascending pharyngeal artery.

(*c*) The **mastoid**, a small and irregular branch (ramus mastoideus) given off from the occipital behind the mastoid process. It enters the posterior fossa of the skull through the mastoid foramen, supplies the dura mater, and anastomoses with branches of the middle meningeal artery.

(*d*) The **princeps cervicis** (ramus descendens) is a large branch given off from the occipital upon the surface of the superior oblique. It passes inwards to the outer border of the complexus, where it divides into superficial and deep branches. The superficial branch runs over the complexus, between it and the trapezius, and anastomoses with the superficial cervical artery. The deep branch runs between the complexus and the underlying semispinalis colli, and anastomoses with branches of the vertebral and profunda cervicis arteries.

(*e*) The **auricular** (ramus auricularis) is an inconstant branch which, as a rule, is only given off from the occipital when the posterior auricular artery is absent. It ramifies over the mastoid process, and supplies the inner surface of the pinna.

(*f*) The **terminal branches** (rami occipitales) are internal and external. They ramify in the superficial fascia of the posterior part of the scalp, anastomosing with the posterior auricular and superficial temporal arteries. They are both accompanied by branches of the great occipital nerve, and the internal branch gives off a parietal twig, which passes into the skull through the parietal foramen to supply the walls of the superior longitudinal sinus, and to anastomose with the middle meningeal artery.

(5) **Posterior Auricular Artery** (a. auricularis posterior, Figs. 622, 623).—The posterior auricular artery springs from the back of the external carotid, immediately above the posterior belly of the digastric muscle, and terminates between the mastoid process and the back of the pinna by dividing into mastoid and auricular branches.

Course and Relations.—Commencing in the posterior part of the submaxillary triangle, it runs upwards and backwards, under cover of the posterior part of the parotid gland, to the interval between the mastoid process and the external auditory meatus. It is accompanied in the terminal part of its course by the posterior auricular branch of the facial nerve.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** are given to the sterno-mastoid, the digastric, and the styloid group of muscles.

(*b*) **Parotid branches** pass to the lower and posterior part of the parotid gland.

(*c*) A **stylo-mastoid branch** (a. stylomastoidea) is given off at the lower border of the external auditory meatus. It runs upwards by the side of the facial nerve, enters the stylo-mastoid foramen, and ascends, in the aqueduct of Fallopius, to the upper part of the inner wall of the tympanum where it terminates by anastomosing with the petrosal branch of the middle meningeal artery. It supplies branches to the external auditory meatus, the mastoid cells, the vestibule, and semicircular canals, the stapedius muscle, and the tympanic cavity (a. tympanica posterior). One of the latter branches, anastomosing with the tympanic branch of the internal maxillary, forms, in young subjects, a vascular circle round the membrana tympani; other branches anastomose with tympanic branches from the internal carotid and the ascending pharyngeal arteries, and with the auditory branch of the basilar.

(*d*) The **auricular**, or anterior terminal branch (ramus auricularis), ascends beneath the retrahens aurem muscle. It gives branches to the scalp in the posterior part of the temporal region, which anastomose with the superficial temporal and occipital arteries, and to the pinna. The latter branches supply both surfaces of the pinna, piercing or turning round the margins of the cartilage to gain the outer surface, and they anastomose with the auricular branches of the superficial temporal artery.

(*e*) The **mastoid**, or posterior terminal branch (ramus occipitalis), runs upwards and backwards along the insertion of the sterno-mastoid muscle. It supplies the sterno-mastoid, the occipito-frontalis, and the skin, and it anastomoses with the occipital artery.

(6) **Ascending Pharyngeal Artery** (a. pharyngea ascendens, Fig. 624).—This

rises from the inner surface of the lower part of the external carotid, and terminates n the wall of the pharynx and in the soft palate.

Course.—Commencing in the carotid triangle, usually as the first or second ranch of the external carotid, it ascends on the wall of the pharynx to the apex f the petrous portion of the temporal bone.

Relations.—Internally it is in relation with the constrictor muscles of the pharynx. ehind it are the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ, the sympathetic cord, nd the rectus capitis anticus major. Externally it is in relation with the internal arotid artery, and it is crossed by the stylo-pharyngeus muscle, the glosso-pharyngeal erve, and the pharyngeal branch of the vagus.

Branches.—The branches of this artery are very irregular and inconstant, but the llowing have received names:—

(*a*) **Pharyngeal Branches** (rami pharyngei).—Small twigs which ramify on the walls the pharynx and supply the middle and superior constrictor muscles, the tonsil, and e lower part of the Eustachian tube. They anastomose with branches of the superior yroid, lingual, and facial arteries.

(*b*) **Prevertebral.**—Small branches distributed to the prevertebral muscles and fascia, e deep cervical glands, and the large nerve trunks. They anastomose with the ascending rvical and vertebral arteries.

(*c*) **Meningeal** (a. meningea posterior), one or more small branches which enter the anium by the anterior condyloid, the posterior lacerate, or the middle lacerate foramen, d supply the dura mater. They anastomose with branches of the middle meningeal and rtebral arteries.

(*d*) **Tympanic** (a. tympanica inferior), a small artery which accompanies the tympanic anch of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve to the tympanic cavity, where it anastomoses with e other tympanic arteries.

(*e*) **Palatine.**—A very variable artery which sometimes replaces the ascending palatine anch of the facial artery. When present it springs from the upper part of the ascend- g pharyngeal artery, pierces the pharyngeal aponeurosis above the upper border of e superior constrictor muscle, and descends into the soft palate with the levator palati uscle. It supplies the mucous membrane of the supero-lateral part of the pharyngeal all and the tissues of the soft palate, and it anastomoses with the palatine branches of ie internal maxillary, the facial, and the lingual arteries

(7) **Superficial Temporal Artery** (a. temporalis superficialis, Fig. 622).—This rtery, one of the terminal branches of the external carotid, commences in the pper part of the parotid gland, behind the neck of the mandible, and terminates i the scalp, from one to two inches (25 to 50 mm.) above the zygoma, by dividing ito an anterior and a posterior terminal branch.

Course.—The artery ascends over the posterior root of the zygoma, and passes ito the superficial fascia of the temporal region. It is accompanied by the uriculo-temporal nerve and by the superficial temporal vein which usually lies osterior to it. As it crosses the zygoma it lies immediately beneath the skin, and ; may be easily compressed against the subjacent bone.

Branches.—(*a*) **Parotid,** small branches (rami parotidei) to the upper part of the arotid gland

(*b*) **Articular,** to the temporo-mandibular articulation.

(*c*) **Auricular.**—Small branches (rami auriculares anteriores) to the outer surface of ie pinna and to the external auditory meatus. They anastomose on the surface of the inna with branches of the posterior auricular artery, and in the external meatus with ranches of the internal maxillary artery.

(*d*) **Transverse Facial** (a. transversa faciei).—A branch of moderate size which rises in ie substance of the parotid gland. It emerges from the upper part of the anterior order of the gland, runs forwards across the masseter, below the zygoma and above tenson's duct, accompanied by the infra-orbital branches of the facial nerve which may e either above or below it. It is distributed to the parotid gland, the masseter, Stenson's uct, and the skin, and it terminates in branches which anastomose with the infra-orbital nd buccal branches of the internal maxillary artery, and with the buccal and masseteric ranches of the facial artery.

(*e*) **Middle Temporal** (a. temporalis media).—A branch which usually springs from the uperficial temporal in the parotid gland. It crosses the zygoma, pierces the temporal

fascia and the temporal muscle, and terminates in the temporal fossa by anastomosing with the deep temporal branches of the internal maxillary artery.

(*f*) **Orbital** (a. zygomatico-orbitalis).—This branch may spring directly from the superficial temporal, but it is frequently a branch of the middle temporal. It runs forwards above the zygoma between the two layers of the temporal fascia. It supplies branches to the orbicularis palebrarum, and anastomoses, through the malar bone and round the outer margin of the orbit, with the lachrymal and palpebral branches of the ophthalmic artery.

(*g*) The **anterior terminal branch** (ramus frontalis) runs forwards and upwards, in a tortuous course, through the superficial fascia of the scalp towards the frontal eminence, lying at first upon the temporal fascia, and then upon the epicranial aponeurosis. It supplies the frontalis and the orbicularis palpebrarum, and anastomoses with the lachrymal

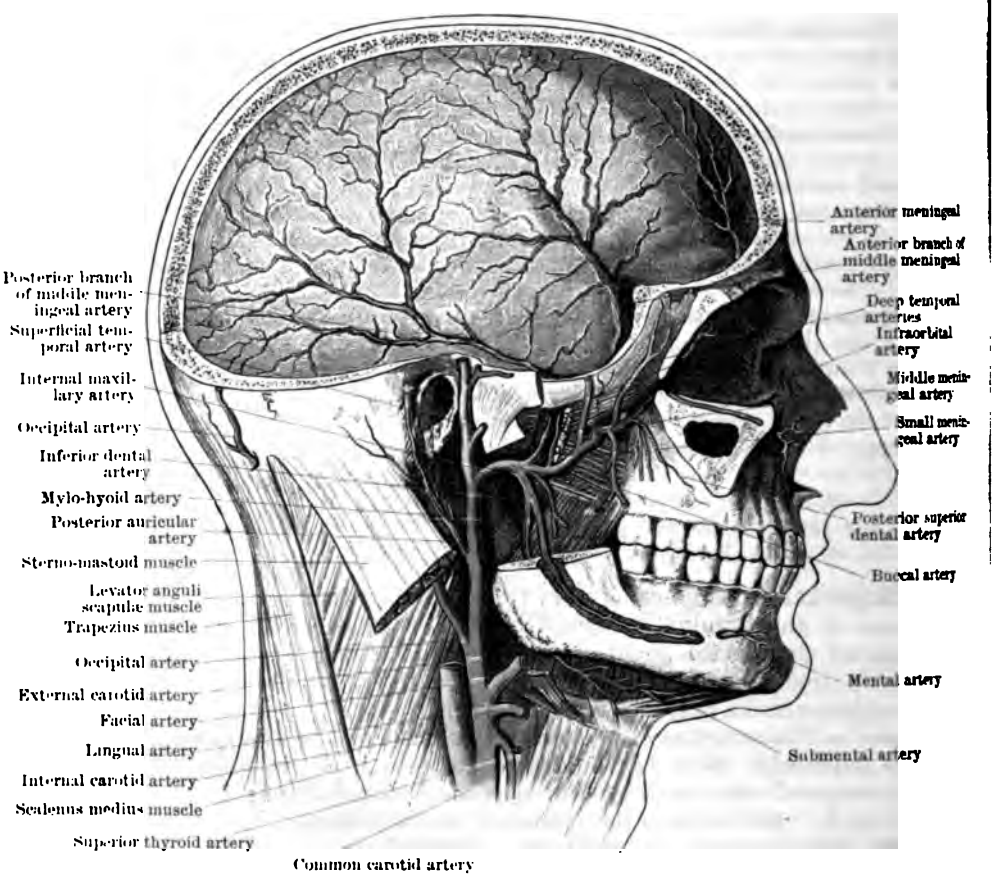


FIG. 623.—THE EXTERNAL CAROTID, INTERNAL MAXILLARY, AND MENINGEAL ARTERIES.

and supraorbital branches of the ophthalmic artery, with the posterior terminal branch of the superficial temporal, and with its fellow of the opposite side.

(*h*) The **posterior terminal branch** (ramus parietalis), less tortuous than the anterior, runs upwards and backwards in the superficial fascia of the scalp. It anastomoses, anteriorly, with the anterior terminal branch, posteriorly with the posterior auricular and occipital arteries, and, across the middle line, with its fellow of the opposite side. It supplies the skin and fascia, and the attrahens and attollens aurem muscles.

(8) **Internal Maxillary Artery** (a. maxillaris interna).—The internal maxillary artery commences in the parotid gland behind the neck of the lower jaw, and terminates in the spheno-maxillary fossa.

Course and Relations.—Although the internal maxillary artery is only a short trunk it has many important relations, in the consideration of which it is convenient to arbitrarily divide the vessel into three parts. The **first part** extends *from* the back of the neck of the mandible forwards into the zygomatic fossa as

s the lower border of the external pterygoid muscle. It lies between the o-mandibular ligament and the neck of the jaw, along with the auriculo-ral nerve and the internal maxillary vein. The **second part** is in the zygo-fossa, and ascends upwards and forwards. It may lie superficial to, or under of, the lower head of the external pterygoid muscle. In the former case it ated between the temporal and external pterygoid muscles, and in the latter en the external pterygoid muscle and the branches of the third division of fth nerve. The **third part** passes between the upper and the lower heads external pterygoid, through the pterygo-maxillary fissure and into the o-maxillary fossa.

anches.—*From the first part.*—(*a*) **Deep auricular** (a. auricularis profunda), a branch which rises in the parotid gland and passes upwards to enter the external ry meatus. It supplies the temporo-mandibular joint, the parotid gland, and the al meatus, and anastomoses with branches of the superficial temporal and posterior lar arteries

The **tympanic** (a. tympanica anterior), a variable and small branch which com-s in the parotid gland. It runs upwards and backwards, traverses the Glasserian , and enters the tympanum through its outer wall. In the tympanic cavity it moses with tympanic branches from the internal carotid and the ascending ngeal arteries, and with the stylo-mastoid branch of the posterior auricular, forming he latter, in young subjects, a circular anastomosis round the tympanic membrane.

Middle Meningeal (a. meningea media).—The largest branch of the internal ary. It ascends between the external pterygoid muscle and the spheno-mandibular nt, and passes between the two roots of the auriculo-temporal nerve and through amen spinosum, to enter the middle fossa of the cranial cavity. Before it enters cull it lies behind the third division of the fifth nerve, and is accompanied by næ comites which also pass through the foramen spinosum. In the middle cranial t passes forward, and upwards for a short distance, in a groove on the great wing of henoid, between the dura mater and the bone, and divides into anterior and or terminal branches.

anches.—(i.) **Petrosal** (ramus petrosus superficialis).—A small branch which arises from the meningeal soon after it enters the cranium. It passes through the hiatus Fallopii and noses with the stylo-mastoid branch of the posterior auricular artery; it also sends some ranches into the tympanic cavity

Gasserian.—Minute branches which supply the Gasserian ganglion and the roots of the anial nerve.

) **Tympanic** (a. tympanica superior).—A small twig which reaches the tympanic cavity h the canal for the tensor tympani muscle, or through the petro-squamous suture.

) **Orbital.**—An anastomosing branch which occasionally arises from the anterior terminal . It passes through the foramen lacerum anterius into the orbit, and anastomoses with the nal artery.

Anterior terminal, the larger of the two terminal branches, passes upwards along the ring of the sphenoid to the antero-inferior angle of the parietal bone, where it is sometimes d in a distinct bony canal; it is continued upwards a short distance behind the anterior of the parietal bone almost to the vertex of the skull, sending branches forwards into the r, and backwards towards the posterior cranial fossa.

) The **posterior terminal branch** passes backwards from the great wing of the sphenoid to namous part of the temporal bone, beyond which it ascends to the middle of the inner of the parietal bone. It sends branches upwards to the vertex, and backwards towards terior cranial fossa.

means of its various branches the middle meningeal artery anastomoses with its fellow of posite side, with meningeal branches from the occipital, ascending pharyngeal, ophthalmic, hrymal arteries; also with the stylo-mastoid branch of the posterior auricular, the small real artery, with the deep temporal arteries through the substance of the temporal bone, th its fellow of the opposite side.

A **small meningeal branch** (ramus meningeus accessorius) may arise either y from the first part of the internal maxillary or from its middle meningeal branch. es upwards, on the inner side of the external pterygoid muscle, enters the middle f the skull through the foramen ovale, supplies the Gasserian ganglion and the ater, and terminates by anastomosing with branches of the middle meningeal and l carotid arteries.

The **inferior dental** (a. alveolaris inferior) is a branch of moderate size which downwards between the spheno-mandibular ligament and the mandible to the bular foramen. It is accompanied by the inferior dental nerve which lies in front

After entering the foramen it descends in the mandibular canal, and terminates at the mental foramen by dividing into mental and incisive branches.

Branches.—Before it enters the mandibular foramen it gives off two branches.

(i.) The **lingual**, a small twig to the buccal mucous membrane which accompanies the lingual nerve. (ii.) The **mylo-hyoid** (ramus mylohoideus), a small branch which is given off immediately above the mandibular foramen. It pierces the spheno-mandibular ligament, and descends in the mylo-hyoid groove, in company with the mylo-hyoid nerve, to the floor of the mouth, where it anastomoses, on the superficial surface of the mylo-hyoid muscle, with the submental branch of the facial artery.

In the mandibular canal the following branches are given off:—

(i.) **Molar branches** to the molar teeth. (ii.) **Bicuspid branches** to the bicuspid teeth. (iii.) **The incisive terminal branch**, which supplies the incisor teeth and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side. (iv.) The **mental terminal branch** (a. mentalis), which passes through the mental foramen, emerges beneath the depressor labii inferioris, and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the inferior coronary, the inferior labial, and with the submental arteries.

From the second part.—(*a*) The **masseteric** (a. masseterica), a small branch which passes directly outwards, through the sigmoid notch, to the deep surface of the masseter muscle. It anastomoses in the substance of the muscle with branches of the transverse facial and with the masseteric branches of the facial artery.

(*b*) **Deep Temporal.**—Two in number, anterior (a. temporalis profunda anterior) and posterior (a. temporalis profunda posterior). They ascend between the temporal muscle and the squamous portion of the temporal bone, supplying the muscle and anastomosing with the temporal and lachrymal arteries, and, through the substance of the temporal bone, with the middle meningeal artery.

(*c*) Small **pterygoid branches** (rami pterygoidei) supply the internal and external pterygoid muscles.

(*d*) The **buccal** (a. buccinatoria), a long, slender branch which passes obliquely forwards and downwards with the long buccal nerve. It supplies the buccinator muscle, the skin and mucous membrane of the cheek, and anastomoses with the buccal branch of the facial artery.

From the third part.—(*a*) A **posterior superior dental branch** (a. alveolaris superior posterior) descends in the zygomatic fossa, on the posterior surface of the superior maxilla, and ends in branches which supply the molar and bicuspid teeth and the mucous membrane of the antrum, they also give twigs to the gums and to the buccinator muscle.

(*b*) An **infra-orbital branch** (a. infra-orbitalis) commences in the spheno-maxillary fossa. It enters the orbit through the spheno-maxillary fissure, and runs forwards in the infra-orbital groove and canal to the infra-orbital foramen, through which it passes to emerge on the face beneath the levator labii superioris. Whilst in the infra-orbital groove it gives branches to the inferior rectus, the inferior oblique and the lachrymal gland. In the infra-orbital canal it gives small twigs to the incisor and canine teeth (aa. alveolares superiores anteriores) and to the antrum. In the face it sends branches upwards to the lower eyelid, to the lachrymal sac, and to the nasal process of the superior maxilla, which anastomose with branches of the ophthalmic and facial arteries; other branches run downwards to the upper lip, where they anastomose with the superior coronary artery; lastly, some branches run outwards into the cheek to unite with the transverse facial and the buccal arteries.

(*c*) The **posterior** or **descending palatine** (a. palatina descendens) runs downwards through the spheno-maxillary fossa, passes through the posterior palatine canal, and reaches the mucous membrane of the roof of the mouth, where it runs forwards, internal to the alveolar process, to terminate in a small branch which ascends through the anterior palatine fossa and Stensen's canal and anastomoses with the spheno-palatine branch of the internal maxillary artery. As it descends it gives off several small twigs which pass through the accessory palatine canals to supply the soft palate, and to anastomose with the ascending palatine and tonsillar branches of the facial and with the ascending pharyngeal artery. In its course forwards in the roof of the mouth it supplies the gums and the mucous membrane of the hard palate, and also the palate and superior maxillary bones.

(*d*) The **Vidian** (a. canalis pterygoidei) is a long, slender branch which runs backwards through the Vidian canal with the Vidian nerve. It supplies branches to the upper part of the pharynx, to the levator and tensor palati muscles, and to the Eustachian tube. One of the latter branches passes along the wall of the Eustachian tube to the tympanic cavity, where it anastomoses with the other tympanic arteries.

(*e*) The **pterygo-palatine** is a small artery which runs backwards, with the pharyngeal *branch* of Meckel's ganglion, to the roof of the pharynx. It supplies the upper and back

part of the roof of the nose, the roof of the pharynx, the sphenoidal sinus, and the lower part of the Eustachian tube, and anastomoses with the Vidian branch of the internal carotid.

(*f*) The **spheno-palatine branch** (a. spheno-palatina) springs from the termination of the internal maxillary artery. It passes inwards through the spheno-palatine foramen into the nasal cavity, where it divides into many branches. One of these, the internal nasal or **naso-palatine**, which is sometimes looked upon as the continuation of the artery, crosses the back part of the roof of the nose, and descends in a groove on the vomer to the incisive foramen, where it anastomoses with the termination of the posterior palatine artery and with the septal branch of the superior coronary. The outer or external nasal branches of the spheno-palatine artery supply the greater part of the outer wall of the nasal fossa and the cavity of the antrum, anastomosing with branches of the infraorbital, ethmoidal, and lateral nasal arteries. Branches are also distributed to the ethmoidal cells, to the sphenoidal sinus, and to the upper part of the pharynx.

THE INTERNAL CAROTID ARTERY.

The **internal carotid artery** (a. carotis interna, Figs. 622, 624, and 627) commences at the termination of the common carotid, opposite the upper border of the

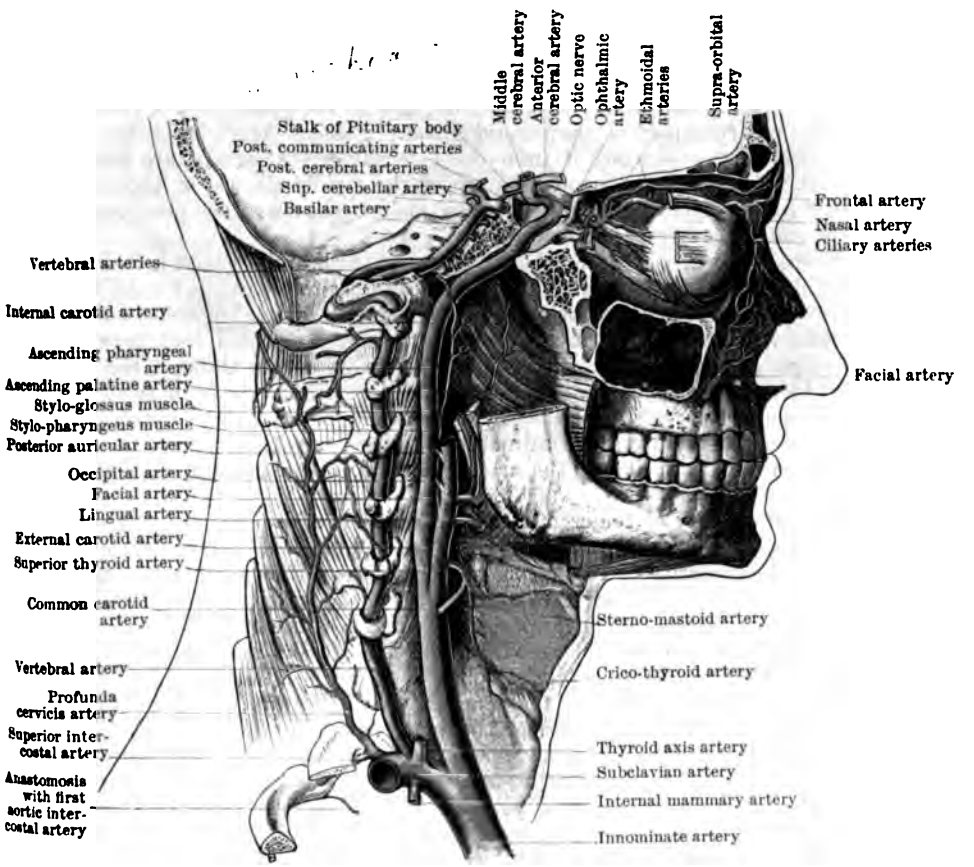


FIG. 624.—THE CAROTID, SUBCLAVIAN, AND VERTEBRAL ARTERIES AND THEIR MAIN BRANCHES.

thyroid cartilage, and terminates in the middle fossa of the skull, close to the commencement of the fissure of Sylvius, where it divides into the middle and anterior cerebral arteries.

Course.—It passes through the carotid and submaxillary triangles, traverses the carotid canal of the temporal bone, crosses the upper part of the foramen lacerum medium, and runs in the outer wall of the cavernous sinus in the middle fossa of the skull.

At its origin it lies behind and to the outer side of the external carotid, but as

it ascends internal to the posterior belly of the digastric and the stylo-hyoid it to the inner side of that vessel. After entering the submaxillary triangle it asce in relation with the posterior surface of the parotid gland, to the carotid cana the temporal bone, through which it passes to the apex of the petrous portio the temporal bone, where it turns upwards, through the upper part of the fora lacerum medium, into the middle cranial fossa. It then runs forwards in the o wall of the cavernous sinus to the lower root of the small wing of the spher there it turns upwards and then backwards and outwards to its termination.

Relations.—The relations of the various parts of the artery require sepa consideration.

In the Neck.—Posterior.—The rectus capitis anticus major, the prevertebral fascia, the sympathetic cord, separate it from the transverse processes of the cervical verte and somewhat to its outer side are the internal jugular vein and the vagus nerve. spinal accessory and the glosso-pharyngeal nerves are also behind and to the outer sic the artery for a short distance in the upper part of the neck, and they intervene betv it and the internal jugular vein. *Internal* or deep to the internal carotid is the exte carotid artery for a short distance below, and afterwards the wall of the pharynx, ascending pharyngeal artery, the pharyngeal plexus of veins, and the external and inte laryngeal nerves. Just before it enters the temporal bone the levator palati muscle its inner side. *External* or superficial to it are the sterno-mastoid, skin, and fascia, it is crossed beneath the sterno-mastoid from below upwards by the hypoglossal n the occipital artery, and the posterior auricular artery. It is also crossed more su ficially by the digastric and stylo-hyoid muscles, and in the upper part of its extent covered by the posterior part of the parotid gland. Passing obliquely across its ant and outer surface, and separating it from the external carotid artery, are the follo structures, viz.: the stylo-pharyngeus, the tip of the styloid process or the stylo-gl muscle, and the stylo-hyoid ligament, the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, the pharyngeal br of the vagus, and some sympathetic twigs.

In the Carotid Canal.—The artery, as it passes upwards and inwards, is in front of below the cochlea and the tympanum; behind and internal to the canals for the Eustac tube and the tensor tympani; and below the Gasserian ganglion. The thin lamina of l which separates it from the tympanum is frequently perforated, and that between it the Gasserian ganglion is not infrequently absent. In its course through the canal accompanied by small veins and nerves. The veins are tributaries from the tympan which communicate above with the cavernous sinus and below with the internal jug vein. The nerves are the upward continuations of the sympathetic cord; they form plexuses—one on the outer side of the artery, the carotid plexus, and one on the i side, the cavernous plexus.

As it enters the cavity of the cranium the internal carotid artery pierces the exte layer of the dura mater and passes between the lingula and the sixth cranial n externally, and the posterior petrosal process of the body of the sphenoid internally.

In the Cranial Cavity.—The artery runs forwards in the outer wall of the cavernous s in relation with the third, fourth, the ophthalmic division of the fifth, and the sixth cra nerves externally, and with the endothelial wall of the sinus internally. When it rea the lower root of the small wing of the sphenoid it turns upwards to the inner sic the anterior clinoid process, pierces the inner layer of the dura mater, and comes close relation with the under surface of the optic nerve immediately behind the c foramen. It then turns abruptly backwards beneath the optic nerve, and on the inner of the anterior clinoid process which it frequently grooves; inclining outwards, it between the second and third nerves, and beneath the anterior perforated space, to inner end of the stem of the Sylvian fissure, where it turns upwards, at some dist from the outer side of the optic chiasma, and, after piercing the arachnoid, divides its two terminal branches, the anterior and middle cerebral arteries.

Branches of the Internal Carotid Artery.

Branches are given off from the internal carotid in the temporal bone and the cranium, but, as a rule, no branches are given off in the neck.

In the Temporal Bone.—(1) A **tympanic branch** (ramus carotico-tympanicus), small, perforates the posterior wall of the carotid canal, and anastomoses in the tympa with the stylo-mastoid artery and with the tympanic branches of the internal maxil and ascending pharyngeal arteries.

(2) **The Vidian** is a small and inconstant branch which accompanies the great deep petrosal nerve in the Vidian canal; it anastomoses with the Vidian branch of the internal maxillary artery.

In the Cranium.—(1) **Cavernous,** small branches to the walls of the cavernous sinus and to the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth nerves.

(2) **Gasserian,** minute twigs which supply the Gasserian ganglion.

(3) **Pituitary branches** pass to the pituitary body.

(4) **Meningeal branches** ramify in the dura mater of the middle cranial fossa, anastomosing with the branches of the middle and small meningeal arteries.

(5) **Ophthalmic Artery** (a. ophthalmica, Fig. 624).—This artery springs from the front and inner side of the internal carotid as it turns upwards on the inner side of the anterior clinoid process. It passes forwards and outwards, beneath the optic nerve and through the optic foramen into the orbital cavity. In the orbit it runs forwards for a short distance on the outer side of the optic nerve, and it is in relation externally with the lenticular ganglion and the external rectus muscle; turning upwards and inwards, it crosses between the optic nerve and

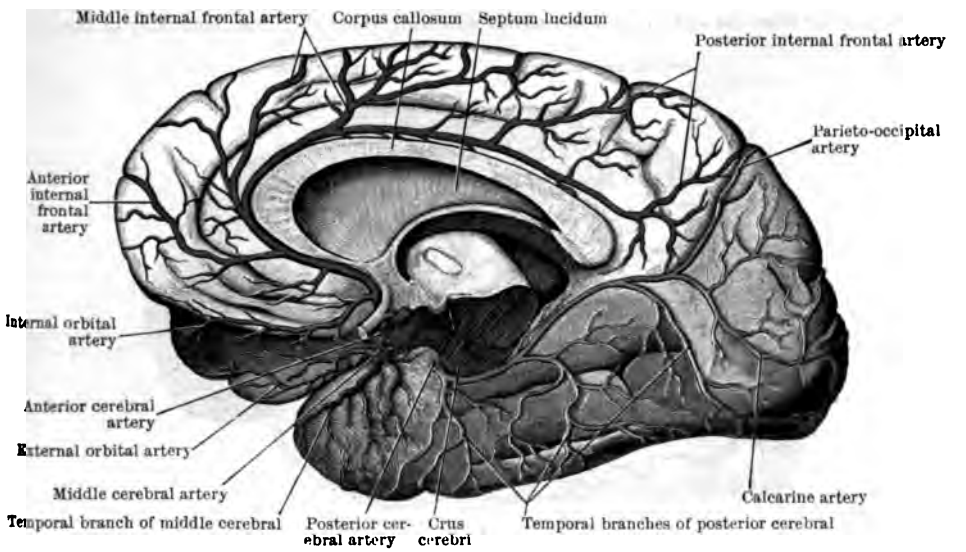


FIG. 625.—DISTRIBUTION OF THE CEREBRAL ARTERIES ON THE MESIAL, TENTORIAL, AND INFERIOR SURFACES OF THE CEREBRAL HEMISPHERES.

The anterior cerebral artery is coloured green, the middle cerebral artery red, and the posterior cerebral artery orange.

the superior rectus to the inner wall of the orbit, where it turns forwards to terminate at the inner and front part of the orbital cavity by dividing into frontal and nasal branches. It is accompanied at first by the nasal nerve, and in the terminal part of its course by the infra-trochlear nerve.

Branches.—The branches of the ophthalmic artery are numerous. (*a*) The **posterior ciliary,** usually six to eight in number, run forwards at the sides of the optic nerve; they soon divide into numerous branches which pierce the back part of the sclerotic coat; the majority terminate in the choroid coat of the eye as the *short ciliary arteries* (aa. ciliares posteriores breves), but two of larger size, the *long ciliary arteries* (aa. ciliares posteriores longæ), run forwards, one on each side, almost in the horizontal plane of the eyeball, between the sclerotic and the choroid coats, to the base of the iris, where they divide. The resulting branches anastomose together and form a circle at the outer periphery of the iris, from which secondary branches run inwards and anastomose together in a second circle near the inner margin of the iris.

(*b*) **The central artery of the retina** (a. centralis retinæ) arises near to, or in common with, the preceding vessels. It pierces the inner and under side of the optic nerve, about half an inch (12 mm.) behind the sclera, and runs in its centre to the retina, where it breaks up into terminal branches.

(*c*) **Recurrent** (a. meningea anterior).—A small branch which passes backwards through the sphenoidal fissure into the middle fossa of the cranium, where it anastomoses with the middle and small meningeal arteries, and with the meningeal branches of the internal carotid and lachrymal arteries.

(*d*) The **lachrymal artery** (a. lacrimalis) arises from the ophthalmic on the outer side of the optic nerve. It runs forwards along the upper border of the external rectus to the upper and outer angle of the orbit, and in its course gives off branches to the lachrymal gland, muscular branches to the external and superior recti, palpebral branches to the upper eyelid and the upper and outer part of the forehead, temporal and malar branches, which accompany the temporal and malar branches of the temporo-malar nerve, to the face and the temporal fossa respectively; *anterior ciliary branches* (aa. ciliares anteriores), which perforate the sclera behind the corneo-scleral junction and anastomose with the posterior ciliary arteries; and a recurrent meningeal branch, which passes backwards through the outer part of the sphenoidal fissure to anastomose in the middle fossa of the skull with the middle meningeal artery.

(*e*) **Muscular.**—These branches are usually arranged in two sets, outer and inner. The former supply the upper and outer, and the latter the lower and inner orbital muscles. They anastomose with muscular branches from the lachrymal and the supra-orbital vessels, and they give off *anterior ciliary branches.*

(*f*) The **supra-orbital branch** (a. supra-orbitalis) is given off as the ophthalmic artery crosses above the optic nerve. It passes round the inner borders of the superior rectus and levator palpebræ muscles, and runs forwards between the latter and the periosteum to the supra-orbital notch, accompanying the frontal and supra-orbital nerves. Passing through the notch it reaches the scalp, and, perforating the frontalis muscle, anastomoses with the superficial, temporal, and frontal arteries.

(*g*) **Ethmoidal branches**, anterior (a. ethmoidalis anterior) and posterior (a. ethmoidalis posterior), arise from the ophthalmic as it runs forwards along the inner boundary of the orbital

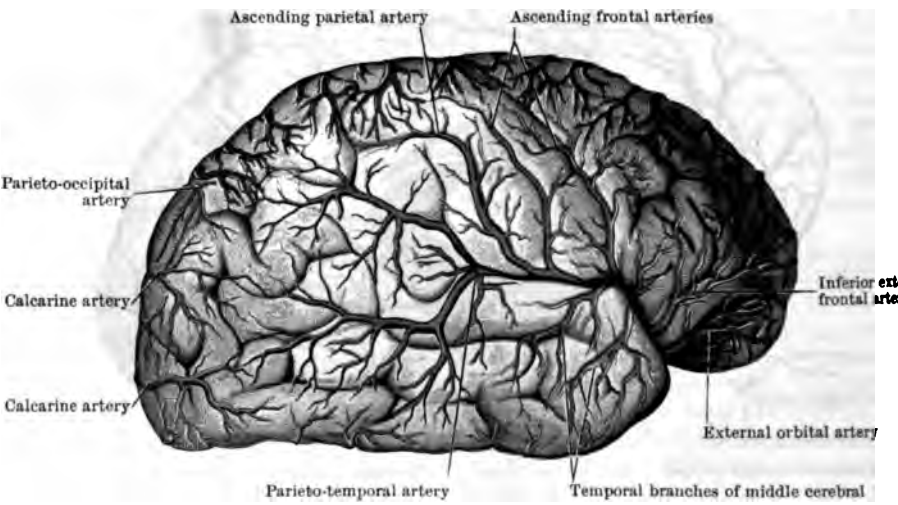


FIG. 626.—DISTRIBUTION OF CEREBRAL ARTERIES ON THE OUTER SURFACE OF THE CEREBRUM.

Anterior cerebral artery is coloured green, the middle cerebral red, and the posterior cerebral orange.

cavity. They pass inwards between the superior oblique and the internal rectus. The posterior, which is much the smaller of the two, traverses the posterior ethmoidal canal, and supplies the posterior ethmoidal cells and the posterior and upper part of the outer wall of the nasal cavity. The anterior ethmoidal artery passes through the anterior ethmoidal canal with the nasal nerve, enters the anterior fossa of the skull, and crosses the cribriform plate of the ethmoid to the nasal notch, through which it reaches the nasal cavity, where it descends with the nasal nerve in a groove on the back of the nasal bone, and finally passes between the upper lateral cartilage and the lower border of the nasal bone to the tip of the nose. It supplies branches to the membranes of the brain in the anterior cranial fossa as well as to the anterior ethmoidal cells, the frontal sinus, the anterior and upper part of the nasal mucous membrane, and the skin on the dorsum of the nose.

(*h*) **Palpebral branches** (aa. palpebrales), upper and lower, are given off near the termination of the ophthalmic. They are distributed to the upper and lower eyelids, and they anastomose with the lachrymal, supra-orbital, and infra-orbital arteries.

(*i*) The **nasal terminal branch** (a. dorsalis nasi) passes out of the orbit above the internal tarsal ligament. It pierces the palpebral fascia, and terminates on the side of the nose by anastomosing with the angular branch of the facial artery.

(*k*) The **frontal terminal branch** (a. frontalis) pierces the palpebral fascia at the upper and inner part of the orbit, and ascends, with the supra-trochlear nerve, in the superficial fascia of the anterior and mesial part of the scalp, anastomosing with its fellow of the opposite side and with the supra-orbital artery.

(6) The **posterior communicating artery** (a. communicans posterior) rises from the *internal* carotid near its termination. It runs backwards below the optic tract and in

ront of the crus cerebri, and passing above the third nerve, joins the posterior cerebral rtery forming part of the circle of Willis. It gives branches to the optic tract, the crus erebri, the interpeduncular region, and the uncinate convolution of the brain. The osterior communicating artery varies much in size; it may be small on one or both ides, sometimes it is very large on one side; occasionally it replaces the posterior erebral artery, and it sometimes arises from the middle cerebral artery.

(7) The **anterior choroidal** (a. choroidea) is a small branch, which also rises near the ermination of the internal carotid; it passes backwards and outwards, between the crus erebri and the uncinate convolution, to the lower and front part of the choroidal fissure hich it enters, and it terminates in the choroidal plexus in the descending cornu of the ateral ventricle. It supplies the optic tract, the crus cerebri, the uncinate convolution, nd the posterior part of the internal capsule.

(8) **Anterior Cerebral Artery** (a. cerebri anterior). This is the smaller f the two terminal branches of the internal carotid. It passes forwards and inwards, above the optic chiasma and immediately in front of the lamina cinerea, to he commencement of the great longitudinal fissure, where it turns round the genu f the corpus callosum, and runs backwards to the parietal lobe of the brain. At he commencement of the great longitudinal fissure it is closely connected with its ellow of the opposite side by a wide but short **anterior communicating artery** (a. ommunicans anterior), and in the remainder of its course it is closely accompanied y its fellow artery of the opposite side.

Branches.—Branches of all the cerebral arteries are distributed both to the basal anglionic masses of the brain and to the cerebral cortex; they therefore form two distinct groups—(*a*) **central or ganglionic**; (*b*) **cortical.**

The branches of the anterior cerebral include:

(*a*) *Central or ganglionic branches.*—The **antero-mesial arteries,** a small group of essels, constitute the central branches of the anterior cerebral artery; they pass upwards to the base of the brain in front of the optic chiasma, and supply the rostrum of ie corpus callosum, the lamina cinerea, and the septum lucidum.

(*b*) *Cortical branches.* — (b^1) **Internal orbital,** one or more small branches which pply the internal orbital convolution, the gyrus rectus, and the olfactory lobe.

(b^2) **Anterior internal frontal,** one or more branches which are distributed to the terior and lower part of the marginal convolution, and to the anterior portions of the perior and middle frontal convolutions.

(b^3) A **middle internal frontal** is distributed to the posterior part of the marginal nvolution, and to the upper portions of the superior and ascending frontal and ascending parietal convolutions.

(b^4) The **posterior internal frontal** runs backwards to the quadrate lobule. It pplies the corpus callosum, the quadrate lobe, and the upper part of the superior rietal lobule.

(9) **Middle Cerebral Artery** (a. cerebri media).—The middle cerebral is the rger of the two terminal branches, and the more direct continuation of the ternal carotid artery. It passes outwards in the fissure of Sylvius to the outer rface of the island of Reil, which it crosses; and divides, in the posterior miting sulcus of Reil, into parieto-temporal and temporal terminal branches.

Branches.—(*a*) *Central or ganglionic.*—Numerous and very variable in size. These anches are given off at the base of the brain, in the region of the anterior perforated ace. Two sets, known as the internal and the external striate arteries, are distinguishable.

(a^1) The **internal striate arteries** pass upwards through the two inner segments of ie lenticular nucleus (globus pallidus) and the internal capsule to terminate in the audate nucleus. They supply the anterior portions of the lenticular and caudate nuclei id of the internal capsule.

(a^2) The **external striate arteries** pass upwards through the outer segment (putamen) of the lenticular nucleus, or between it and the external capsule, and they form two ets: an anterior, the lenticulo-striate, and a posterior, the lenticulo-optic; both sets averse the lenticular nucleus and the internal capsule, but the *lenticulo-striate arteries* rminate in the caudate nucleus, and the *lenticulo-optic* in the optic thalamus. One of ie lenticulo-striate arteries, which passes in the first instance round the outer side of the nticular nucleus, and afterwards through its substance, is larger than its companions; it equently ruptures, and is known as the artery of cerebral hæmorrhage.

(b) *Cortical branches* are given off as the middle cerebral artery passes over the surface of the island of Reil at the bottom of the Sylvian fissure, as follows:—

(b^1) The **inferior external orbital** runs forwards and outwards, and is distributed to the outer part of the orbital surface of the frontal lobe and to the inferior frontal convolution.

(b^2) The **ascending frontal branch** turns round the upper margin of the Sylvian fissure, and is distributed to the ascending frontal convolution and to the posterior part of the middle frontal convolution.

(b^3) The **ascending parietal branch** emerges from the Sylvian fissure and passes upwards along the posterior border of the ascending parietal convolution, supplying that convolution and the superior parietal lobule.

(b^4) The **temporal branch** passes out of the Sylvian fissure, and turns downwards to supply the superior and middle temporal convolutions.

(b^5) The **parieto-temporal branch** continues backwards, in the direction of the main stem, and emerges from the posterior end of the Sylvian fissure; it supplies the inferior parietal lobule, the external occipital convolutions, and the posterior part of the tempor sphenoidal lobe.

Vertebral Artery.

The **vertebral artery** (a. vertebralis, Figs. 624 and 627) is the first branch given off from the subclavian trunk; it arises from the upper and back part of the parent stem, opposite the interval between the anterior scalene and the longus colli muscles, and terminates at the lower border of the pons Varolii by uniting with its fellow of the opposite side to form the basilar artery.

Course and Relations.—The vertebral artery is divisible into four parts.

The **first part** runs upwards and backwards, between the scalenus anticus and the outer border of the longus colli, to the foramen in the transverse process of the sixth cervical vertebra. It is surrounded by a plexus of sympathetic nerve fibres, covered anteriorly by the vertebral and internal jugular veins, and crossed in front by the inferior thyroid artery. On the left side the terminal part of the thoracic duct also passes in front of it. The **second part** runs upwards through the foramina in the transverse processes of the upper six cervical vertebræ. As far as the second cervical vertebra its course is almost vertical; as it passes through the transverse process of the axis, however, it is directed obliquely upwards and outwards to the atlas. It is surrounded by a plexus of sympathetic nerve fibres, and also by a plexus of veins. The artery lies in front of the trunks of the cervical nerves, and internal to the intertransverse muscles. The **third part** emerges from the foramen in the transverse process of the atlas, between the anterior primary division of the sub-occipital nerve internally and the rectus capitis lateralis externally, and runs almost horizontally backwards and inwards round the outer side and back of the superior articular process of the atlas. In this course it enters the sub-occipital triangle, where it lies in the groove on the upper surface of the posterior arch of the atlas (sulcus arteriæ vertebralis). It is separated from the bone by the sub-occipital nerve, and is overlapped superficially by the adjacent borders of the superior and inferior oblique muscles. Finally, this part of the artery passes beneath the oblique ligament of the atlas and enters the spinal canal.

The **fourth part** pierces the spinal dura mater and runs upwards into the cranial cavity. It passes between the roots of the hypoglossal nerve above and the first dentation of the ligamentum denticulatum below, pierces the arachnoid, and, gradually inclining inwards in front of the medulla, reaches the lower border of the pons Varolii, where it unites with its fellow of the opposite side to form the basilar artery.

Branches.—*From the first part.*—As a rule there are only a few small muscular twigs from this portion of the artery.

From the second part.—(1) **Muscular branches** which vary in number and size. They supply the deep muscles of the neck, and anastomose with the profunda cervicis, the ascending cervical, and the occipital arteries.

(2) **Spinal branches** (rami spinales) pass from the inner side of the second part of the vertebral artery through the intervertebral foramina into the spinal canal, where they *give off* twigs which pass along the roots of the spinal nerves to reinforce the anterior and

ior spinal arteries; they supply the bodies of the vertebrae and the intervertebral and they anastomose with corresponding arteries above and below.

rom the third part.—(1) **Muscular branches** to the sub-occipital muscles.

) **Anastomotic branches** which unite with the princeps cervicis branch of the occi- and with the profunda cervicis artery.

rom the fourth part.—(1) **Meningeal** (rami meningei).—One or two small branches off before the vertebral artery pierces the dura mater. They ascend into the pos- fossa of the skull, where they anastomose with meningeal branches of the occipital scending pharyngeal arteries, and occasionally with branches of the middle meningeal .

) **Posterior Spinal** (a. spinalis posterior).—The posterior spinal branch springs from

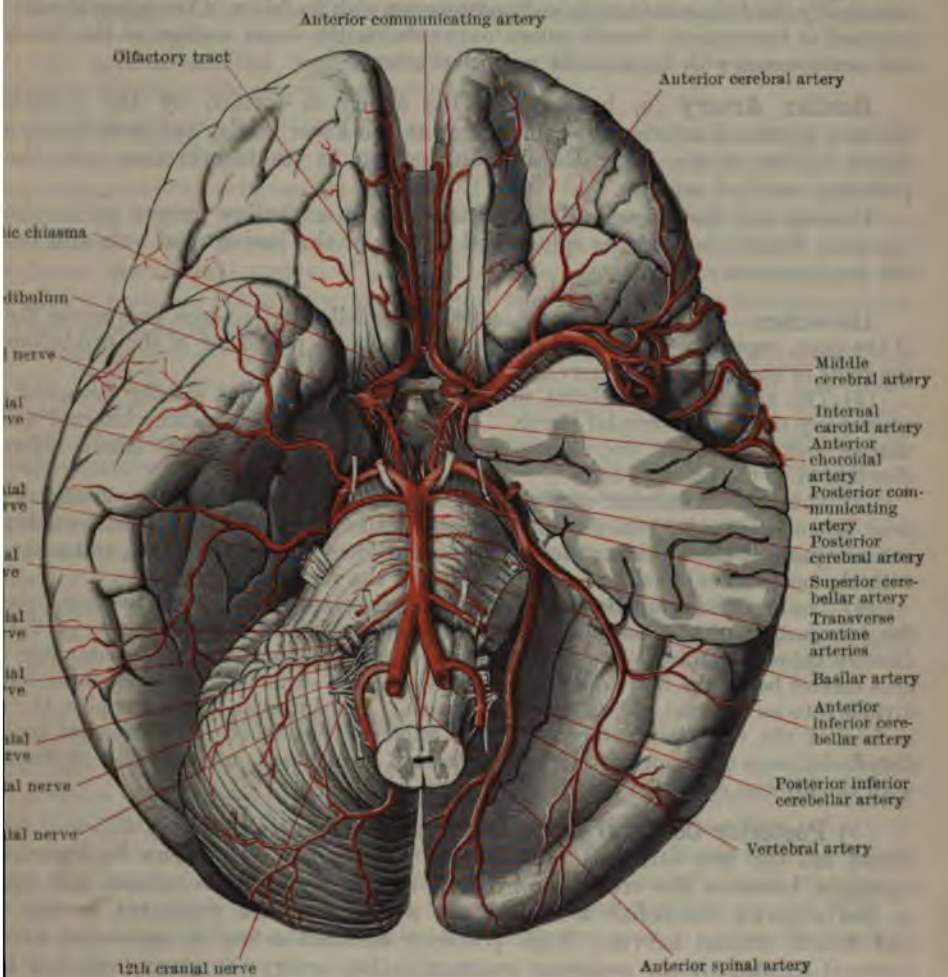


FIG. 627.—THE ARTERIES OF THE BASE OF THE BRAIN. THE CIRCLE OF WILLIS.

rtebral directly after it has pierced the dura mater. It runs downwards upon the f the medulla and the spinal cord in front of the posterior nerve roots. It is a r artery, which is continued to the lower part of the cord by means of reinforce- from the spinal branches of the vertebral and intercostal arteries. It gives off hes to the pia mater, which form more or less regular anastomoses on the inner of the posterior nerve roots, and it terminates below by joining the anterior spinal .

) The **anterior spinal branch** (a. spinalis anterior) arises near the termination of the bral. It runs obliquely downwards and inwards, in front of the medulla, and unites its fellow of the opposite side to form a single anterior spinal artery, which descends nt of the anterior fissure of the spinal cord, and is continued as a fine vessel along lum terminale. The anterior spinal artery is reinforced as it descends by anastomos-

ing twigs from the spinal branches of the vertebral, intercostal, and lumbar arteries. It gives off branches which pierce the pia mater and supply the cord, and it unites below with the posterior spinal arteries.

(4) The **posterior inferior cerebellar** (a. cerebelli inferior posterior) is the largest branch of the vertebral artery. It arises a short distance below the pons and passes obliquely backwards round the medulla, at first between the roots of the hypoglossal nerve, and then between the roots of the spinal accessory and vagus nerves, into the vallecula of the cerebellum, where it divides into external and internal terminal branches.

The trunk of the artery gives branches to the medulla and to the choroid plexus of the fourth ventricle. The internal terminal, or vermiform branch, runs backwards between the inferior vermiform process and the lateral lobe of the cerebellum; it supplies principally the former structure, and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side. The external or hemispheric branch passes outwards on the lower surface of the hemisphere and anastomoses with the superior cerebellar artery.

Basilar Artery (a. basilaris).—This artery is formed by the junction of the two vertebral arteries; it commences at the lower border and terminates at the upper border of the pons Varolii, bifurcating at its termination into the two posterior cerebral arteries.

Course and Relations.—It runs upwards in a shallow groove on the front of the pons Varolii, behind the sphenoidal section of the basi-cranial axis and between the sixth nerves.

Branches.—(1) The **transverse**, a series of small arteries which pass round the sides of the pons, supplying it (rami ad pontem), the middle peduncles of the cerebellum, and the roots of the fifth cranial nerve.

(2) The **auditory** (a. auditiva interna), a pair of long but slender branches which accompany the eighth cranial nerve. Each enters the corresponding internal auditory meatus with the seventh and eighth nerves, and, passing through the lamina cribrosa, is distributed to the internal ear.

(3) The **anterior inferior cerebellar** (a. cerebelli inferior anterior), two branches which arise, one on each side, from the middle of the basilar artery. They pass backwards on the anterior parts of the lower surfaces of the lateral lobes of the cerebellum, and anastomose with the posterior inferior cerebellar branches of the vertebral arteries.

(4) The **superior cerebellar** (aa. cerebelli superiores) branches, two in number, arise near the termination of the basilar. Each passes outwards at the upper border of the pons, directly below the third nerve of the same side, and turning round the outer side of the crus cerebri below the fourth nerve, reaches the upper surface of the cerebellum, where it divides into an internal and an external branch. The internal branch supplies the upper surface of the vermiform process and the valve of Vieussens. The external branch is distributed over the upper surface of the lateral hemisphere, anastomosing at its margin with the inferior cerebellar arteries.

(5) **Posterior Cerebral Arteries** (aa. cerebri posteriores, Figs. 625 and 627).—These are the two terminal branches of the basilar. They run backwards and upwards, between the crura cerebri and the uncinate convolutions and parallel to the superior cerebellar arteries, from which they are separated by the third and fourth cranial nerves. Each posterior cerebral artery is connected with the internal carotid by the posterior communicating artery; it gives branches to the tentorial surface of the cerebrum, and is continued backwards, beneath the splenium of the corpus callosum, to the calcarine fissure, where it divides into calcarine and parieto-occipital branches, which pass to the outer surface of the occipital lobe and supply the inner and tentorial surfaces of the occipital lobe and the posterior part of its outer surface.

Branches.—(A) *Central or ganglionic.*—This group includes (a^1) A **postero-mesial** set of small vessels which pass on the inner side of the crus cerebri to the posterior perforated space. They supply the crus, the posterior part of the optic thalamus, the corpora albicantia, and the walls of the third ventricle.

(a^2) A **postero-lateral** set of small vessels which pass round the outer side of the crus cerebri. They supply the corpora quadrigemina, the brachia, the pineal body, the crus, the posterior part of the optic thalamus, and the corpora geniculata.

(a^3) A **posterior choroidal** set of small branches which pass through the upper part of

e choroidal fissure, and, after entering the posterior part of the velum interpositum, end the choroid plexus in the body of the lateral ventricle and the upper part of its scending cornu.

(B) *Cortical.*—(b^1) The **anterior temporal**, frequently a single branch of variable size, not uncommonly replaced by several small branches. It supplies the anterior parts of e uncinate and the occipito-temporal convolutions.

(b^2) The **posterior temporal** is a larger branch than the anterior. It supplies the sterior part of the uncinate gyrus, the greater part of the occipito-temporal convolution, d the lingual lobule.

(b^3) The **calcarine branch** is the continuation of the posterior cerebral artery along e calcarine fissure. It supplies the cuneate lobe, the lingual lobule, and the posterior rt of the outer surface of the occipital lobe.

(b^4) The **parieto-occipital branch**, smaller than the calcarine, passes along the rresponding fissure to the cuneus and precuneus.

Circle of Willis (Fig. 627).—The cerebral arteries of opposite sides are intimately nnected together at the base of the brain by anastomosing channels. Thus the ro anterior cerebral arteries are connected with one another by the anterior mmunicating artery, whilst the two posterior cerebrals are in continuity through e basilar artery from which they rise. There is also a free anastomosis on each le between the carotid system of cerebral arteries and the vertebral system by eans of the posterior communicating arteries, which connect the internal carotid unks and posterior cerebral arteries.

The vessels referred to form the so-called **circle of Willis** (circulus arteriosus Villisi]). This is situated at the base of the brain, in the region of the inter-duncular space, and encloses the following structures: the posterior perforated ace, the corpora albicantia, the tuber cinereum, the infundibulum, and e optic commissure. The "circle" is irregularly polygonal in outline, and is med posteriorly by the termination of the basilar and by the two posterior ebral arteries, postero-laterally by the posterior communicating arteries and the ernal carotids, antero-laterally by the anterior cerebral arteries, and in front by e anterior communicating artery.

It is stated that this free anastomosis equalises the flow of blood to the various rts of the cerebrum, and provides for the continuation of a regular blood-supply one or more of the main trunks of the basal vessels should be obstructed.

ARTERIES OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The main arterial stem of each upper extremity passes through the root of the ck, traverses the axillary space, and is continued through the upper arm to the rearm. In the latter it only runs a short distance, terminating just below the nd of the elbow by bifurcating into the radial and ulnar arteries which descend rough the forearm to the hand. That portion of the common trunk which lies the root of the neck is known as the **subclavian artery**, the part in the axillary ace is termed the **axillary artery**, whilst the remaining part is called the **brachial tery**.

THE SUBCLAVIAN ARTERIES.

On the right side the subclavian artery (a. subclavia, Figs. 620 and 622) com-ences at the termination of the innominate artery behind the sterno-clavicular ticulation, whilst that on the left side arises from the arch of the aorta behind ie lower part of the manubrium sterni.

The right artery is about three inches long (75 mm.), and it lies in the root of ie neck. The left artery is about four inches (100 mm.) long, and is situated not ily in the root of the neck, but also in the superior mediastinal part of the thorax. i the root of the neck each artery arches outwards across the apex of the lung and hind the anterior scalene muscle, and is divided into three parts, which lie spectively to the inner side, behind, and to the outer side of the muscle. The tent to which the arch rises above the level of the clavicle varies considerably, id not uncommonly it *reaches the level* of the lower part of the thyroid body.

The first parts of the subclavian arteries differ materially from each other both in extent and relations. The relations of the second and third parts are similar on both sides.

The **first part of the left subclavian artery** springs from the arch of the aorta to the left of and behind the commencement of the left common carotid and on the left side of the trachea. It ascends, almost vertically, in the superior mediastinum to the root of the neck, where it arches upwards and outwards to the inner border of the scalenus anticus.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—In the superior mediastinum, from below upwards, it is in relation *behind* and on its inner side with the left margin of the œsophagus, the thoracic duct, and the left longus colli muscle, whilst the outer part of its posterior surface is covered by pleura.

Anterior.—In front and to the right of the artery are the vagus, the left superior cardiac branch of the sympathetic, the left inferior cardiac branch of the vagus, the left phrenic nerve, and the left common carotid artery. It is also crossed obliquely by the left innominate vein above and by the left vagus nerve below, and it is overlapped on the left side by the left lung and pleura.

Lateral.—Internally it is in relation, from below upwards, with the trachea, the left recurrent laryngeal nerve, the œsophagus, and the thoracic duct.

Externally it is closely invested by the left pleura, and it ascends in a groove on the inner aspect of the left lung.

As it turns outwards at the root of the neck it lies behind the terminations of the internal jugular, vertebral, and subclavian veins, the phrenic nerve, the sterno-thyroid and sterno-hyoid muscles, the anterior jugular vein, and more superficially the sterno-mastoid muscle, and the deep cervical fascia; the thoracic duct arches obliquely over it, and it lies in front of the apex of the pleural sac.

The **first part of the right subclavian artery** (Fig. 620) extends from the back of the right sterno-clavicular articulation to the inner border of the scalenus anticus. It is thus limited to the root of the neck.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—Behind this part of the artery, and intervening between it and the upper two dorsal vertebræ, are the recurrent laryngeal nerve, the posterior part of the annulus Vieusseni, and the apex of the right pleural sac. *Anterior.*—In front it is in relation with the right vagus, the cardiac branches of the vagus and the sympathetic, the anterior portion of the annulus Vieusseni, the internal jugular and vertebral veins, and more superficially the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles, the anterior jugular vein, the sternal end of the clavicle, the sterno-clavicular ligaments, and the sterno-mastoid muscle. The recurrent laryngeal nerve passes *below* it and intervenes between it and the apex of the pleural sac.

The **second part of the subclavian artery**, on *each side*, extends from the inner to the outer border of the scalenus anticus, behind which it lies.

Relations.—*Behind* and *below* it is in relation with the pleural sac. In *front* it is covered by the anterior scalene and the sterno-mastoid muscles. The anterior scalene separates it from the subclavian vein, which also lies at a slightly lower level, from the transverse cervical and suprascapular arteries, from the anterior jugular vein, and, on the right side, from the phrenic nerve.

The **third part of the subclavian artery** is the most superficial portion. It extends from the outer border of the anterior scalene to the outer border of the first rib, lying partly in the clavicular portion of the posterior triangle and partly behind the clavicle and the subclavius muscle.

Relations.—It rests upon the upper surface of the first rib. Immediately *behind* it is the lowest trunk of the brachial plexus, which separates it from the middle scalene. In *front* of it and at a slightly lower level lies the subclavian vein. The external jugular vein crosses the inner part of this portion of the artery in its course to the subclavian vein, and just before its termination receives the transverse cervical and suprascapular veins; these vessels also pass superficial to the artery, which is thus covered by venous trunks; it is also crossed vertically, behind the veins, by the nerve to the subclavius muscle. The outer section of this part of the artery lies behind the clavicle and the *subclavius* muscle, and it is crossed from within outwards by the suprascapular artery,

which is separated from it by the layer of deep cervical fascia which binds the posterior belly of the omo-hyoid to the posterior border of the subclavian groove. More superficially the third part of the artery is covered by the superficial layer of the deep fascia, the descending clavicular branches of the cervical nerves, the platysma, and the skin.

Branches of the Subclavian Artery.

(1) The **vertebral artery** is distributed almost entirely to the head and neck, and its chief function is to supply the posterior part of the brain. Its description has therefore been given with that of the other cerebral arteries (see p. 818).

(2) **Thyroid Axis** (truncus thyreo-cervicalis, Figs. 620 and 622).—This branch arises close to the inner border of the scalenus anticus, and directly above the origin of the internal mammary artery, from the upper and front part of the subclavian artery. After a short upward course of about two lines (4 mm.), it ends under cover of the internal jugular vein by dividing into three branches—viz. the inferior thyroid, the transverse cervical, and the suprascapular.

(A) The **inferior thyroid artery** (a. thyreoidea inferior, Fig. 620) ascends along the anterior border of the scalenus anticus, and turns inwards opposite the cricoid cartilage to the middle of the posterior border of the lateral lobe of the thyroid body; it then curves inwards and downwards, and descends to the lower end of the lobe, where it divides into ascending and inferior terminal branches.

Relations.—*Behind* it is the vertebral artery externally and the longus colli muscle internally; the recurrent laryngeal nerve passes either in front of or behind the vessel, opposite the lower border of the thyroid body. It is covered *in front* by the carotid sheath, which contains the common carotid artery, the internal jugular vein, and the vagus nerve; the middle cervical ganglion of the sympathetic lies in front of the artery as it bends inwards, and on the left side the thoracic duct also passes in front of it.

Branches.—It gives off the following branches:—

(*a*) **Muscular.**—Numerous small branches pass to the scalenus anticus, the longus colli, the infra-hyoid muscles, and the inferior constrictor of the pharynx.

(*b*) The **ascending cervical branch** (a. cervicalis ascendens) usually springs from the inferior thyroid near its origin, though not uncommonly it rises separately from the thyroid axis. It ascends parallel with and internal to the phrenic nerve, in the angle between the rectus capitis anticus major and the scalenus anticus, to both of which it gives branches. It also gives off spinal branches which pass through the intervertebral foramina to the spinal canal, and it anastomoses with branches of the vertebral, occipital, ascending pharyngeal, and deep cervical arteries.

(*c*) **Œsophageal** (rami œsophagei) are small branches given to the walls of the œsophagus, which anastomose with the œsophageal branches of the thoracic aorta.

(*d*) **Tracheal branches** (rami tracheales) are distributed to the trachea; they anastomose with branches of the superior thyroid and with the bronchial arteries.

(*e*) An **inferior laryngeal branch** (a. laryngea inferior) accompanies the recurrent laryngeal nerve to the lower part of the larynx. It enters the larynx, beneath the lower border of the inferior constrictor, gives branches to its muscles and mucous membrane, and anastomoses with the laryngeal branch of the superior thyroid.

(*f*) The **ascending terminal branch** supplies the posterior and lower part of the thyroid body, and anastomoses with branches of the superior thyroid artery.

(*g*) The **inferior terminal branch** is distributed to the lower and inner part of the thyroid body. It anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side and with branches of the superior thyroid artery.

(B) The **transverse cervical artery** (a. transversa colli, Figs. 620 and 622) runs upwards, outwards, and backwards from the thyroid axis across the posterior triangle of the neck to the anterior border of the trapezius, where it divides into superficial cervical (ramus ascendens) and posterior scapular (ramus descendens) branches. It is very variable in size, and not infrequently the posterior scapular arises separately from the third part of the subclavian.

Immediately after its origin, under cover of the internal jugular vein, it crosses the scalenus anticus, lying superficial to the phrenic nerve and under cover of the sterno-mastoid muscle; on the left side it is also crossed superficially by the terminal part of the thoracic duct. Passing from beneath the sterno-mastoid, it enters the

lower part of the posterior triangle of the neck, where it lies upon the trunks of the brachial plexus, and, as it runs upwards and backwards to its termination, it passes beneath the posterior belly of the omo-hyoid.

Branches.—(*a*) Small **muscular branches** to the surrounding muscles.

(*b*) The **superficial cervical artery** (a. cervicalis superficialis), usually a slender branch, passes beneath the trapezius; it runs upwards over the levator anguli scapulæ

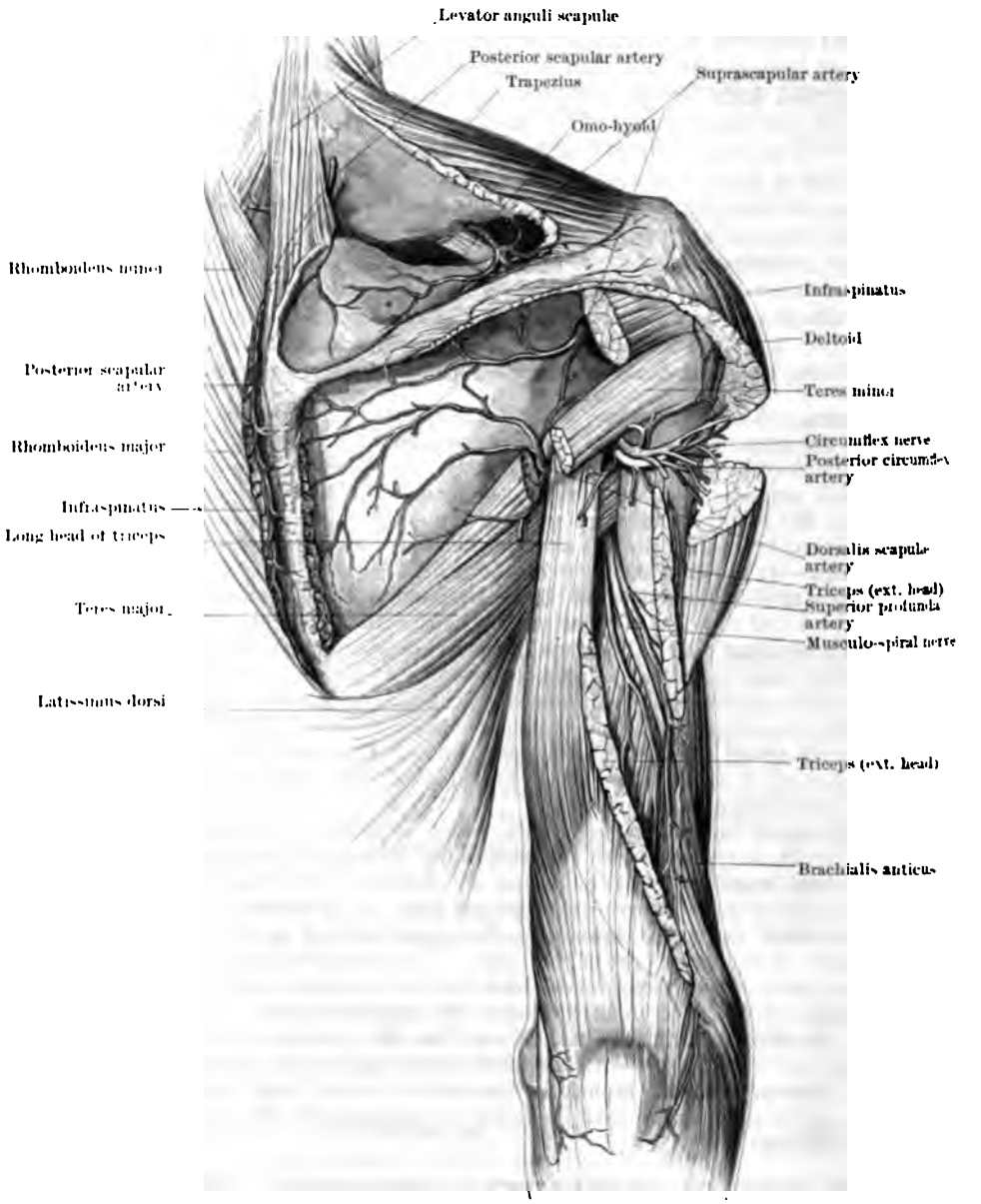


FIG. 628.—DISSECTION OF THE BACK OF THE SHOULDER AND UPPER ARM, showing the anastomosing vessels on the dorsum of the scapula, and the posterior circumflex and superior profunda arteries.

and upon the splenius, and anastomoses with the arteria princeps cervicis, a branch of the occipital artery, and it sends branches downwards which accompany the spinal accessory nerve and anastomose with the posterior scapular and suprascapular arteries.

(*c*) The **posterior scapular artery** descends in front of the levator anguli scapulæ and the rhomboid muscles, close to the posterior border of the scapula. It runs parallel *with*, and a short distance away from, the nerve to the rhomboid muscles, and it sends *branches into* the supraspinous, the infraspinous, and the subscapular fossæ, which

anastomose with branches of the suprascapular and subscapular arteries. It also sends branches backwards through and between the rhomboid muscles, which anastomose with the superficial cervical artery and with the dorsal branches of the intercostal arteries.

(C) The **suprascapular artery** (a. transversa scapulæ) springs from the thyroid axis, and terminates in the infraspinous fossa of the scapula. As a rule it is smaller than the transverse cervical artery.

Commencing behind the internal jugular vein, it crosses the scalenus anticus and phrenic nerve, and is covered in front by the sterno-mastoid and the anterior jugular vein; on the left side it lies behind the termination of the thoracic duct also. Continuing outwards and backwards behind the clavicle, and crossing superficially to the third part of the subclavian artery and the cords of the brachial plexus, it reaches the suprascapular notch and passes over the suprascapular ligament. From this point it descends with the suprascapular nerve through the supraspinous fossa and beneath the supraspinatus muscle, and passing through the great scapular notch in front of the spino-glenoid ligament, enters the infraspinous fossa, where it anastomoses with the dorsal branch of the subscapular and with branches of the posterior scapular arteries.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular**, to the sterno-mastoid, the subclavius, and the muscles on the dorsum of the scapula.

(*b*) The **medullary**, a small branch to the clavicle.

(*c*) The **suprasternal**, to the sternal end of the clavicle and the sterno-clavicular joint.

(*d*) **Acromial branches**, which ramify over the acromion process, anastomosing with the acromial branches of the acromio-thoracic and the posterior circumflex arteries.

(*e*) **Articular**, to the acromio-clavicular and shoulder-joints.

(*f*) The **subscapular**, which is given off as the artery, passes over the suprascapular ligament. It passes down into the subscapular fossa, gives branches to the subscapularis, and anastomoses with the branches of the subscapular and posterior scapular arteries.

(*g*) **Supraspinous**, which ramify in the supraspinous fossa, supplying the muscle, and anastomosing with the posterior scapular.

(*h*) **Terminal branches** ramify in the infraspinous fossa, and anastomose with the dorsalis scapulæ and with branches of the posterior scapular artery.

(3) **Internal Mammary Artery** (a. mammaria interna, Fig. 620).—This arises from the lower and front part of the subclavian at the inner border of the scalenus anticus and immediately below the origin of the thyroid axis. It terminates behind the inner extremity of the sixth intercostal space by dividing into the musculo-phrenic and the superior epigastric arteries.

The artery passes at first downwards, forwards, and inwards, lying upon the pleura, and behind the subclavian vein, the sternal end of the clavicle, and the cartilage of the first rib: it is crossed obliquely from without inwards by the phrenic nerve, which usually passes in front of it. From the cartilage of the first rib it descends vertically, about half-an-inch from the border of the sternum, and lies in the upper part of its course in front of the pleura, and in the lower part in front of the triangularis sterni. It is covered anteriorly by the cartilages of the upper six ribs, the intervening intercostal muscles, and the terminal portions of the intercostal nerves, and it is accompanied by two venæ comites, which unite together above and on its inner side to form a single trunk which terminates in the innominate vein.

Branches.—(*a*) The **comes nervi phrenici** (a. pericardiaco-phrenica), or superior phrenic artery, is a long slender branch which is given off from the upper part of the internal mammary. It accompanies the phrenic nerve through the superior and middle mediastinal spaces to the diaphragm, where it anastomoses with the inferior phrenic and musculo-phrenic arteries. In its course downwards the artery gives off numerous small branches to the pleura and pericardium, which anastomose with offsets of the mediastinal and pericardial branches of the aorta and internal mammary arteries, and also with the bronchial arteries, forming the wide-meshed subpleural plexus of Turner.

(*b*) **Mediastinal branches** (aa. mediastinales anteriores), small and numerous, pass to the areolar tissue of the anterior mediastinal space and supply the remains of the thymus gland and the sternum.

(*c*) **Pericardial.**—These are several small branches which ramify on the anterior aspect of the pericardium.

(*d*) The **anterior intercostal** (rami intercostales) are two in number in each of the upper six intercostal spaces. They pass outwards for a short distance either between the pleura or the triangularis sterni and the internal intercostal muscles; they then pierce the internal intercostal muscles, and ramify between them and the external intercostal muscles, anastomosing with the aortic and superior intercostal arteries and their collateral branches.

(*e*) The **anterior perforating branches** (rami perforantes), one in each of the upper six intercostal spaces, are small vessels which pass forwards with the intercostal nerves, piercing the internal intercostal muscle, the anterior intercostal membrane, and the pectoralis major, to terminate in the skin and subcutaneous tissue. They supply twigs to the sternum, and those in the third and fourth spaces, usually the largest of the series, give off branches to the mammary gland.

(*f*) The **musculo-phrenic** (a. musculo-phrenica), or external terminal branch of the internal mammary artery, runs downwards and outwards from the sixth intercostal space to the tenth costal cartilage. In the upper part of its course it lies upon the thoracic surface of the diaphragm, but it pierces the muscle about the level of the eighth costal cartilage, and terminates on its abdominal surface. Its branches are:—

(i.) **Muscular**, which supply the diaphragm and anastomose with the superior and inferior phrenic arteries.

(ii.) **Anterior intercostal branches**, two in each of the seventh, eighth, and ninth intercostal spaces; they are distributed in the same manner as the corresponding branches of the internal mammary artery, and terminate by anastomosing with the aortic intercostals and their collateral branches.

(*g*) The **superior epigastric** (a. epigastrica superior), or internal terminal branch of the internal mammary artery, descends into the anterior wall of the abdomen. It leaves the thorax, between the sternal and costal origins of the diaphragm, and enters the sheath of the rectus, lying first behind, and then in the substance of the rectus muscle. It terminates by anastomosing with branches of the deep epigastric artery. Its branches are:—

(i.) **Muscular**, to the rectus, to the flat muscles of the abdominal wall, and to the diaphragm.

(ii.) **Anterior Cutaneous.**—These branches pierce the rectus and the anterior portion of its sheath. They accompany the anterior terminal branches of the lower intercostal nerves, and terminate in the subcutaneous tissues and skin of the middle portion of the anterior abdominal wall.

(iii.) **Ensiform**, a small branch which crosses the front of the ensiform process to anastomose with its fellow of the opposite side. It supplies the adjacent muscles and skin.

(iv.) **Hepatic branches** of small size pass backwards in the falciform ligament to the liver, where they anastomose with branches of the hepatic artery.

(4) **Superior Intercostal Artery** (truncus costo-cervicalis, Fig. 624).—The superior intercostal artery springs from the back of the second part of the subclavian artery on the right side and from the first part on the left side. It runs upwards and backwards from its origin, over the apex of the pleural sac, to the neck of the first rib in front of which it descends, between the first thoracic ganglion of the sympathetic cord and the first dorsal nerve, to the first intercostal space, where it divides into two branches which are distributed to the upper two intercostal spaces.

Branches.—(*a*) The **profunda cervicis** (a. cervicalis profunda).—This branch sometimes arises from the subclavian artery directly; but more commonly it springs from the superior intercostal at the upper border of the neck of the first rib. It runs backwards, like the dorsal branch of an intercostal artery, passes between the first dorsal and last cervical nerves, and between the transverse process of the last cervical vertebra and the neck of the first rib to the back of the neck, where it ascends between the complexus and the semispinalis colli muscle to terminate by anastomosing with the deep branch of the princeps cervicis artery. It also anastomoses with branches of the ascending cervical and vertebral arteries, supplies the adjacent muscles, and sends a spinal branch, through the intervertebral foramen between the last cervical and the first dorsal vertebræ, into the spinal canal, where it anastomoses with the spinal branches of the vertebral and intercostal arteries.

(*b*) **Terminal.**—The two terminal branches run outwards—one in the first and one in the second intercostal space. Each runs near the upper border of its space, passing at *first between* the pleura and the posterior intercostal membrane, and then between the

internal and external intercostal muscles. The branches terminate by anastomosing with anterior intercostal branches of the internal mammary artery. Each gives off muscular branches to the intercostal muscles—a nutrient branch to the rib below which it lies, and a collateral branch which runs along the lower border of the space and terminates by anastomosing with an anterior intercostal branch of the internal mammary artery.

THE AXILLARY ARTERY.

The **axillary artery** (a. axillaris) lies in the axillary space. It is the direct continuation of the subclavian artery, and it becomes the brachial artery.

The axillary artery commences at the outer border of the first rib, at the apex of the axillary space. It descends, with an outward inclination, along the external

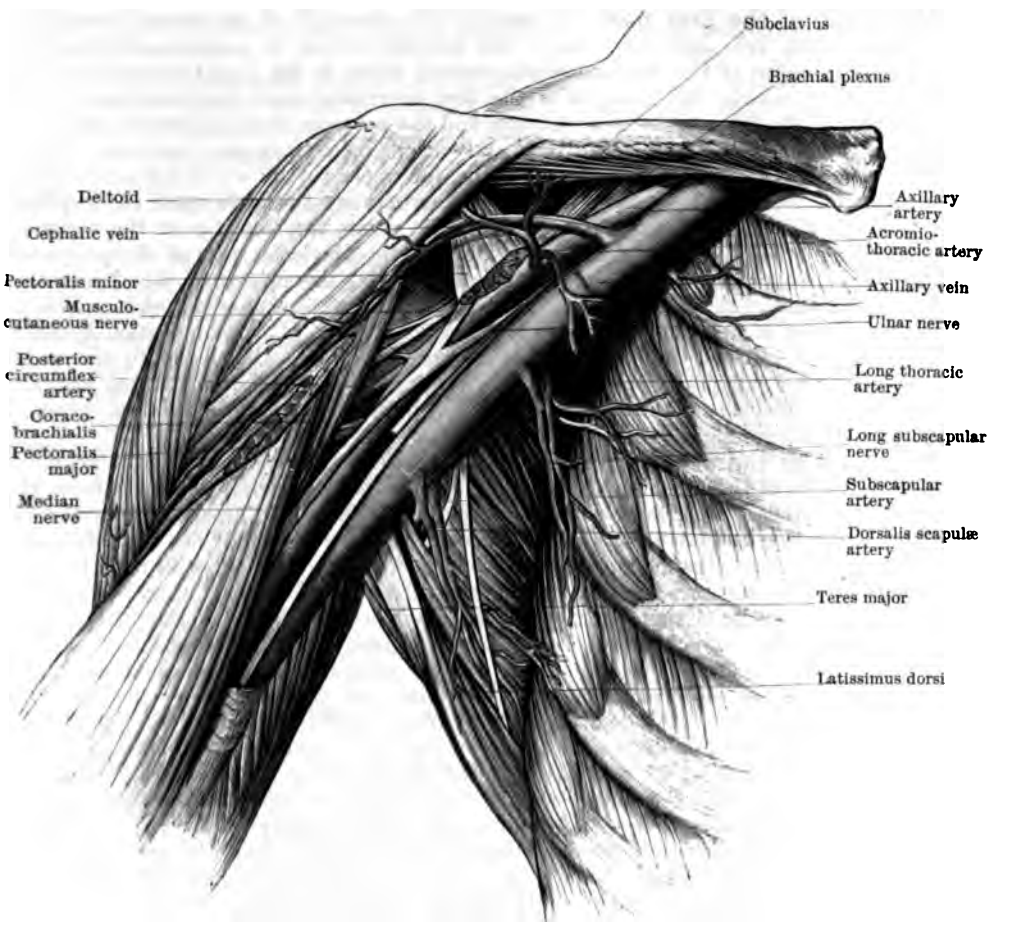


FIG. 629.—THE AXILLARY ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES AND RELATIONS.

wall of the space, *i.e.* to the inner side of the shoulder-joint and the humerus, to the lower border of the teres major, where it becomes the brachial artery. A line drawn from the middle of the clavicle to the inner border of the prominence of the coraco-brachialis and biceps muscles, when the arm is abducted until it is at right angles with the side, indicates the position and direction of the artery.

The position and direction, however, and to a certain extent the relations also of the axillary artery, are modified by changes in the position of the upper extremity. With the arm hanging by the side the axillary artery describes a curve with the concavity directed downwards and inwards, and the vein is to its inner side. When the arm is at right angles with the side, the axillary artery is almost straight, it lies closer to the outer wall of the axilla, and the vein overlaps it in front and *on the inner side*. When the arm is raised above the level of the

shoulder the axillary artery is curved over the head of the humerus, and the vein lies still more in front of it.

For descriptive purposes the artery is divided into three parts: the first part lies above, the second behind, and the third part below the pectoralis minor muscle.

Though we have followed the usual custom in describing three parts of the axillary artery,—a division which is perhaps of practical interest in so far as it emphasises the fact that the axillary artery is surgically accessible above the pectoralis minor,—it is to be noted that the upper border of the pectoralis minor is usually exactly opposite the outer border of the first rib, at the point where the axillary artery begins. In the strict sense, therefore, no part of the artery is above the pectoralis minor.

Relations of the first part.—*Posterior.*—The first part of the artery is enclosed, together with the vein and the cords of the brachial plexus, in a prolongation of the cervical fascia known as the axillary sheath, behind which is the upper serration of the serratus magnus muscle, the contents of the first intercostal space, the inner cord of the brachial plexus, the internal anterior thoracic and the posterior thoracic nerves, the latter descending vertically between the artery and the serratus magnus. *Anterior.*—It is covered in front by the costo-coracoid membrane, the upper part of which splits to enclose the subclavius muscle. The membrane intervenes between the artery and the cephalic vein, the branches of the external anterior thoracic nerve, the branches of the acromio-thoracic artery with their accompanying veins, and the clavicular part of the pectoralis major muscle, superficial to which are the deep fascia, the platysma, the descending clavicular branches of the cervical plexus, and the superficial fascia and the skin. Behind the costo-coracoid membrane the artery is crossed by a loop of communication between the external and internal anterior thoracic nerves. *Lateral.*—Above and to the outer side are the outer and posterior cords of the brachial plexus and the external anterior thoracic nerve. Below and to the inner side is the axillary vein, the internal anterior thoracic nerve intervening.

Relations of the second part.—*Posterior.*—Behind this portion of the artery is the posterior cord of the brachial plexus and a layer of fascia which separates it from the subscapularis muscle. *Anterior.*—In front is the pectoralis minor, and more superficially the pectoralis major, the fasciæ and skin. *Lateral.*—To the outer side lies the outer cord of the brachial plexus. On the inner side the inner cord of the plexus lies in close relation to the artery, and intervenes between it and the axillary vein.

Relations of the third part.—*Posterior.*—The third part of the artery rests posteriorly upon the lower border of the subscapularis, the latissimus dorsi, and the teres major. It is separated from the fibres of the subscapularis by the circumflex and musculo-spiral nerves, and from the latissimus dorsi and teres major by the musculo-spiral nerve alone. *Anterior.*—It is crossed in front by the inner head of the median nerve. In its upper half it lies under cover of the lower part of the pectoralis major, the fascia and skin, whilst its lower part, which is superficial, is covered by skin and fascia only. *Lateral.*—To the outer side lie the median and musculo-cutaneous nerves and the coraco-brachialis muscle. To the inner side is the axillary vein. The two vessels are, however, separated by two of the chief branches of the inner cord of the brachial plexus. In the angle between the vein and the artery, and somewhat in front of the latter, lies the internal cutaneous nerve; in the angle behind is the ulnar nerve. The lesser internal cutaneous nerve lies internal to the vein, and the venæ comites of the brachial artery ascend along the inner side, to terminate in the axillary vein at the lower border of the subscapularis muscle.

Branches of the Axillary Artery.

(1) The **superior thoracic** (a. thoracalis suprema, Fig. 629), a small branch which arises from the first part of the axillary at the lower border of the subclavius. It runs downwards and inwards across the first intercostal space, pierces the inner part of the costo-coracoid membrane, and supplies branches to the subclavius, the pectoralis major and minor, and to the serratus magnus and the intercostal muscles; it anastomoses with branches of the suprascapular, the internal mammary, and the acromio-thoracic arteries.

(2) The **acromio-thoracic** (a. thoraco-acromialis, Fig. 629) arises near the upper border of the pectoralis minor, from the second part of the axillary artery. It is a

very short trunk, of considerable size, which passes forwards, pierces the costo-coracoid membrane, and terminates beneath the clavicular portion of the pectoralis major by dividing into four terminal branches—clavicular, pectoral, humeral, and acromial.

(*a*) The **clavicular branch** (ramus clavicularis) is a long slender artery which runs upwards and inwards to the sterno-clavicular joint, anastomosing with the superior thoracic, with branches of the suprascapular, and with the first perforating branch of the internal mammary artery. It supplies the adjacent muscles and the sterno-clavicular articulation.

(*b*) The **pectoral** (ramus pectoralis), or thoracic, is a large branch which descends between the two pectoral muscles, to both of which it gives branches, and it anastomoses with the intercostal and long thoracic arteries.

(*c*) The **humeral branch** (ramus deltoideus) runs outwards to the groove between the pectoralis major and the deltoid, in which it descends by the side of the cephalic vein to the insertion of the deltoid. It anastomoses with the acromial branch and with the anterior circumflex artery, and it gives branches to the pectoralis major and deltoid muscles and to the skin.

(*d*) The **acromial branch** (ramus acromialis) runs upwards and outwards across the tip of the coracoid process to the acromion, where it anastomoses with the last-described branch, with the acromial branches of the suprascapular, and with the posterior circumflex arteries. It gives branches to the deltoid.

(3) The **long thoracic** (a. thoracalis lateralis) arises from the second part of the axillary, and descends along the lower border of the pectoralis minor to anastomose with the intercostal and subscapular arteries, and with the pectoral branch of the acromio-thoracic. It supplies the adjacent muscles, and sends branches to the outer part of the mammary gland; hence it is not infrequently called the **external mammary artery**.

(4) The **alar thoracic** is only occasionally present as a distinct branch, but it is frequently represented by a number of small irregular branches, which may either arise from the axillary or from the thoracic and subscapular branches. It is distributed to the glands and areolar tissue in the axilla.

(5) The **subscapular artery** (a. subscapularis) is the largest branch of the axillary artery. It arises from the third part of the artery, opposite the lower border of the subscapularis, along which it descends to the lower angle of the scapula and to the inner wall of the axillary space. It is accompanied by the second or long subscapular nerve; it supplies the adjacent muscles, and it anastomoses with the posterior scapular, the suprascapular, the long thoracic, and the lateral branches of the intercostal arteries, and gives off one named branch, the dorsalis scapulæ.

The **dorsalis scapulæ artery** (a. circumflexa scapulæ) is frequently larger than the continuation of the subscapular artery. It arises about one and a half inches (37 mm.) from the commencement of the subscapular trunk, and passes backwards into the triangular space between the subscapularis above, the teres major below, and the long head of the triceps externally. Turning round, and usually grooving the axillary border of the scapula, under cover of the teres minor, it enters the infraspinous fossa, where it breaks up into branches which anastomose with branches of the posterior scapular and suprascapular arteries. Whilst it is in the triangular space the dorsal artery gives off an *infrascapular branch* which passes into the subscapular fossa beneath the subscapularis, and terminates by anastomosing with the branches of the posterior and suprascapular arteries. It also gives off in the same situation a descending branch, which runs downwards to the lower angle of the scapula between the teres major and minor muscles, and small branches are given to the deltoid and scapular head of triceps.

(6) The **posterior circumflex** (a. circumflexa humeri posterior) arises from the third part of the axillary artery and passes backwards, accompanied by the circumflex nerve, through an intermuscular cleft, the so-called quadrilateral space, which is bounded by the teres minor and subscapularis above, the teres major below, the long head of the triceps internally, and the humerus externally. It turns round the surgical neck of the humerus under cover of the deltoid muscle, and terminates in numerous branches which supply the deltoid. As a rule it is an artery of large size, only slightly smaller than the subscapular.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular** to the teres major and minor, the triceps heads, long and external, and the deltoid; (*b*) An **acromial branch**, which ascends to the acromial process, where it anastomoses with the acromial branches of the suprascapular and the acromio-thoracic arteries; (*c*) A **descending branch**, which runs downwards along the external head of the triceps to anastomose with the superior profunda artery; (*d*) **Articular** to the shoulder-joint; (*e*) **Nutrient** to the head of the humerus; (*f*) **Terminal**, which supply a large portion of the deltoid, and anastomose with the anterior circumflex and acromio-thoracic arteries.

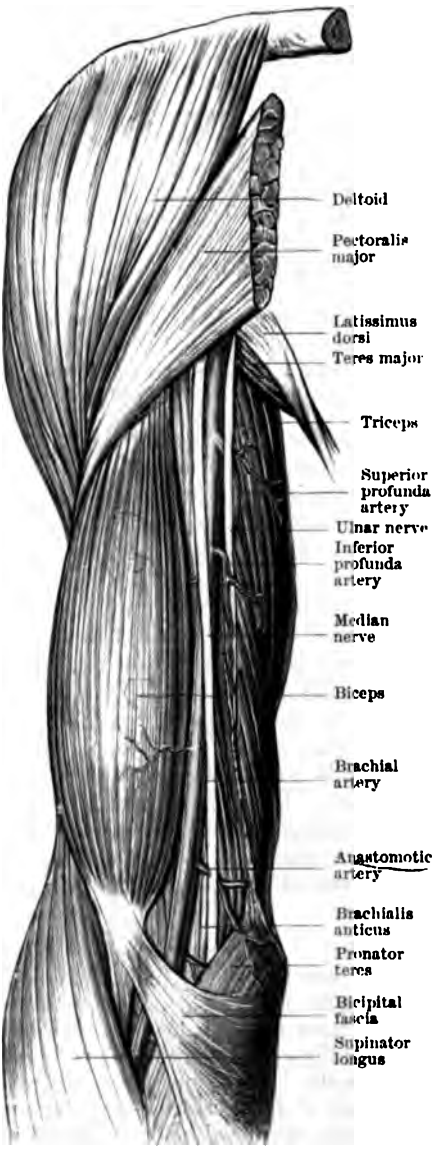


FIG. 630.—THE BRACHIAL ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES.

(7) The **anterior circumflex artery** (a. circumflexa humeri anterior) is a small branch which is given off from the third part of the axillary close to, or in common with, the posterior circumflex. It passes outwards behind the coraco-brachialis and the two heads of the biceps, round the front of the surgical neck of the humerus, and terminates by anastomosing with the posterior circumflex. At the bicipital groove it gives a well-marked ascending bicipital branch which ascends along the long head of the biceps, supplying the sheath of the tendon, and giving branches to the shoulder-joint. It also gives muscular branches to the adjacent muscles, one of which descends along the tendon of insertion of the pectoralis major.

THE BRACHIAL ARTERY.

The **brachial artery** (a. brachialis, is the direct continuation of the axillary. It commences at the lower border of the teres major, and terminates in the ante-cubital fossa at the level of the neck of the radius, by dividing into the radial and ulnar arteries.

The general course of the brachial artery is downwards and outwards, along the inner side of the arm. Its position may be indicated on the surface by a line drawn from the lower part of the axillary space at the junction of its anterior and middle thirds to the centre of the bend of the elbow.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—It lies successively in front of the long head of the triceps, the musculo-spiral nerve and the superior profunda artery intervening, the internal head of the triceps, the insertion of the coraco-brachialis and the brachialis anticus. *Anterior.*—It is overlapped *in front* by the inner border of the biceps, is crossed at its centre by the median nerve, and in addition is covered by deep and superficial fascia and by skin. In the ante-cubital fossa a thickened portion of the deep fascia, the semilunar or bicipital fascia, separates it from the median basilic vein and the anterior branch of the internal cutaneous nerve, both of which lie in the superficial fascia. *Lateral.*—To the *outer side* it is in relation above with the median nerve, and below with the biceps. To the *inner side* it is in relation in the upper part of its extent with the basilic vein, the internal cutaneous, lesser internal cutaneous, and ulnar nerves, and in the lower part with the median nerve. Two venæ comites, one on each side, accompany *the artery*, and communications between these pass across the vessel.

Branches of the Brachial Artery.

(1) The **superior profunda** (a. profunda brachii) is a large branch which arises from the inner and back part of the brachial soon after its commencement. It runs downwards and outwards, with the musculo-spiral nerve, in the musculo-spiral groove, and divides at the back of the humerus into two terminal branches, the anterior and the posterior. Not infrequently this division takes place at a higher level, and the artery appears double. The anterior terminal branch accompanies the musculo-spiral nerve through the external intermuscular septum, and descends between the supinator longus and the brachialis anticus to the front of the external condyle, where it anastomoses with the radial recurrent artery. The posterior terminal branch descends behind the external intermuscular septum, and anastomoses behind the external condyle with the posterior interosseous recurrent artery and with the anastomotic artery.

Whilst they are lying at the back of the humerus one of the terminal branches gives off—(*a*) a slender twig, which descends in the substance of the internal head of the triceps to the back of the elbow, where it anastomoses with the anastomotic artery; (*b*) a nutrient branch, which enters a foramen on the posterior surface of the humerus; and (*c*) an ascending branch, which anastomoses with the descending branch of the posterior circumflex artery.

(2) **Muscular branches** are given to the biceps, coraco-brachialis, brachialis anticus, triceps, and pronator radii teres.

(3) **Nutrient.**—A small artery which arises from the middle of the brachial and enters the nutrient foramen on the inner side of the shaft of the humerus.

(4) The **inferior profunda** (a. collateralis ulnaris superior) is smaller than the superior profunda, with which it sometimes rises by a common trunk; usually, however, it springs from the inner and back part of the middle of the brachial. It runs downwards and backwards, with the ulnar nerve, through the internal intermuscular septum, and then, descending more vertically, reaches the back of the internal condyle of the humerus, where it terminates by anastomosing with the posterior and anterior ulnar recurrent and anastomotic arteries.

(5) The **anastomotic** (a. collateralis ulnaris inferior) rises from the inner side of the brachial artery about two inches (50 mm.) above its termination. It runs inwards behind the median nerve and in front of the brachialis anticus, it then pierces the internal intermuscular septum, and turns outwards between the inner head of the triceps and the posterior surface of the bone to the external condyle. It supplies the adjacent muscles and anastomoses, in front of the internal condyle, with the anterior ulnar recurrent, behind the internal condyle with the posterior ulnar recurrent and the inferior profunda, at the middle of the back of the humerus with a branch of the superior profunda, and behind the external condyle with the posterior terminal branch of the superior profunda and the posterior interosseous recurrent artery.

The Radial Artery.

The **radial artery** (a. radialis, Figs. 631, 632, and 633) is the smaller of the two terminal branches of the brachial artery, but it is the more direct continuation of the parent trunk. It commences in the ante-cubital fossa opposite the neck of the radius, and terminates in the palm of the hand, by anastomosing with the deep branch of the ulnar artery, and thus completing the deep palmar arch.

The trunk is divisible into **three parts.**

The *first part* lies on the front of the forearm. It runs downwards and somewhat outwards to the apex of the styloid process of the radius. The *second part* curves round the outer side of the wrist and across the back of the trapezium to reach the proximal end of the first interosseus space. The *third part* passes forwards through the first interosseous space to the palm of the hand, where it joins the deep branch of the ulnar artery.

Relations of the first part.—*Posterior.*—It passes successively in front of the following structures: the tendon of insertion of the biceps, the supinator brevis, the pronator radii teres, the radial portion of the flexor sublimis digitorum, the flexor longus pollicis, the pronator quadratus, and the anterior ligament of the wrist-joint. *Anterior.*—

The artery is overlapped in the upper half by the anterior border of the supinator longus: in the remainder of its extent it is covered only by skin and fascia. *Lateral.*—To the *outer side* is the brachio-radialis, or supinator longus, and the radial nerve. This latter lies quite near to the artery in its middle third. To the *inner side* is the pronator radii teres above and the flexor carpi radialis below. Two venæ comites, one on each side, accompany the artery.

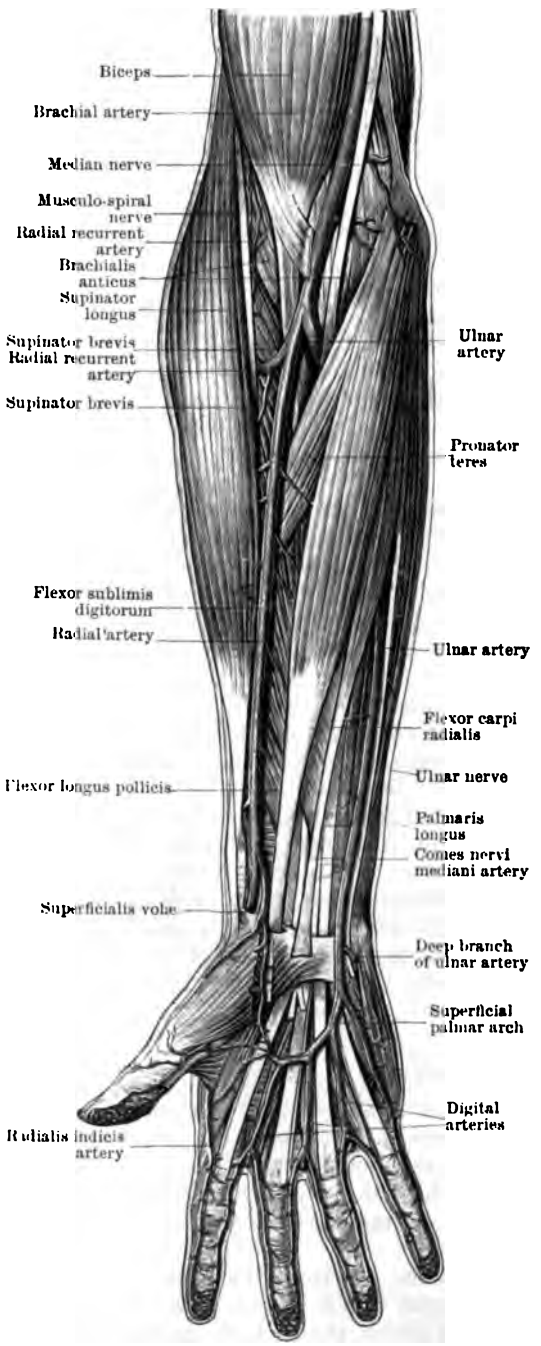


FIG. 631.—SUPERFICIAL DISSECTION OF THE FRONT OF THE FOREARM AND HAND, showing the radial and ulnar arteries and the superficial palmar arch with its branches.

Branches of the first part.—(1) The **radial recurrent** (a. recurrens radialis) arises in the ante-cubital fossa. It springs from the outer side of the radial in front of the supinator brevis. It runs outwards, passes between the radial and posterior interosseous nerves, and then ascends to the external condyle of the humerus, where it anastomoses with the anterior terminal branch of the superior profunda. The radial recurrent supplies numerous muscular branches to the supinator longus, the supinator brevis, the extensor carpi radialis longior, and the extensor carpi radialis brevior.

(2) **Muscular branches** (rami musculares) to the muscles on the radial side of the anterior aspect of the forearm.

(3) The **superficialis volæ** (ramus volaris superficialis, Fig. 631) is a slender vessel which arises a short distance above the wrist and runs downwards across the ball of the thumb. It usually pierces the superficial muscles of the thenar eminence, and terminates either in their substance or by uniting with the ulnar artery and completing the superficial palmar arch of the hand.

(4) An **anterior radial carpal branch** (ramus carpeus volaris) passes inwards beneath the flexor tendons and their synovial sheaths, and crosses the anterior carpal ligaments. It anastomoses with the anterior carpal branch of the ulnar artery to form the anterior carpal arch, and it receives communications from the anterior interosseous artery and from the deep palmar arch.

Relations of the second part.—As it curves round the outer side and the back of the wrist, the radial artery lies upon the external lateral ligament of the intercarpal joint and upon the back of the trapezium. It is crossed by the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis, the extensor brevis pollicis, and the extensor longus pollicis; more superficially it is covered by fascia, in which are some filaments of the radial nerve and the commencement of the radial vein, and by skin.

Branches of the second part.—(1) **Dorsales Pollicis.**—Two small arteries which run along the borders of the dorsal aspect of the thumb; they supply the skin, tendons, *and joints,* and anastomose with the palmar digital arteries.

salis Indicis.—A slender artery which runs downwards on the ulnar head of rsal interosseous muscle and along the dorsal aspect of the radial border of the

(4) The **metacarpal** or **first rosseous** and **posterior radial** e by a common trunk which neath the extensor longus

netacarpal branch (a. metacarpea ends on the dorsal aspect of the l interosseous muscle, and divides heads of the metacarpal bones ital branches which supply the les of the index and middle The posterior carpal branch eus dorsalis) runs inwards on the l ligaments, and in front of the idons, to anastomose with the rpal branch of the ulnar artery, lete the **dorsal carpal arch** which e terminations of the anterior or interosseous arteries. The l arch gives off the **second** and **interosseous arteries** (aa. meta- les), which descend on the dorsal he third and fourth dorsal in- nuscles as far as the heads of pal bones, where each divides nches (aa. digitales dorsales), for sides of the third and fourth th and fifth fingers respectively. rsal interosseous artery is con- the deep palmar arch by a **rforating branch** which passes upper part of the correspond- eous space, and with a digital the superficial palmar arch by **erforating branch** which passes lower part of the space.

ons of the third part.— part of the radial artery passes etween the two heads of the interosseous muscle to reach here it turns inwards beneath part of the oblique adductor the thumb, and, after passing e upper fibres of the tranverse r between the adjacent borders ue and transverse adductors, it the deep branch of the ulnar pleting the deep palmar arch.

hes of the third part.— **rinceps pollicis** (a. princeps nch is given off as soon as the ry enters the palm. It runs in front of the first metacarpal en the oblique adductor and ns pollicis, and under cover of exor tendon, and divides near nd of the bone into collateral hich run along the sides of and anastomose with the dorsales pollicis arteries.

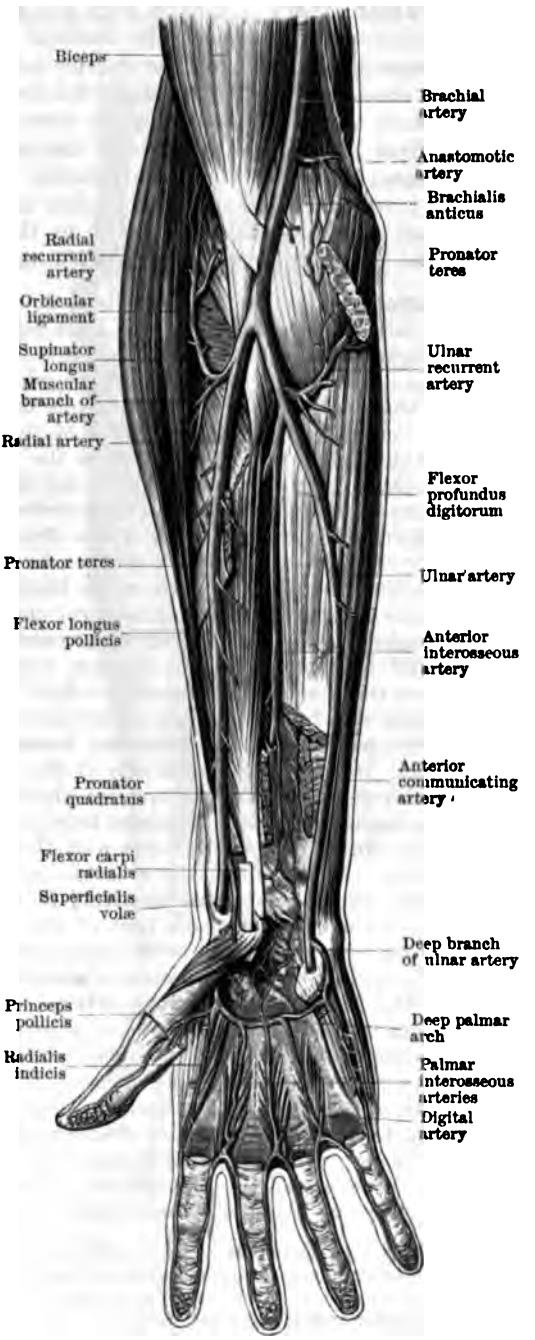


FIG. 632.—DEEP DISSECTION OF THE FRONT OF THE FOREARM AND HAND, showing the radial and ulnar arteries and their branches and the deep palmar arch and its branches.

e **radialis indicis** (a. volaris indicis radialis) is a branch which descends e ulnar head of the first dorsal interosseous muscle and the transverse adductor mb. It runs along the radial side of the index-finger to its tip, supplying the ssues; not uncommonly it anastomoses with the superficial palmar arch.

The Ulnar Artery.

The **ulnar artery** (a. ulnaris, Figs. 631 and 632) is the larger terminal branch, but the less direct continuation of the brachial artery. It commences in the ante-cubital fossa, opposite the neck of the radius, and terminates in the palm of the hand, where it anastomoses with the superficialis volæ to form the superficial palmar arch.

From its origin it runs obliquely downwards and inwards, beneath the muscles arising from the internal condyle, to the junction of the upper and middle thirds of the forearm, where it comes into relation with the ulnar nerve; it then descends vertically, on the radial side of the ulnar nerve, to the wrist, crosses in front of the main part of the annular ligament to the radial side of the pisiform bone, and enters the palm of the hand to form the main part of the superficial palmar arch.

Relations.—*Posterior.*—From above downwards it lies in front of the lower part of the brachialis anticus, the flexor profundus digitorum, and the deep portion of the anterior annular ligament. *Anterior.*—In front it is crossed, in the oblique part of its course, by the pronator radii teres, the median nerve, which is separated from the artery by the deep head of the pronator, the flexor sublimis digitorum, the flexor carpi radialis, and the palmaris longus. In the middle third of the forearm it is overlapped by the anterior border of the flexor carpi ulnaris, and in the lower third it is covered by skin and fascia only. A short distance above the wrist the palmar cutaneous branch of the median nerve lies in front of it, and as it crosses the anterior annular ligament, it is bound down by a fascial expansion from the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris. Two venæ cŏmites, which frequently communicate with one another, lie one on either side of the artery. *Lateral.*—On the *radial side* there is also, in its lower two-thirds, the flexor sublimis digitorum. On its *ulnar side* there are the flexor carpi ulnaris and the ulnar nerve.

Branches.—(1) The **anterior ulnar recurrent** is a small branch which arises in the ante-cubital fossa, frequently in common with the posterior ulnar recurrent. It passes upwards to the front of the internal condyle, under cover of the pronator radii teres, and anastomoses with branches of the anastomotic and inferior profunda arteries.

(2) The **posterior ulnar recurrent branch**, larger than the anterior, arises in the ante-cubital fossa, from the inner side of the ulnar artery, and ascends on the brachialis anticus, and under cover of the muscles which rise from the internal condyle to the back of that prominence, where it passes between the humeral and olecranoid heads of the flexor carpi ulnaris, and anastomoses with the inferior profunda and anastomotic arteries. It gives branches to the adjacent muscles and to the elbow-joint.

(3) The **common interosseous artery** (a. interossea communis), a short trunk which springs from the outer and back part of the ulnar artery in the lower part of the ante-cubital fossa. It passes backwards towards the upper border of the interosseous membrane, and divides into anterior and posterior interosseous branches.

(3*a*) The **anterior interosseous artery** (a. interossea volaris) descends in front of the interosseous membrane, between the adjacent borders of the flexor longus pollicis and the flexor profundus digitorum, to the upper border of the pronator quadratus, where it pierces the interosseous membrane, and continues its descent, first on the posterior surface of the membrane, under cover of the extensor longus pollicis and extensor indicis, and then on the radius, in the groove for the extensor communis digitorum, and it terminates on the back of the carpus in the posterior carpal arch. It is accompanied whilst in front of the interosseous membrane by the anterior interosseous nerve, and after it has pierced the membrane, by the posterior interosseous nerve.

Branches.—(*a*) **Nutrient** to the radius and ulna; (*b*) **Muscular** to the adjacent muscles; (*c*) The **anterior communicating**, a slender branch which descends behind the pronator quadratus and in front of the interosseous membrane to anastomose with the anterior carpal arch; (*d*) Small **anastomotic branches** are given off at the back of the forearm to anastomose with the posterior interosseous artery; (*e*) The **comes nervi mediani** (a. mediana) is a long slender branch which rises from the upper part of the artery and descends in the front of the median nerve to the palm, where it anastomoses with recurrent branches of the superficial palmar arch.

(3*b*) The **posterior interosseous trunk** (a. interossea dorsalis) is usually smaller than the anterior interosseous. It passes backwards between the upper border of the interosseous membrane and the oblique ligament, and then between the supinator brevis and the extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis, after which it descends between the superficial and deep muscles on the back of the forearm to the wrist, where it anastomoses with the *anterior* interosseous artery and with the posterior carpal arch. As it crosses the

extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis it is accompanied by the posterior interosseous nerve, but in the remainder of its course it is separated from the nerve by the deep muscles.

Branches.—(*a*) **A posterior interosseous recurrent** (a. interossea recurrens) branch is given off as soon as the posterior interosseous artery has passed beneath the lower border of the supinator brevis. It ascends on the posterior surface of the supinator brevis, under cover of the anconeus, to the back of the external condyle of the humerus, where it anastomoses with the posterior terminal branch of the superior profunda and with branches of the anastomotic artery. (*b*) **Muscular branches** to both superficial and deep muscles on the back of the forearm. (*c*) **Cutaneous branches** to the skin on the back of the forearm and the back of the wrist.

(4) The **anterior ulnar carpal** (ramus carpeus volaris), a small branch given off above the anterior annular ligament; it passes outwards beneath the flexor tendons and their sheaths on the anterior surface of the carpal ligaments, and anastomoses with the anterior carpal branch of the radial to form the anterior carpal arch.

(5) The **posterior ulnar carpal branch** (ramus carpeus dorsalis) arises from the back of the inner side of the ulnar artery just above the pisiform bone. It passes backwards under cover of the flexor and extensor carpi ulnaris muscles to the back of the carpus, where it unites with the posterior carpal branch of the radial to form the posterior carpal arch.

(6) **Profunda** (ramus volaris profundus).—This branch descends between the abductor and flexor brevis minimi digiti, and, turning outwards beneath the flexor brevis, the opponens minimi digiti, and the flexor tendons and their sheaths, joins the termination of the radial artery to complete the deep palmar arch.

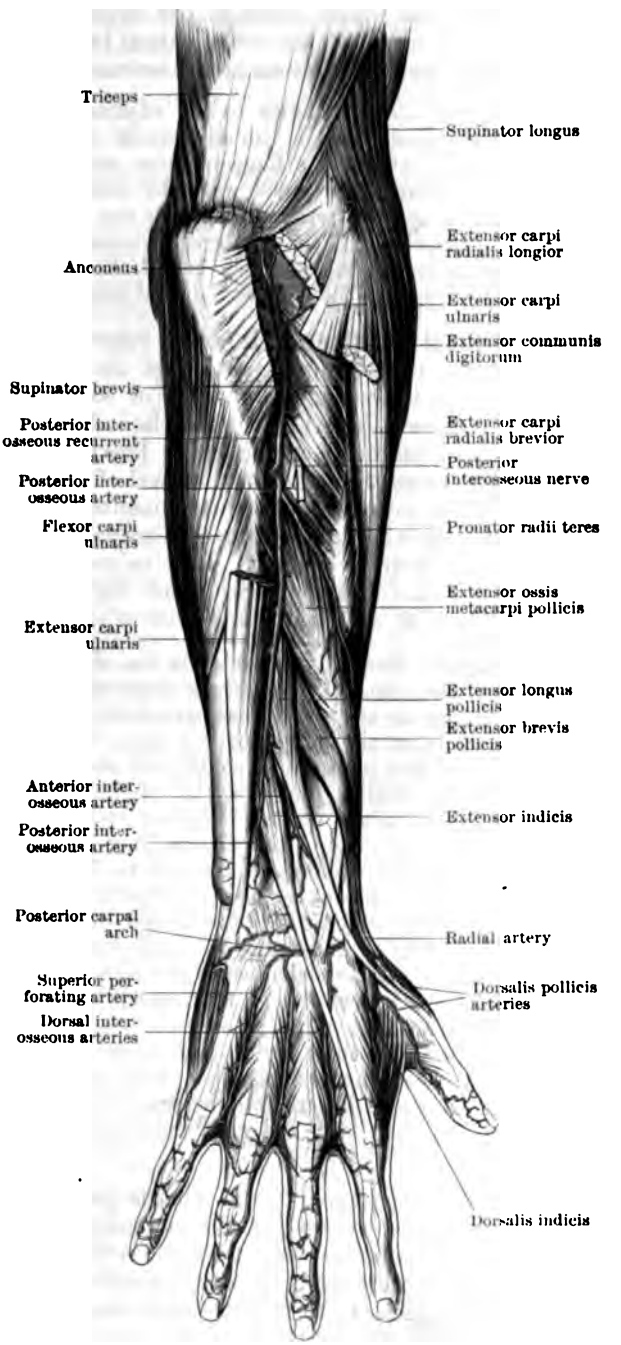


FIG. 633.—THE POSTERIOR INTEROSSEOUS ARTERY AND THE SECOND PART OF THE RADIAL ARTERY, WITH THEIR BRANCHES.

THE ARTERIAL ARCHES OF THE WRIST AND HAND.

Anterior Carpal Arch (Fig. 632).—The anterior carpal arch lies on the front of the carpus behind the flexor tendons and their synovial sheaths. It is formed by the union of the anterior carpal branches of the radial and ulnar arteries, and it receives the communicating branch from the anterior interosseous artery above and recurrent branches from the deep palmar

arch below. The branches of distribution which pass from it supply the ligaments and synovial membranes of the wrist and of the intercarpal and carpo-metacarpal joints.

Posterior or Dorsal Carpal Arch (Fig. 633).—This arch lies on the posterior carpal ligaments under cover of the extensor tendons and their sheaths. It is formed by the union of the dorsal carpal branches of the radial and ulnar arteries, and receives the terminations of the anterior and posterior interosseous arteries.

Branches.—(*a*) **Articular** to the adjacent articulations. (*b*) **Dorsal interosseous**, two slender branches which run downwards on the third and fourth dorsal interosseous muscles to the clefts of the fingers, where each divides into collateral branches. They communicate near their origins with the deep palmar arch by the superior perforating arteries, and near their terminations with the palmar digital vessels through the inferior perforating arteries. Their collateral terminal branches run downwards on the dorso-lateral aspects of the fingers which bound the third and fourth interosseous spaces, and they anastomose with the collateral digital branches of the palmar digital arteries.

Superficial Palmar Arch (arcus volaris superficialis, Fig. 631).—This arterial arch includes the terminal portion of the ulnar artery, and is usually completed externally by the superficialis volæ, or sometimes by the radialis indicis, or the princeps pollicis. It extends from the ball of the little finger to the inner border of the superficial head of the flexor brevis pollicis, and reaches as low down as a line drawn across the palm at the level of the lower border of the fully abducted thumb. It is covered by the integuments and the central portion of the palmar fascia, and, on the ulnar side of the palm, by the palmaris brevis, and it is accompanied by venæ comites. It is in contact behind with the flexor brevis and opponens minimi digiti, and with the digital branches of the ulnar and median nerves, as well as with the flexor tendons and the lumbrical muscles.

Branches.—**Four digital arteries** (aa. digitales volares communes) arise from the convexity of the arch. The innermost descends along the ulnar border of the little finger, accompanied by the internal digital branch of the ulnar nerve; the outer three pass downwards superficial to the digital nerves, along the middle of the three inner interosseous spaces towards the interdigital clefts, just above which each digital artery divides into **two collateral digital arteries** (aa. digitales volares propriæ), which supply the contiguous sides of the fingers bounding the cleft. As the collateral digital branches descend along the sides of the fingers they lie superficial to the corresponding digital nerves, and supply branches to the joints, to the flexor tendons with their sheaths, and to the skin and subcutaneous tissues on the palmar surface; they also send backwards dorsal branches which anastomose with the dorsal digital arteries and supply the tissues on the dorsal aspects of the second and terminal phalanges. Some of the backwardly-directed branches form a plexus in the matrix of the nail. In the pulp of the finger-tips anastomosing twigs join to form arches from which numerous branches are given off to the skin and subcutaneous fat.

Each of the outer three digital arteries is joined immediately above its division by a palmar interosseous branch from the deep palmar arch and an inferior communicating artery from a dorsal interosseous artery. The innermost digital artery is joined by a branch which comes either from the inner palmar interosseous artery or from the deep palmar arch.

Deep Palmar Arch (arcus volaris profundus, Fig. 632).—The deep palmar arch extends from the base of the metacarpal bone of the little finger to the upper end of the first interosseous space, and is formed by the terminal part of the radial artery, anastomosing with the deep branch of the ulnar. It is from half to three quarters of an inch (12 to 18 mm.) above the level of the superficial palmar arch, and it lies deeply in the palm, in contact with the bases of the metacarpal bones and their ligaments and on the origin of the interossei muscles; it is under cover of the flexor tendons and their synovial sheaths.

Branches.—(*a*) The **superior perforating** (rami perforantes); three small arteries which pass backwards through the inner three interosseous spaces, and between the origins of the dorsal interossei muscles. They anastomose on the dorsum of the hand with the *dorsal interosseous* arteries.

(*b*) Small irregular **recurrent branches** pass upwards and unite with the anterior carpal arch.

(*c*) The **articular** to the adjacent articulations.

(*d*) The **palmar interosseous arteries** (aa. metacarpeæ volares) are three vessels which pass downwards on the interosseous muscles of the three inner spaces and under cover of the flexor tendons. They terminate by anastomosing with the palmar digital arteries just before the latter vessels divide into collateral branches.

(*e*) The **communicating**, a small irregular branch which passes inwards between the flexor tendons and the short muscles of the little finger to anastomose with the innermost palmar digital artery.

BRANCHES OF THE DESCENDING THORACIC AORTA.

The branches given off from the thoracic portion of the descending aorta are distributed chiefly to the walls of the thorax and to the thoracic viscera. They contribute also to the supply of the spinal cord and its membranes, and to that of the vertebral column and of the upper part of the abdominal wall. The branches, which are numerous and for the most part arranged in pairs, are as follows:—

Parietal.
- Intercostal.
- Subcostal.
- Diaphragmatic.
- The vas aberrans.

Visceral.
- Bronchial.
- Œsophageal.
- Pericardial.
- Mediastinal.

PARIETAL BRANCHES OF THE DESCENDING THORACIC AORTA.

1. **Intercostal Arteries** (a. intercostales). — There are nine pairs of aortic intercostal arteries. They usually arise separately, though not uncommonly a pair may take origin by a common trunk from the back of the aorta, and are distributed to the lower nine intercostal spaces, to the spinal column, to the contents of the spinal canal, and to the muscles and skin of the back. The first three on each side also give branches to the mammary gland. The arteries of opposite sides closely correspond, but, since the aorta in the thoracic region lies on the left side of the spinal column, the right intercostal arteries cross the front of the vertebral column, behind the œsophagus, the thoracic duct, and the vena azygos major, and are longer than the left arteries. In other respects the course of all the aortic intercostal arteries is almost identical. They run outwards and backwards on the sides of the bodies of the vertebræ to the intercostal spaces, passing behind the pleura, and being crossed, opposite the heads of the ribs, by the sympathetic cord. The lower arteries are also crossed by the splanchnic nerves, and those on the left side are in addition crossed by the smaller azygos veins. On reaching an intercostal space each artery runs upwards, sometimes behind, sometimes in front of the corresponding intercostal nerve, to the upper border of the space, along which it is continued in the subcostal groove. It lies at first between the pleura and the posterior intercostal membrane, immediately below the intercostal nerve; it then pierces the intercostal membrane, and runs between it and the external intercostal muscle as far as the angle of the rib, beyond which it is continued forward between the internal and external intercostal muscles. In the subcostal groove the artery lies between the corresponding vein above and the intercostal nerve below, and it terminates in front by anastomosing with an anterior intercostal branch of the internal mammary or of the musculophrenic artery. The lower two intercostal arteries on each side extend beyond their spaces to the abdominal wall, and anastomose with branches of the superior epigastric, subcostal, and lumbar arteries.

Branches.—(*a*) **Dorsal** (ramus posterior).—As each artery enters its intercostal space it gives off a posterior or dorsal branch which passes backwards, accompanied by the posterior primary division of a spinal nerve, internal to the superior costo-transverse ligament, between the necks of the ribs which bound the space, and between the adjacent transverse processes, to the vertebral groove, where it divides into internal and external terminal branches. The *internal branch* (ramus cutaneus medialis) passes back-

wards and inwards either over or through the multifidus spinæ, giving branches to the muscles between which it passes and to the vertebral column. The *external branch* (ramus cutaneus lateralis) runs outwards under cover of the longissimus dorsi to the interval between it and the musculus accessorius. It terminates in the skin of the back, after giving branches to the adjacent muscles. A *spinal branch* (ramus spinalis) from each dorsal artery passes through the corresponding intervertebral foramen, and enters the spinal canal, to the contents and walls of which it is distributed. It divides into three branches—neural, post-central, and pre-laminar. The *neural branch* divides into two branches which run inwards on the roots of the spinal nerve, pierce the dura mater and arachnoid, and divide into branches some of which pass to the membranes of the cord, whilst others are continued on to reinforce the dorsal and ventral spinal arteries. The *post-central branch* divides into ascending and descending branches which, anastomosing with similar branches above and below, form a series of vertical arches on the back of the bodies of the vertebræ. The arches of opposite sides are connected by short transverse anastomoses. The *pre-laminar branch* is small, and its ascending and descending branches are distributed in a similar though less regular manner on the posterior wall of the spinal canal.

(*b*) A **collateral branch** springs from the trunk of each intercostal artery near the angle of the rib. It descends to the lower border of the intercostal space, along which it runs forwards to anastomose in front, like the intercostal artery itself, with a separate anterior intercostal branch of the internal mammary or musculo-phrenic artery. The collateral branches of the lower two intercostal arteries on each side are inconstant: when present they are small, and terminate in the abdominal wall.

(*c*) **Muscular branches** (rami musculares) to the adjacent muscles are given off both by the main trunk and its collateral branch.

(*d*) A **lateral cutaneous** (ramus cutaneus lateralis) offset from the intercostal artery accompanies the lateral cutaneous branch of the intercostal nerve.

In addition to the above-named branches the first aortic intercostal on each side anastomoses with the superior intercostal, and may supply the whole or the greater part of the second intercostal space, and the first right aortic intercostal frequently gives origin to the right bronchial artery. The upper three or four aortic intercostals on each side give branches to the mammary gland which anastomose with branches of the long thoracic and internal mammary arteries. Longitudinal anastomoses between adjacent intercostal arteries and their dorsal branches sometimes exist near the necks of the ribs, or near the transverse processes. These longitudinal anastomoses are of considerable morphological interest.

2. The **subcostal arteries** are the last pair of parietal branches given off from the thoracic aorta. They are in series with and are very similar to the aortic intercostal arteries, but are situated below the last ribs. Each runs along the lower border of the twelfth rib in company with the last dorsal nerve. It passes beneath the ligamentum arcuatum externum to the abdomen, and there crosses in front of the quadratus lumborum, and behind the kidney and the adjacent part of the colon. It next pierces the aponeurosis of origin of the transversalis abdominis, and runs between the transversalis and the internal oblique muscles, anastomosing with the lower intercostal arteries, with the lumbar arteries, and with branches of the superior epigastric artery.

3. **Diaphragmatic branches** (aa. phrenicæ superiores) are given off from the lower part of the thoracic aorta. They are small vessels which ramify on the upper surface of the diaphragm, and anastomose with branches of the superior phrenic and musculo-phrenic arteries.

4. The **vas aberrans** is a variable and inconstant branch of the thoracic aorta; it represents the dorsal roots of the fourth and fifth right aortic arches of the embryo. When present it arises from the front and right side of the upper part of the main trunk near the upper bronchial artery, and passes upwards and to the right behind the œsophagus; it frequently anastomoses with the right superior intercostal artery, and it may be enlarged and form the first part of the right subclavian artery.

Visceral Branches of the Descending Thoracic Aorta.

1. The **bronchial branches** (aa. bronchiales) of the thoracic aortæ are usually two in number—an upper and a lower—and both pass to the left lung. The *upper left bronchial artery* arises from the front of the main trunk opposite the fifth

dorsal vertebra; the *inferior left bronchial artery* usually takes origin near the lower border of the left bronchus. Both vessels are directed downwards and outwards to the back of the bronchus, which they accompany, and, dividing similarly, they follow its ramifications in the lung. They not only supply the walls of the bronchial tubes and the substance of the lungs, but also give branches to the bronchial glands, the pulmonary vessels, the pericardium, and the œsophagus.

As a rule there is only one *right bronchial artery*, and it arises from the first right aortic intercostal artery; but it not uncommonly arises from the upper left bronchial artery, and more rarely it springs directly from the aorta. In its course and distribution it corresponds to the bronchial arteries of the left side.

2. The **œsophageal branches** (aa. œsophageæ) are variable; usually four or five small branches spring from the front of the aorta and pass forwards to the œsophagus, in the walls of which they ramify, anastomosing above with branches of the left bronchial and inferior thyroid arteries, and below with œsophageal branches of the coronary and phrenic arteries.

3. The **pericardial branches** (rami pericardiaci) consist of three or four small irregular vessels which are distributed on the surface of the pericardium.

4. Small **mediastinal branches** (rami mediastinales) pass to the areolar tissue and glands in the posterior mediastinal space, and to the posterior part of the diaphragm.

BRANCHES OF THE ABDOMINAL AORTA.

The branches of the abdominal portion of the aorta are distributed almost entirely to the walls and contents of the abdominal cavity, but some also supply small branches to the vertebral column, and to the contents of the spinal canal, and others are prolonged into the pelvis. They are divisible into parietal and visceral groups, both of which include paired and single (unpaired) vessels.

- **Parietal.**
  - **Paired.**
    - Inferior phrenic.
    - Lumbar.
    - Common iliac.
  - **Single.** Middle sacral.
- **Visceral.**
  - **Paired.**
    - Suprarenal.
    - Renal.
    - Spermatic or ovarian.
  - **Single.**
    - Cœliac axis.
    - Superior mesenteric.
    - Inferior mesenteric.

Parietal Branches of the Abdominal Aorta.

1. The **inferior phrenic arteries** (aa. phrenicæ inferiores, Fig. 634) are two in number, and are of small size; they arise, either separately or by a common trunk, from the aorta, immediately below the diaphragm on the under surface of which they are distributed. Diverging from its fellow, each artery runs upwards and outwards on the corresponding crus of the diaphragm—that on the right side passing behind the inferior vena cava, that on the left behind the œsophagus—and just before reaching the central tendon of the diaphragm it divides into internal and external terminal branches. The *internal branch* of each artery runs forward and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, forming an arch, convex forwards, along the front of the central tendon of the diaphragm. Offsets from this arch anastomose with the superior phrenic, musculo-phrenic, and internal mammary arteries. The *external branch* passes outwards towards the lower ribs, and anastomoses with the musculo-phrenic and lower intercostal arteries.

In addition to supplying the diaphragm each inferior phrenic artery frequently gives a **superior capsular branch** to the suprarenal body of its own side, and occasionally small hepatic branches pass through the coronary ligament to the liver. Further, the left artery gives branches to the œsophagus which anastomose with œsophageal branches of the aorta and of the coronary artery, whilst from the artery of the right side minute branches pass to the inferior vena cava.

2. The **lumbar arteries** (aa. lumbales) correspond to the intercostal branches of the thoracic aorta. They are in series with them, their distribution is very similar, and, like the intercostals, they arise, either separately or by common trunks, from the back of the aorta.

There are usually four pairs of lumbar arteries, but occasionally a fifth pair arises from or in common with the middle sacral artery.

From their origins the lumbar arteries pass backwards and outwards on the front and sides of the bodies of the upper four lumbar vertebræ to the intervals between the adjacent transverse processes, beyond which they are continued in the abdominal wall.

They lie on the bodies of the corresponding lumbar vertebræ. In their back-

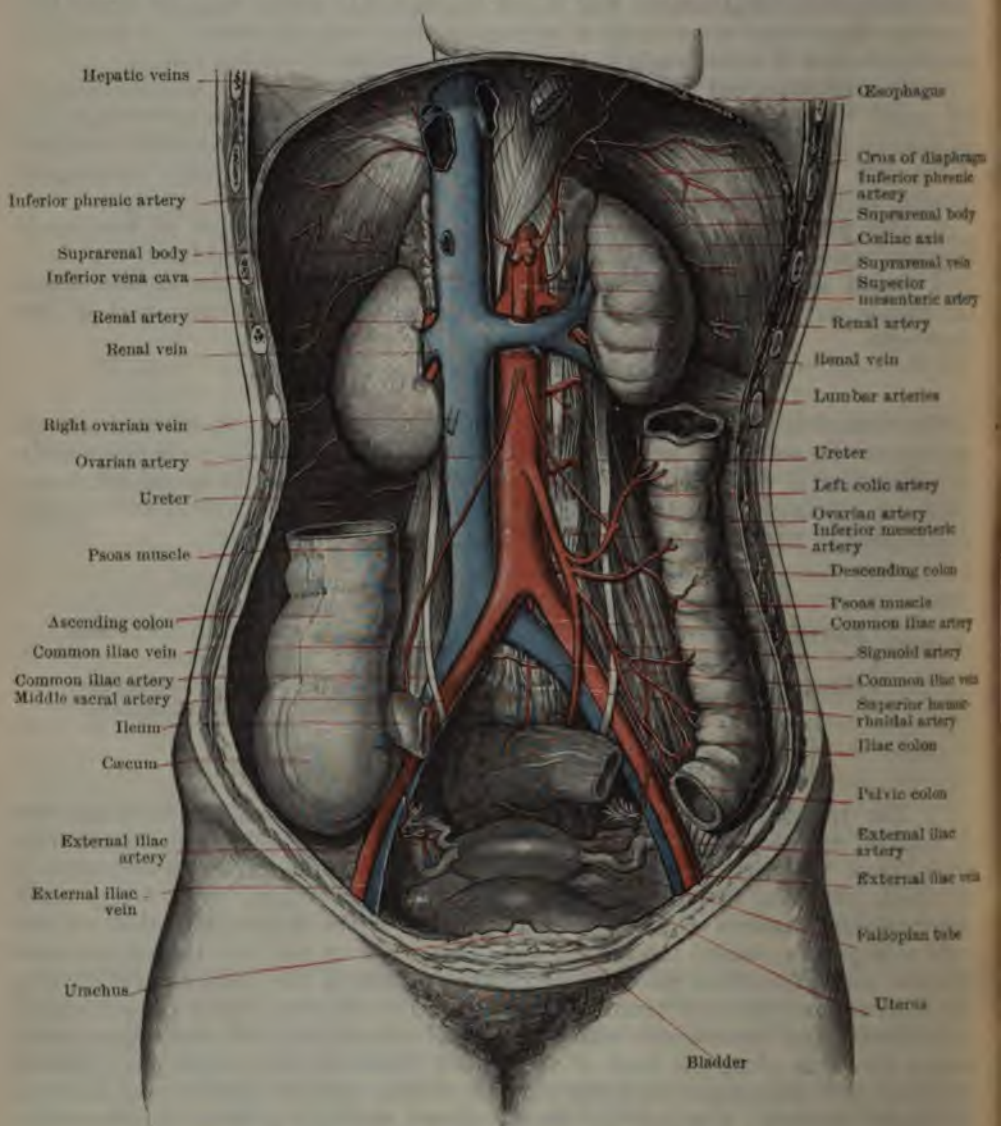


FIG. 634.—THE ABDOMINAL AORTA AND ITS BRANCHES.

ward course, and while still in relation with the vertebral bodies, each artery is crossed by the sympathetic cord, and then, after passing internal to and being protected by the fibrous arches from which the muscle arises, it runs behind the psoas muscle and the lumbar plexus. The upper two arteries on each side also pass behind the crura of the diaphragm. Beyond the interval between the transverse processes of the vertebræ each artery turns outwards and crosses the quadratus lumborum—the last usually passing in front of, and the others behind the muscle; it then pierces the aponeurosis of origin of the transversalis, and proceeds forwards in the lateral *abdominal* wall in the interval between the transversalis and internal oblique

muscles. The lumbar arteries anastomose with one another, with the lower intercostal and subcostal arteries, and with branches of the superior and deep epigastric and of the deep circumflex iliac and ilio-lumbar arteries.

Fine twigs also pass from the lumbar arteries to the extra-peritoneal fat, and anastomose with corresponding branches from the inferior phrenic and ilio-lumbar arteries, and with small branches from the hepatic, renal, and colic arteries, to form the subperitoneal plexus of Turner.

The abdominal aorta lies but little to the left of the middle line, and consequently the right lumbar arteries are scarcely longer than the left. On the right side the arteries, which near their origins lie more in front of the vertebral bodies, pass behind the inferior vena cava, the upper two arteries being separated from this vessel by the right crus of the diaphragm. The upper two right arteries also pass behind the receptaculum chyli and the lower end of the large azygos vein.

Branches.—**Dorsal** (ramus dorsalis).—Each lumbar artery gives off, opposite the interval between the vertebral transverse processes, a dorsal branch of considerable size. It is analogous with and distributed like the corresponding branch of an aortic intercostal artery (p. 837). **Muscular branches** are given off, both from the main trunk and its dorsal branch, to the adjacent muscles.

3. The **middle sacral artery** (a. sacralis media, Fig. 634) is a single median vessel. It is commonly regarded as a caudal aorta and as the direct continuation of the abdominal aorta. It is, however, of small size, and almost invariably arises from the back of the aorta about half-an-inch above its bifurcation. It descends in front of the two lower lumbar vertebra and of the sacrum and coccyx, and ends opposite the tip of the last-named bone by anastomosing with the lateral sacral arteries to form a loop from which branches pass to the coccygeal body. In its course it passes at first behind the lower part of the abdominal aorta. Opposite the fifth lumbar vertebra it is crossed by the left common iliac vein, below which it is covered by peritoneum and coils of small intestine as far as the third sacral segment, and in the rest of its extent by the rectum. It is accompanied below by venæ comites, which, however, unite above to form a single middle sacral vein.

Small parietal branches pass transversely outwards on each side to the last lumbar vertebra and to the sacrum. They anastomose with the lateral sacral arteries, and they usually give off small spinal offsets which enter the anterior sacral foramina. Small and irregular visceral branches pass to the rectum and anastomose with the superior and middle hæmorrhoidal arteries.

COMMON ILIAC ARTERIES.

4. The **common iliac arteries** (aa. iliacæ communes, Figs. 634 and 640) are the terminal branches of the abdominal aorta. They are formed by the bifurcation of the main trunk, and commence opposite the middle of the body of the fourth lumbar vertebra a little to the left of the middle line. Each artery passes downwards and outwards across the bodies of the fourth and fifth lumbar vertebræ and the intervening intervertebral disc, and terminates at the level of the lumbo-sacral articulation and in front of the corresponding sacro-iliac joint by dividing into the internal and external iliac arteries.

The direction of each common iliac is well indicated by a line drawn from the bifurcation of the aorta to a point midway between the symphysis pubes and the anterior superior spine of the ilium.

The angle included between the two diverging trunks is about 60° in the male and about 68° in the female.

The right artery is, for obvious reasons, a little longer than the left; the former is about two inches, and the latter one and three-quarter inches in length.

Relations.—*Anterior.*—Both arteries are covered anteriorly by peritoneum, and are separated by it from coils of the small intestine. Communicating branches between the aortic and hypogastric plexuses of the sympathetic pass in front of the arteries, each of which is also crossed anteriorly near its termination by the corresponding ureter.

The left artery is in addition crossed in front by the superior hæmorrhoidal vessels.

Posterior.—Behind the artery of each side are the bodies of the fourth and fifth lumbar vertebræ, with the intervertebral disc above the latter, the psoas muscle, the sympathetic cord. These relationships, however, are much closer on the left side than on the right. The right common iliac, except at its lower end, where it is in contact with the psoas, is separated from the structures named by the terminations of the right and left common iliac veins and the commencement of the inferior vena cava. The left common iliac, which is not so separated, lies on the inner border of the psoas. Somewhat deeply placed in the areolar tissue between the psoas and the lumbar vertebræ, the obturator nerve, the lumbo-sacral cord, and the ilio-lumbar artery form posterior relations to the artery of the corresponding side.

Lateral.—On both sides of each artery are coils of small intestine. The commencement of the inferior vena cava lies to the outer side of the upper part of the right artery, and on the inner side of this vessel are the right common iliac vein below and the left common iliac vein above. The last-named vein lies on the inner side of the left artery.

The Paired Visceral Branches of the Abdominal Aorta.

1. **Suprarenal** or **Capsular Arteries** (aa. suprarenales, Fig. 634).—There are three sets of suprarenal arteries—the superior, middle, and inferior. Of these the middle only arise from the aorta direct; the superior spring from the inferior phrenic, and the inferior from the renal arteries.

The middle suprarenal arteries are two small branches which arise, behind the pancreas, from the sides of the aorta, close to the origin of the superior mesenteric artery. They run, one on each side, outwards and upwards upon the crura of the diaphragm, and just above the renal arteries, to the suprarenal bodies to which they are distributed, and they anastomose with the superior and inferior suprarenal arteries.

2. **Renal Arteries** (aa. renales, Fig. 634).—The renal arteries arise, one on each side, from the aorta, about half-an-inch below the origin of the superior mesenteric artery and opposite the second lumbar vertebra.

Both arteries are of large size, and the right, which is a little longer than the left, is frequently slightly lower in position. Each artery runs almost transversely outwards to the hilum of the corresponding kidney. It passes in front of the crus of the diaphragm and of the upper part of the psoas muscle. The left artery lies behind the pancreas; the right vessel passes behind the inferior vena cava, the head of the pancreas, and the second part of the duodenum. The renal vein usually lies below and in front of the artery, but near the kidney the vein not unfrequently occupies a posterior position.

On reaching the hilum of the kidney each artery divides into three branches, two of which pass in front of the pelvis of the ureter, and between it and the renal vein, and the third behind the pelvis. In the renal sinus these primary branches break up into numerous secondary branches which enter the kidney substance between the pyramids.

Branches.—The following branches are given off by each renal artery, in addition to the terminal branches :—

(*a*) **Inferior suprarenal** (a. suprarenalis inferior), which passes upwards to the lower part of the suprarenal body.

(*b*) **Ureteral.**—Small branches to the upper part of the ureter, which anastomose with branches of the spermatic or ovarian arteries.

(*c*) **Peri-renal.**—Small branches to the fatty capsule of the kidney, which anastomose with the lumbar arteries.

(*d*) **Glandular offsets**, either from the main trunk or from some of its branches, pass to the renal and lumbar glands.

3. **Spermatic Arteries** (aa. spermaticæ internæ).—The spermatic arteries in the male, and the corresponding ovarian arteries (aa. ovaricæ) in the female, are two long slender vessels, one on the right side and one on the left, which arise from the front of the abdominal aorta, a short distance below the origins of the renal arteries.

Each spermatic artery runs downwards and outwards to the internal abdominal ring; it then traverses the inguinal canal, and consequently takes a downward and inward course. On emerging from the canal, through the external abdominal ring, *it enters the* scrotum, in which it descends, almost vertically, but in a tortuous

manner, to end immediately above the testicle by dividing into testicular and pididymal branches.

Relations.—In the abdominal cavity the arteries lie behind the peritoneum, to which they are closely attached, and in front of the psoas muscles. The right artery is also in front of the inferior vena cava. Each artery descends in front of the ureter, the genito-crural nerve, and the lower end of the external iliac artery of its own side, and is accompanied by two spermatic veins which unite above into a single trunk. The anterior relations differ on the two sides. The right artery lies behind, and is crossed, by the ileo-colic, the right colic, and the terminal branches of the superior mesenteric artery, and by the third part of the duodenum, the termination of the ileum, and the vermiform appendix. The left artery is crossed in front by the left colic and sigmoid branches of the inferior mesenteric artery and by the iliac colon.

At the internal abdominal ring the spermatic artery comes into relation, at its inner side, with the vas deferens. The two structures run together round the outer and anterior aspects of the deep epigastric artery to the inguinal canal.

In the inguinal canal the spermatic artery, along with the other constituents of the spermatic cord, is enclosed in the infundibular and cremasteric fasciæ, the intercolumnar fascia being added at the external abdominal ring. In this part of its course the artery lies in front of the vas deferens, and behind the anterior part of the pampiniform plexus and the spermatic veins which arise from it.

Branches.—(*a*) **Ureteral branches,** small in size, are distributed to the middle part of the ureter, anastomosing above with branches from the renal and below with branches from the vesical arteries.

(*b*) **Cremasteric branches,** given off in the inguinal canal and upper part of the scrotum, supply the cremaster muscle, and anastomose with the cremasteric branch of the deep epigastric.

(*c*) **Terminal Branches.**—(i.) The *epididymal branch* runs downwards to the epididymis, which it supplies. It also gives twigs to the vas aberrans, the coni vasculosi, and the tunica vaginalis, and anastomoses with the artery of the vas deferens. (ii.) The *testicular branch* descends on the upper and back part of the testicle, and breaks up into numerous peripheral and central branches. The peripheral branches pass through the tunica albuginea and ramify on its inner surface; they anastomose with one another and with the central branches. The central branches pass through the mediastinum testis and along the surfaces of the septa.

3*a*. The **ovarian arteries** (aa. ovaricæ, Fig. 634) in the female closely correspond to the spermatic arteries in the male. They are, however, much shorter, and, instead of passing through the abdominal wall, descend into the pelvis, where they run between the layers of the broad ligament to terminate between the ovaries and the uterus by anastomosing with the uterine arteries.

Relations.—In the upper part of its course the relations of each ovarian artery are like those of the corresponding spermatic artery, but about the level of the anterior superior spine of the ilium each ovarian artery turns inwards, and, crossing the upper part of the external iliac vessels (artery and vein), descends in the anterior border of the fossa ovarii, on the lateral wall of the pelvis, to the broad ligament, where it is placed below the Fallopian tube.

Branches.—(*a*) **Ureteral,** to the middle part of the ureter.

(*b*) **Tubal,** to the Fallopian tube, which anastomose with branches of the uterine.

(*c*) **Ligamentous,** to the round ligament, as far as the inguinal canal.

(*d*) **Ovarian branches,** numerous, pass to the hilum of the ovary, and thence to the substance of the organ.

(*e*) **A uterine branch** is formed by the continuation of the trunk to its anastomosis with the uterine branch of the internal iliac.

The Unpaired or Single Visceral Branches of the Abdominal Aorta.

1. The **cœliac artery** or **cœliac axis** (a. cœliaca, Figs. 634 and 635) arises from the front of the abdominal aorta, immediately below the aortic orifice of the diaphragm and between its crura. It is a short but wide vessel which runs almost horizontally forwards for a distance of about half-an-inch, and then terminates by dividing into three large branches—the coronary or gastric, the hepatic, and the splenic.

Relations.—The short trunk extends from the aorta behind the lesser sac of peritoneum, by which it is separated from the stomach, or from the small omentum,

in front. It runs below the Spigelian lobe of the liver, and above the upper border of the pancreas and the splenic vein, and it is surrounded by the solar and cœliac plexuses of the sympathetic; the right semilunar ganglion is to its right side, and the left semilunar ganglion and cardiac end of the stomach are on its left side.

Branches.—(*a*) The **coronary** or **gastric artery** (a. gastrica sinistra) is the smallest branch of the cœliac axis. It runs obliquely upwards and to the left, and reaches the smaller curvature of the stomach close to the œsophagus. It then turns sharply forwards, downwards, and to the right, and runs towards the pyloric end of the stomach to anastomose with the pyloric branch of the hepatic artery. In the first part of its course the artery lies behind the lesser sac of the peritoneum; it then passes into the left pancreatico-gastric fold, and is continued between the layers of the small omentum.

Branches.—(i.) **Œsophageal** (rami œsophagei).—When the artery reaches the stomach a large

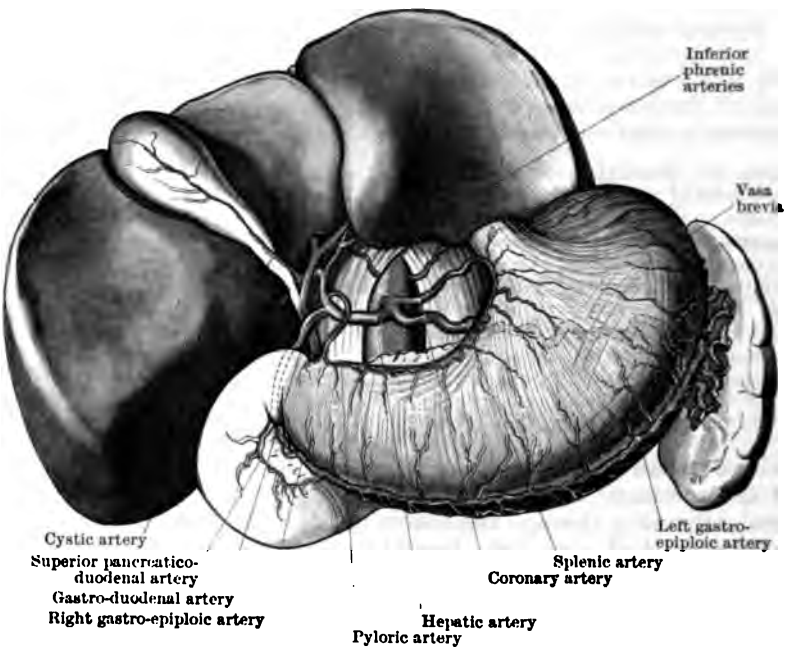


FIG. 635.—THE CŒLIAC AXIS AND ITS BRANCHES.

œsophageal branch is given off, which passes upwards on the œsophagus, and gives offsets to it which anastomose with œsophageal branches of the thoracic aorta and with branches of the inferior phrenic. (ii.) **Gastric branches** are distributed to both surfaces of the stomach. They anastomose with branches of the vasa brevia of the splenic, and with branches of the gastro-epiploic arterial arch on the greater curvature of the stomach.

(*b*) The **splenic artery** (a. lienalis, Fig. 635) is the largest branch of the cœliac axis. It runs a more or less tortuous course behind the stomach and the lesser sac of the peritoneum, and along the upper border of the pancreas. It lies in front of the left suprarenal capsule and the upper end of the left kidney, and passes forwards between the two layers of the lieno-renal ligament, where it divides into from five to eight terminal branches (rami lienales) which enter the hilum of the spleen and supply the splenic substance. It is accompanied by the splenic vein, which lies below it.

Branches.—(i.) **Pancreatic** (rami pancreatici).—Numerous small branches (pancreaticæ parvæ) are given off to the pancreas. One large branch (pancreatica magna), occasionally present, enters the upper border of the pancreas, about the junction of its middle and left thirds, and runs from left to right in the substance of the pancreas, a little above and behind the pancreatic duct. Both the small and large arteries supply the substance of the pancreas, and anastomose with one another and with branches of the pancreatico-duodenal arteries.

(ii.) The **vasa brevia** (aa. gastricæ breves), or short gastric branches, four or five in number, are given off either from the end of the main vessel or, more commonly, from some of its terminal branches. They pass between the layers of the gastro-splenic omentum to the left end of great curvature of the stomach, and anastomose with the œsophageal, the gastric, and the left gastro-epiploic arteries.

(iii.) The **left gastro-epiploic branch** (a. gastro-epiploica sinistra) arises from the front of the splenic, close to its termination, and passes forwards between the layers of the gastro-splenic omentum to the left end of the great curvature of the stomach, along which it is continued, from left to right, between the layers of the gastro-colic or great omentum. It ends by anastomosing with the right gastro-epiploic artery, and it gives off numerous gastric branches to both surfaces of the stomach, which anastomose with the vasa brevia and with branches of the coronary and pyloric arteries. Long slender omental branches pass to the omentum and anastomose with branches of the colic arteries.

(*c*) The **hepatic artery** (a. hepatica, Fig. 635) runs along the upper border of the head of the pancreas to the right pancreatico-gastric fold of peritoneum, in which it turns forwards to the upper border of the first part of the duodenum. It then passes upwards, between the layers of the small omentum, in front of the portal vein and to the left of the common bile duct, and reaches the transverse fissure of the liver, where it divides into right and left branches.

Branches.—(i.) The **pyloric artery** (a. gastrica dextra) is a small branch which arises opposite the upper border of the first part of the duodenum. It descends to the pylorus, running between the layers of the small omentum, and then turns to the left along the smaller curvature of the stomach. It gives branches to both surfaces of the stomach, and terminates by anastomosing with the coronary artery.

(ii.) The **gastro-duodenal artery** (a. gastro-duodenalis).—This branch of the hepatic arises just above the upper border, descends behind, and terminates opposite the lower border of the first part of the duodenum. In its course it lies between the neck of the pancreas and the first part of the duodenum, and it is in front of the portal vein. The common bile duct is on its right side. The vessel ends by dividing into the right gastro-epiploic and the superior pancreatico-duodenal arteries. The **right gastro-epiploic artery** (a. gastro-epiploica dextra) is the larger of the two terminal branches of the gastro-duodenal; it passes from right to left along the greater curvature of the stomach, between the layers of the gastro-colic omentum, and unites with the left gastro-epiploic branch of the splenic artery. From the arterial arch so formed branches pass upwards on both surfaces of the stomach, and anastomose with branches of the pyloric and coronary arteries. Other branches pass downwards to the omentum, and anastomose with branches of the colic arteries. The **superior pancreatico-duodenal artery** (a. pancreatico-duodenalis superior) runs a short course to the right, between the duodenum and the head of the pancreas, and divides into anterior and posterior terminal branches which descend, the former in front of and the latter behind the head of the pancreas, to anastomose with similar branches of the inferior pancreatico-duodenal artery. They supply the head of the pancreas, anastomosing in it with the pancreatic branches of the splenic artery; branches are also given to the second part of the duodenum and to the common bile duct.

(iii.) **Terminal branches.**—The **right hepatic artery** (ramus dexter) passes either in front of or behind the hepatic duct and behind the cystic duct, to the right end of the transverse fissure of the liver, where it divides into two or more branches which enter the substance of the liver and accompany the branches of the portal vein and the hepatic duct. As it crosses just above the junction of the hepatic and cystic ducts, the right hepatic artery gives off a cystic branch. The *cystic artery* (a. cystica) runs downwards and forwards along the cystic duct to the gall-bladder, where it divides into upper and lower branches; the upper passes downwards between the gall-bladder and the under surface of the liver, to both of which it gives offsets; the lower branch is distributed on the under surface of the gall-bladder, between it and the peritoneum. The **left hepatic artery** (ramus sinister) is longer and narrower than the right. It runs to the left end of the transverse fissure, gives one or two branches to the Spigelian lobe, crosses the longitudinal fissure, and breaks up into branches which terminate in the substance of the left lobe of the liver.

2. The **superior mesenteric artery** (a. mesenterica superior, Figs. 634, 636, and 65[illegible]) arises from the front of the aorta, about half-an-inch below the origin of the c[illegible]ac axis and opposite the first lumbar vertebra.

It pas[illegible] obliquely downwards and forwards, crossing in front of the left renal

vein, the lower part of the head of the pancreas, and the third part of the duodenum; opposite the latter it enters the root of the mesentery, in which it continues to descend, curving obliquely from above downwards and to the right, to the right iliac fossa, and crossing in this part of its course obliquely in front of the aorta, the lower part of the inferior vena cava, the right ureter, and the right psoas muscle. At its origin it lies behind the neck of the pancreas and the splenic vein; where it passes in front of the duodenum it is crossed anteriorly by the transverse colon, and in the lower part of its extent it is concealed by coils of small intestine.

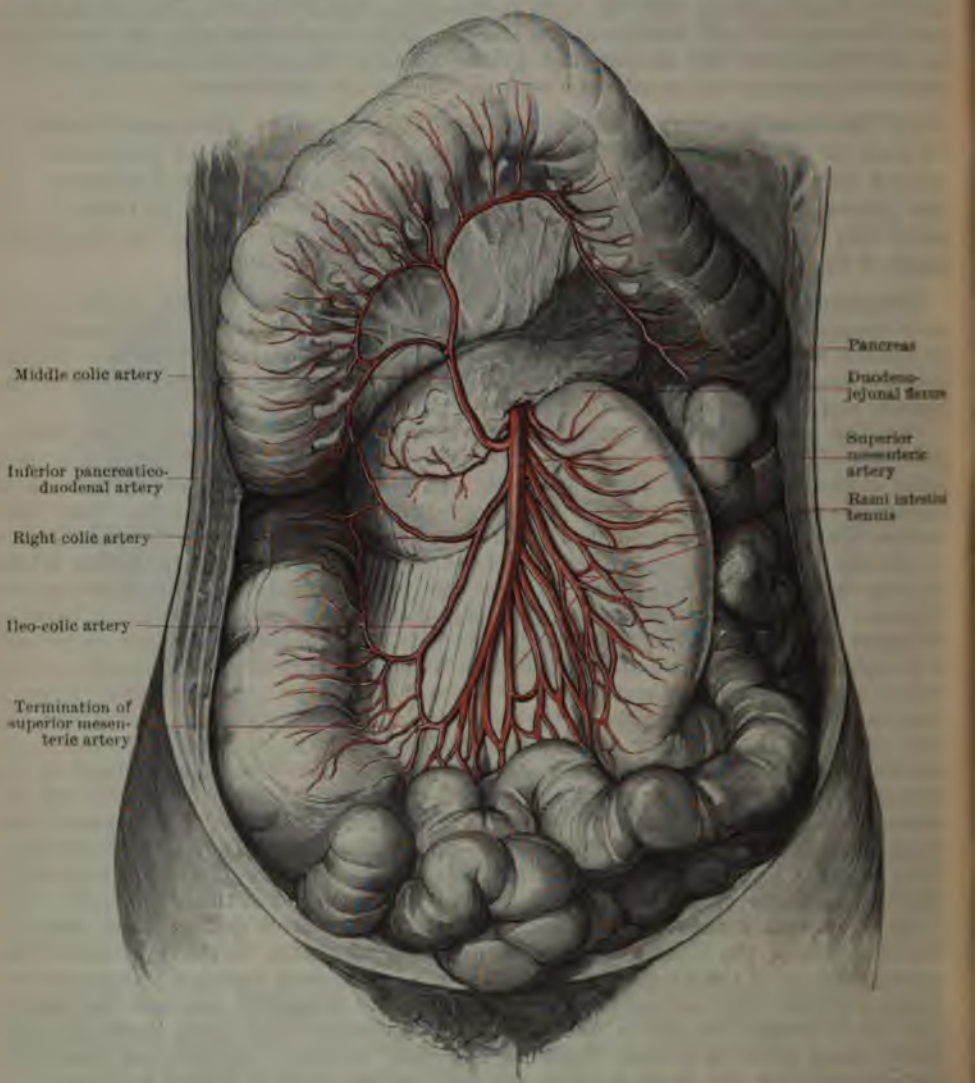


FIG. 636.—THE SUPERIOR MESENTERIC ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES.

Branches.—It gives off numerous branches which supply the duodenum and the pancreas in part, the whole of the small intestine below the duodenum, and the large intestine nearly as far as the splenic flexure.

The branches are as follows:—

(*a*) **Rami intestini tenuis** (aa. intestinales), or branches to the small intestine, varying from ten to sixteen in number; they spring from the convexity of the superior mesenteric artery, and pass obliquely forwards and downwards between the layers of the mesentery, each dividing into two branches which anastomose with adjacent branches to form a series of arcades from which secondary branches are given off. This process of *division* and union is repeated three or four times, thus four or five tiers of arches are

ormed, from the most distal of which terminal branches are given off to the walls of the ejunum and ileum. Branches from the successive arcades are also given off to the nesenteric glands. The terminal branches anastomose together in the walls of the gut, orming a vascular network which communicates above with the inferior pancreatico-luodenal artery and below with the terminal branch of the superior mesenteric trunk. The vascular loops and branches are accompanied by corresponding veins, lymphatics, and ierves.

(*b*) The **inferior pancreatico-duodenal artery** (a. pancreatico-duodenalis inferior). It arises either from the trunk of the superior mesenteric, at the upper border of the third part of the duodenum, or from the first of the rami intestini. It runs to the right, between the head of the pancreas and the third part of the duodenum, and terminates by dividing into two branches, anterior and posterior, which ascend, the former in front and the latter behind the head of the pancreas; they supply the head of the pancreas, the second and third parts of the duodenum, and they anastomose with the similar branches of the superior pancreatico-duodenal artery.

(*c*) The **middle colic artery** (a. colica media) is a large branch which springs from the front of the superior mesenteric as it enters the root of the mesentery. It runs downwards and forwards in the transverse mesocolon, and terminates by dividing into two branches, right and left, which anastomose respectively with the right and left colic arteries, forming arcades from which secondary and tertiary loops are derived, the terminal branches being distributed to the walls of the transverse colon.

(*d*) The **right colic artery** (a. colica dextra) springs from the right or concave side of the superior mesenteric, either alone or in the form of a common trunk which divides into right and ileo-colic branches. It runs to the right, behind the peritoneum on the posterior wall of the abdomen, and in front of the right psoas, the ureter, and the permatic or ovarian vessels, towards the ascending colon, near which it divides into an scending and a descending branch. The former passes upwards, and anastomoses in the ransverse mesocolon with the middle colic artery. The latter descends to anastomose ith the upper branch of the ileo-colic, and from the loops thus formed branches are dis-ributed to the walls of the ascending colon and the beginning of the transverse colon.

(*e*) The **ileo-colic artery** (a. ileo-colica) arises by a common trunk with the right colic, r separately from the right side of the superior mesenteric, and passes downwards and utwards, behind the peritoneum, towards the lower part of the ascending colon, where terminates by dividing into an ascending branch which anastomoses with the lower ranch of the right colic, and a descending branch which communicates with the colic erminal branches of the superior mesenteric trunk.

(*f*) **Terminal.**—The lower end of the superior mesenteric artery divides into five ranches—(i.) ileal, (ii.) appendicular, (iii.) anterior ileo-cæcal, (iv.) posterior ileo-cæcal, nd (v.) colic.

The **ileal branch** (a. ilea) turns upwards and to the left in the lowest part of the mesentery, nd anastomoses with the rami intestini. The **appendicular branch** (a. appendicularis) passes ehind the terminal portion of the ileum, and through the meso-appendix to the vermiform pro-ess, upon which it ends. The **anterior ileo-cæcal** crosses the front of the ileo-cæcal junction in fold of peritoneum; the **posterior ileo-cæcal** crosses the ileo-cæcal junction posteriorly, and the olic runs upwards to the ascending colon. The ileo-cæcal branches supply the walls of the æcum, and, like the colic branch, anastomose with branches of the ileo-colic artery.

3. The **inferior mesenteric artery** (a. mesenterica inferior, Fig. 634) arises rom the front and towards the left side of the aorta an inch and a half above the ifurcation; it passes downwards and slightly outwards, lying behind the perito-ieum and on the front of the left psoas muscle, to the upper and outer border of he left common iliac artery, where it becomes the superior hæmorrhoidal.

Branches.—(*a*) The **left colic artery** (a. colica sinistra) arises from the left side of he inferior mesenteric near its origin. It runs upwards and to the left towards the splenic lexure of the colon, where it divides into ascending and descending branches. The scending branch crosses in front of the lower end of the left kidney, passes between the ayers of the transverse mesocolon, and, turning inwards, terminates by joining the left ranch of the middle colic artery. The descending branch passes downwards behind the eritoneum to the inner side of the descending colon to unite with the superior sigmoid rtery, and from the loops thus formed branches are distributed to the descending colon.

In the whole of its course the left colic artery lies behind the peritoneum, and on the osterior abdominal wall; it crosses in front of the left psoas and the left ureter.

(*b*) The **sigmoid branches** (aa. sigmoideæ), usually two in number, arise from the convexity of the inferior mesenteric, and pass downwards and outwards to the iliac colon. They lie behind the peritoneum, and in front of the psoas, the ureter, and the upper part of the iliacus. They terminate by dividing into branches which anastomose with the left colic above and with branches of the superior hæmorrhoidal below, forming a series of arches from which branches are distributed to the lower part of the descending colon, the iliac colon, and the pelvic colon.

(*c*) The **superior hæmorrhoidal artery** (a. hæmorrhoidalis superior) is the direct continuation of the inferior mesenteric. It enters the mesentery of the pelvic colon, crosses the front of the left common iliac artery, descends into the pelvis as far as the third piece of the sacrum, or in other words the junction between the pelvic colon and the rectum, and divides into two branches which pass downwards on the sides of the rectum. Half-way down the rectum each of the two terminal branches of the superior hæmorrhoidal artery divides into two or more branches which pass through the muscular coats and terminate in the submucous tissue, where they divide into numerous small branches which pass vertically downwards, anastomosing with each other, with offsets from the middle hæmorrhoidal branches of the internal iliac arteries, the inferior hæmorrhoidal branches of the internal pudic arteries, and with branches from the middle sacral artery.

The superior hæmorrhoidal artery supplies the mucous membrane of the pelvic colon and the rectum and the muscular coats of the pelvic colon.

THE INTERNAL ILIAC ARTERY.

The **internal iliac** or **hypogastric artery** (a. hypogastrica, Figs. 634, 637, and 640) in the fœtus is the direct continuation of the common iliac trunk. It supplies numerous branches to the pelvis, runs upwards on the anterior abdominal wall to the umbilicus, and is prolonged as the umbilical artery to the placenta. One of its pelvic branches—the sciatic—is at first the main artery of the inferior extremity, but subsequently another branch is given off which becomes the chief arterial trunk of the lower limb. This branch is the external iliac artery; it soon equals and ultimately exceeds the internal iliac in size, and it is into these two vessels that the common iliac appears to bifurcate.

When the placental circulation ceases and the umbilical cord is severed, the part of the internal iliac trunk which extends from the pelvis to the umbilicus atrophies, and is afterwards represented almost entirely by a fibrous cord, known as the obliterated hypogastric artery. It is only at its proximal end that the atrophied part remains pervious, and here it forms the commencement of the superior vesical artery; accordingly, the permanent internal iliac artery is a comparatively short vessel. Owing to the arrangement of some of its branches it appears to end in an anterior and a posterior division, the former of which is to be regarded as the continuation of the vessel to the obliterated hypogastric, whilst the latter is simply a common stem of origin for some of the branches.

With this explanation the internal iliac artery may be described in the usual manner.

It arises from the common iliac opposite the lumbo-sacral articulation, and descends into the pelvis, to terminate, as a rule, opposite the upper border of the great sciatic notch, in two divisions—anterior and posterior—from each of which branches of distribution are given off. The artery measures about one and a half inches in length, and is the inner of the two terminal branches of the common iliac artery.

Relations.—*Anterior.*—The artery on each side is covered in front and internally by peritoneum, under which the corresponding ureter descends along the anterior border of the artery. The ilio-pelvic colon crosses from the front to the inner side of the left artery, and the terminal part of the ileum bears the same relation to the right artery.

Posterior to it are the internal iliac vein and the commencement of the common iliac vein; behind these is the lumbo-sacral cord and the sacrum.

Lateral.—On its outer side the external iliac vein separates it from the psoas muscle above, whilst below this is the obturator nerve, embedded in a mass of fat which intervenes between the internal iliac artery and the side wall of the pelvis. On its inner side it is crossed by some of the tributaries of the internal iliac vein, and is covered by peritoneum.

Branches.—The internal iliac artery supplies the greater part of the pelvic wall and viscera, and its branches are also distributed to the buttock and thigh and to the external organs of generation.

All the branches may be given off separately from a single undivided parent

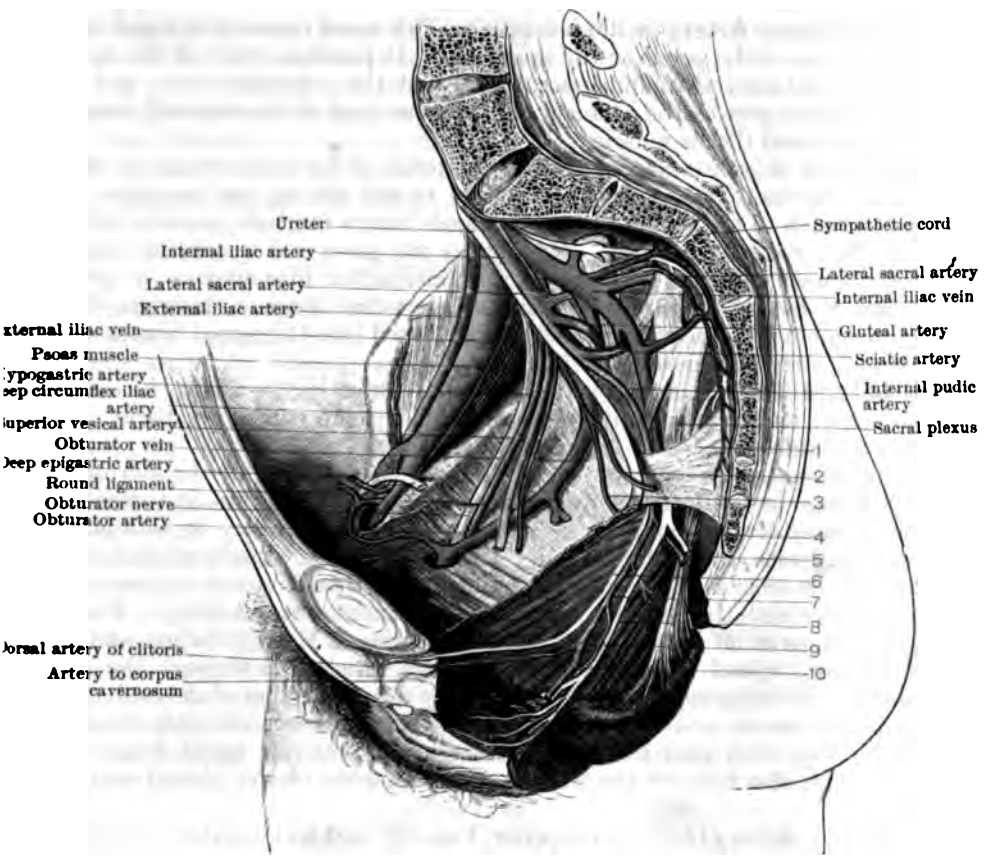


FIG. 637.—THE INTERNAL ILIAC ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES IN THE FEMALE.

1. Great sacro-sciatic ligament.
2. Uterine artery.
3. Vaginal artery.
4. Inferior hæmorrhoidal nerve.
5. Inferior hæmorrhoidal artery.
6. Dorsal nerve of clitoris.
7. Internal pudic artery.
8. Perineal nerve.
9. Superficial perineal artery.
10. Artery to bulb.

trunk, but as a rule they arise in two groups corresponding to the two divisions in which the artery under these circumstances appears to end.

- **Posterior division**
  - **parietal**
    - Ilio-lumbar
    - Lateral sacral
    - Gluteal
- **Anterior division**
  - **parietal**
    - Obturator
    - Sciatic
    - Internal pudic
  - **visceral**
    - Superior vesical
      - (Obliterated hypogastric)
    - Middle vesical
    - Inferior vesical
    - Middle hæmorrhoidal.

In the female the inferior vesical is replaced by a vaginal branch, and an additional branch, the uterine, is given off.

Branches of the Posterior Division.

The posterior terminal division gives off the ilio-lumbar and lateral sacral arteries, and is continued as the gluteal artery. No visceral branches are derived from this division.

1. **Ilio-lumbar Artery** (a. ilio-lumbalis).—This vessel runs upwards and outwards across the brim of the pelvis to the iliac fossa. It passes in front of the sacro-iliac articulation, between the lumbo-sacral cord and the obturator nerve, and behind either the lower part of the common or the upper part of the external iliac vessels and the psoas and iliacus muscles.

In the iliac fossa it anastomoses with branches of the deep circumflex iliac and obturator arteries. It also gives off offsets to the iliacus, and supplies a large nutrient branch to the ilium. A **lumbar branch** (ramus lumbalis) ascends behind the psoas to the crest of the ilium. It supplies the psoas and quadratus lumborum, and anastomoses with the lumbar and deep circumflex iliac arteries; it also gives off a *spinal branch* which enters the intervertebral foramen between the fifth lumbar vertebra and the sacrum, and is distributed like the spinal branches of the lumbar and aortic intercostal arteries.

2. **Lateral Sacral Arteries** (aa. sacrales laterales).—There is sometimes only a single lateral sacral artery on each side; more commonly there are two, superior and inferior.

Both branches run downwards and inwards on the front of the sacrum. The inferior passes in front of the pyriformis and the sacral nerves, and descends on the outer side of the sympathetic cord to the coccyx where it terminates by anastomosing with the middle sacral. The superior branch only reaches as far as the first or the second anterior sacral foramen, and then it enters the sacral canal. It anastomoses with the lower branch and with the middle sacral artery. Transverse branches are given off by the lateral sacral arteries to the pyriformis, and to the sacral nerves. Spinal offsets are also given off, which pass through the anterior sacral foramina to the sacral canal; they supply the membranes of the cord, the roots of the sacral nerves, and the filum terminale, and anastomose with other spinal arteries. They then pass backwards through the posterior sacral foramina, and anastomose on the back of the sacrum with branches of the gluteal and sciatic arteries.

3. **Gluteal Artery** (a. glutæa superior, Figs. 637 and 643).—After giving off the ilio-lumbar and lateral sacral branches, the posterior division of the internal iliac is continued as the gluteal artery. This is a large vessel which pierces the pelvic fascia, passes backwards between the lumbo-sacral cord and the first sacral nerve, and leaves the pelvis through the upper part of the great sciatic foramen. It runs above the pyriformis muscle to the buttock, immediately on reaching which it terminates, between the adjacent borders of the pyriformis and gluteus medius muscles and beneath the gluteus maximus, by dividing into superficial and deep branches.

(*a*) The **superficial branch** divides at once into numerous branches, some of which supply the gluteus maximus, whilst others pass through it, near its origin, to the overlying skin. The branches freely anastomose with branches of the sciatic, internal pudic, internal circumflex, deep circumflex iliac, and lateral sacral arteries.

(*b*) The **deep terminal branch**, accompanied by the superior gluteal nerve, runs forwards between the gluteus medius and minimus, and, after giving a nutrient branch to the ilium, subdivides into upper and lower branches. The *upper branch*, running forwards along the origin of the gluteus minimus from the middle curved line of the ilium, passes beyond the anterior margins of the gluteus medius and minimus to anastomose, under cover of the tensor fasciæ femoris, with the ascending branch of the external circumflex artery. It also anastomoses with the circumflex iliac artery, and it supplies muscular branches to the adjacent muscles. The *lower branch* passes more directly forwards, across the gluteus minimus, towards the trochanter major, along with the branch of the superior gluteal nerve which supplies the tensor fasciæ femoris. It supplies the glutei muscles, and anastomoses with the ascending branch of the external circumflex artery.

Before leaving the pelvis the gluteal artery gives **muscular branches to the pelvic**

ıragm and the obturator internus, small **neural branches** to the roots of the sacral ıs, and **nutrient branches** to the hip-bone.

Branches of the Anterior Division of the Internal Iliac Artery.

The anterior division gives off both parietal and visceral branches, and is inued as the hypogastric artery, which for the greater part of its extent is ɛerated. The parietal branches are the obturator, the pudic, and the sciatic. visceral branches include the superior, middle and inferior vesical, and the ıle hæmorrhoidal arteries in the male. Similar visceral branches are also n off in the female, but the inferior vesical is replaced by the vaginal artery, an additional branch, the uterine artery, is also given off.

Visceral Branches.

1. The **superior vesical artery** (a. vesicalis superior) arises from the anterior sion of the internal iliac. It divides into numerous branches which supply upper part of the bladder, anastomosing with the other vesical arteries, and it gives small branches to the urachus, and often to the lower part of the er. It may in addition give off the middle vesical artery, and not unuently the long slender artery to the vas deferens arises from one of its ıches.

2. **Obliterated Hypogastric Artery.**—Atrophy of that portion of the internal artery, which extends from the side of the bladder to the umbilicus (a. umbili-), has already been referred to. It is complete between the umbilicus and true origin of the superior vesical artery, but between this origin and the ırent ending of the internal iliac in its two divisions the atrophy is incomplete, the lumen of the vessel, though greatly diminished in size, remains, and is ed upon as the first part of the superior vesical artery. Strictly speaking, the of these two parts only constitutes the "obliterated hypogastric" (ligamentum ilicale laterale). It is a fibrous cord which runs forwards and upwards ırds the apex of the bladder, whence it ascends on the posterior surface of ınterior abdominal wall and on the outer side of the urachus to the umbilicus. t passes along the wall of the pelvis it is under cover of the peritoneum, and it ɔssed by the vas deferens in the male, and by the round ligament in the female.

3. The **middle vesical artery** is usually given off behind the superior vesical. distributed to the posterior surface of the bladder as low down as the base; to the vesiculæ seminales.

4. The **inferior vesical artery** (a. vesicalis inferior) is a very constant branch ch runs inwards upon the upper surface of the levator ani to the base of the der. It also gives branches to the seminal vesicles, the vas deferens, the lower of the ureter and the prostate, and it anastomoses with its fellow of the site side, with the other vesical arteries, and with the middle hæmorrhoidal y.

The **artery to the vas** (a. deferentialis), which not unfrequently arises from the rior vesical, is a long slender vessel which runs downwards to the vas and ula seminales, and is then continued with the vas deferens to the testicle, e it anastomoses with the spermatic artery. It also anastomoses with the ıasteric branch of the deep epigastric artery.

5. The **middle hæmorrhoidal artery** (a. hæmorrhoidalis media) is an irregular ch which arises either directly from the anterior division of the internal iliac or the inferior vesical branch; more rarely it springs from the internal pudic y. It runs inwards, and is distributed to the muscular coats of the rectum; ıo gives branches to the prostate, the seminal vesicle, and the vas deferens, and it tomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the inferior vesical, and with superior and inferior hæmorrhoidal arteries.

6. The **vaginal artery** (a. vaginalis) in the female usually corresponds to nferior vesical in the male; in which case it arises from the anterior division ıe internal iliac, either independently ımon with the uterine artery.

Occasionally both inferior vesical and uterine vessels are present, and not uncommonly the vaginal artery is represented by several branches.

The vaginal arteries run downwards and inwards on the floor of the pelvis to the sides of the vagina, and divide into numerous branches which ramify on its anterior and posterior walls. The corresponding branches of opposite sides anastomose and form anterior and posterior longitudinal vessels, the so-called azygos arteries. They also anastomose above with the cervical branches of the uterine artery, and below with the perineal branches of the internal pudic. In addition to supplying the vagina, small branches are given to the bulb of the vestibule, to the base of the bladder, and to the rectum.

7. The **uterine artery** (a. uterina) arises from the anterior division of the internal iliac, either separately or in common with the vaginal or middle hæmorrhoidal arteries. It runs inwards and slightly forwards, upon the upper surface of the levator ani, to the lower border of the broad ligament, between the two layers of which it passes inwards, and arches above the ureter about three-quarters of an inch from the uterus. It passes above the lateral fornix of the vagina to the side of the neck of the uterus, and is then directed upwards, until it almost reaches the fundus, just below which, however, it turns outwards beneath the isthmus of the Fallopian tube and anastomoses with the ovarian artery. It supplies the uterus, the upper part of the vagina, the inner part of the Fallopian tube, and gives branches to the round ligament of the uterus. It anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, and with the vaginal, the ovarian, and the deep epigastric arteries.

Parietal Branches of the Anterior Division of the Internal Iliac.

1. The **obturator artery** (a. obturatoria, Figs. 637 and 640) runs forwards and downwards along the lateral wall of the true pelvis, just below its brim, to the obturator foramen, through the upper part of which it passes. It terminates immediately on entering the thigh by dividing into internal and external terminal branches, which skirt round the margin of the obturator foramen beneath the obturator externus muscle. It is accompanied in the whole of its course by the obturator nerve and vein, the former being above it and the latter below.

To its outer side is the pelvic fascia, which intervenes between it and the upper part of the obturator internus muscle, whilst on its inner side it is covered by peritoneum; between the peritoneum and the artery is the ureter. When the bladder is distended it also comes into close relation with the anterior part of the artery. In the female the ovarian vessels and the broad ligament are on the inner side of the obturator artery.

Branches.—All the branches except the terminal are given off before the artery leaves the pelvis. They include:—(*a*) **Muscular branches** to the obturator internus, levator ani and ilio-psoas muscles. (*b*) A **nutrient branch** to the ilium, which passes beneath the ilio-psoas muscle, supplies the bone, and anastomoses with the ilio-lumbar artery. (*c*) A **vesical branch**, or branches, pass inwards to the bladder beneath the lateral false ligament. (*d*) A **pubic branch** (ramus pubicus), which ascends on the back of the pubes, and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side and with the pubic branch of the deep epigastric, is given off just before the artery leaves the pelvis. In its upward course it may pass either on the outer or inner side of the external iliac vein, whilst not unfrequently it runs on the inner side of the crural ring. In the latter case it is important in relation to femoral hernia; and this importance is emphasised when, as sometimes happens, the obturator artery arises as an enlarged pubic branch of the deep epigastric artery instead of from the internal iliac. (*e*) **Terminal.**—The *internal terminal branch* (ramus anterior) runs forwards, and the *external* (ramus posterior) backwards round the margin of the obturator foramen. They lie on the obturator membrane, and under cover of the obturator externus. They anastomose together at the lower margin of the foramen, and both give off offsets which anastomose with the internal circumflex artery, and twigs of supply to the adjacent muscles. The external branch also gives an acetabular branch to the hip-joint, which passes upwards, through the cotyloid notch on the inner side of the transverse ligament, to supply the ligamentum *teres* and the head of the femur.

2. **Internal Pudic Artery** (a. pudenda interna, Figs. 637 and 638).—The internal pudic artery arises from the anterior division of the internal iliac close to the origin of the sciatic artery, which slightly exceeds it in size. It runs downwards and backwards in front of the pyriformis muscle and the sacral plexus, from both of which it is separated by the pelvic fascia, and on the outer side of the rectum to the lower part of the great sciatic foramen. In this course it pierces the pelvic fascia, passes between the pyriformis and coccygeus muscles, and leaves the pelvis to enter the buttock in company with the corresponding veins, the sciatic vessels and nerves, the pudic nerve, and the nerve to the obturator internus. In the buttock it lies, under cover of the gluteus maximus, on the spine of the ischium, between the pudic nerve and the nerve to the obturator internus, the former being internal to it. It next passes through the small sciatic foramen

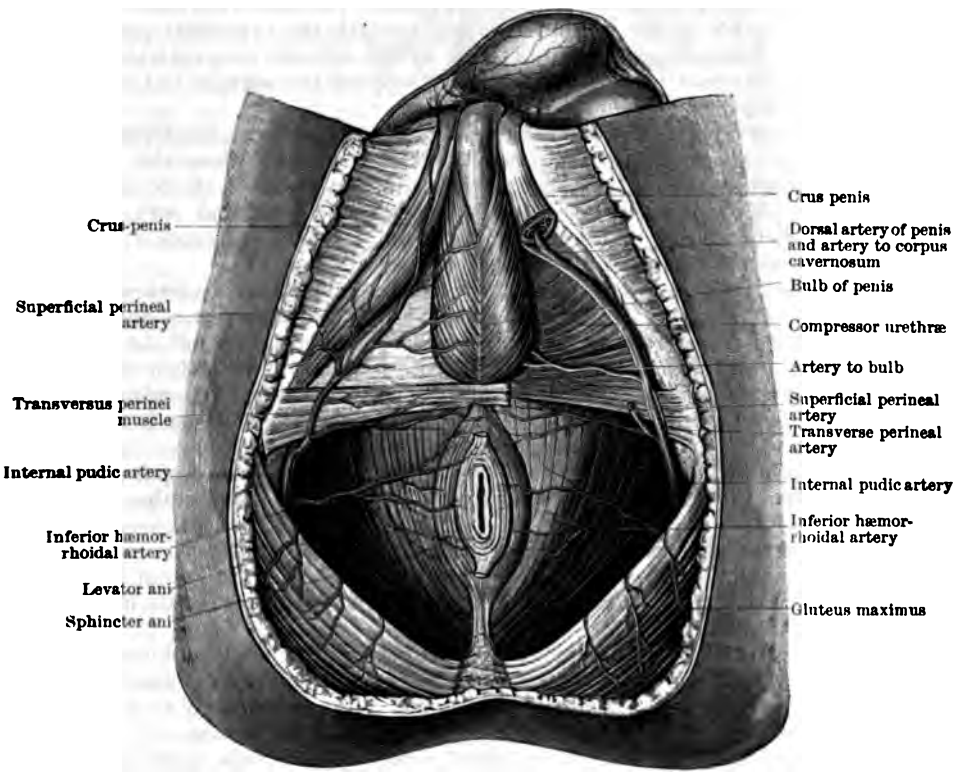


FIG. 638.—THE PERINEAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE INTERNAL PUDIC ARTERY IN THE MALE.

and enters the perineum, in the anterior part of which it terminates by dividing into the artery of the corpus cavernosum and the dorsal artery of the penis.

In the first part of its course in the perineum the artery lies in the outer fascial wall of the ischio-rectal fossa, where it is enclosed in the space known as Alcock's canal. This, which is situated about one and a half inches above the lower margin of the tuberosity of the ischium, contains also the pudic veins and the terminal parts of the pudic nerve, viz. the dorsal nerve of the penis which lies above the artery, and the perineal division which lies below the vessel. From the ischio-rectal fossa the internal pudic is continued forwards between the two layers of the triangular ligament of the urethra, and close to the ramus of the pubis. About half-an-inch below the subpubic ligament it turns somewhat abruptly forwards, pierces the anterior layer of the triangular ligament, and immediately divides into its terminal branches, viz. the artery of the corpus cavernosum and the dorsal artery of the penis. The division sometimes takes place whilst the artery is still between the layers of the triangular ligament.

Branches.—*In the pelvis* it gives small branches to the neighbouring muscles and to the roots of the sacral plexus.

In the buttock.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** are given to the adjacent muscles. (*b*) **Anastomotic branches** unite with branches of the gluteal, sciatic and internal circumflex arteries.

In the ischio-rectal fossa.—(*c*) The **inferior hæmorrhoidal artery** (a. hæmorrhoidalis inferior) pierces the inner wall of Alcock's canal, and runs obliquely forwards and inwards. It soon divides into two or three main branches, which, sometimes arising separately, pass across the space to the anal passage. The artery anastomoses in the walls of the anal passage with its fellow of the opposite side, and with the middle and superior hæmorrhoidal arteries; it also anastomoses with the transverse perineal arteries, and it supplies cutaneous twigs to the region of the anus, and others which turn round the lower border of the gluteus maximus to supply the lower part of the buttock.

(*d*) The **superficial perineal artery** (a. perinei) arises in the anterior part of the ischio-rectal fossa, pierces the base of the triangular ligament, and divides into long slender branches (aa. scrotales posteriores in the male, labiales posteriores in the female) which are continued forwards in the urethral triangle, beneath the superficial perineal fascia, to the scrotum. It anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the transverse perineal and the external pudic arteries, and it supplies the muscles and subcutaneous structures of the urethral triangle.

(*e*) The **transverse perineal artery** is a small branch which arises either from the internal pudic or from its superficial perineal branch. It runs inwards along the base of the triangular ligament to the central point of the perineum, where it anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the superficial perineal branch, and with the inferior hæmorrhoidal arteries. It supplies the sphincter ani, the bulbo-cavernosus or sphincter vaginæ, and the anterior fibres of the levator ani.

In the urethral triangle.—(*f*) The **artery to the bulb** (a. bulbi urethræ), a branch which is usually of relatively large size, is given off between the layers of the triangular ligament. It runs transversely inwards along the posterior border of the compressor urethræ, and then turning forwards a short distance from the outer side of the urethra, it pierces the anterior layer of the triangular ligament and enters the substance of the bulb. It passes onwards in the corpus spongiosum to the glans, where it anastomoses with its fellow and with the dorsal arteries of the penis.

It supplies the compressor urethræ muscle, Cowper's gland, the corpus spongiosum, and the penile part of the urethra. In the female this artery supplies the bulb of the vestibule.

(*g*) The **artery of the corpus cavernosum** (a. profunda penis in the male; a. profunda clitoridis in the female) is usually the larger of the two terminal branches. Immediately after its origin it enters the crus penis, and runs forwards in the corpus cavernosum, which it supplies.

(*h*) The **dorsal artery of the penis** (a. dorsalis penis in the male; a. dorsalis clitoridis in the female) passes forwards between the layers of the suspensory ligament, and runs along the dorsal surface of the penis with the dorsal nerve immediately to its outer side, whilst it is separated from its fellow of the opposite side by the median deep dorsal vein. It supplies the superficial tissues on the dorsal aspect of the penis, sends branches into the corpus cavernosum to anastomose with the artery to the corpus cavernosum, and its terminal branches enter the glans penis, where they anastomose with the arteries to the bulb. It also anastomoses with the external pudic branches of the femoral.

3. **Sciatic Artery** (a. glutæa inferior, Figs. 637 and 639).—The sciatic artery arises, usually distinct from the pudic artery, but sometimes in common with it, from the anterior division of the internal iliac. It descends a little behind and external to the pudic vessels, pierces the pelvic fascia, runs backwards between the first and second, or second and third sacral nerves, and passing between the pyriformis and coccygeus muscles, leaves the pelvis through the lower part of the great sciatic foramen, and enters the buttock just below the pyriformis. In the buttock it descends behind and to the inner side of the great sciatic nerve beneath the gluteus maximus, and behind the obturator internus, the two gemelli, the quadratus femoris, and upper part of the adductor magnus muscles, to the upper part of the thigh.

Below the lower border of the gluteus maximus the artery is comparatively superficial, and having given off its largest branches, it descends as a long slender vessel with the small sciatic nerve.

Branches.—*In the pelvis.*—Small and irregular branches supply the adjacent viscera

nuscles and the sacral nerves; they anastomose with branches of the internal pudic ateral sacral arteries.

n the buttock.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** are given off to the muscles of the buttock to the upper of the hamstring les. They an- ıose with the ', internal cir- lex, and obtur- ırteries. (*b*) The **ygeal branch** ı immediately the artery leaves ɔelvis. It runs ɔds, pierces the t sacro-sciatic nent and the us maximus, and in the soft tissues the back of the part of the m and of the yx. It gives al branches to luteus maximus, nastomoses with ches of the gluteal lateral sacral ies. (*c*) An **an- motic branch** s transversely ards, over or the great sciatic , towards the trochanter of emur. It anas- ses with branches e gluteal, pudic, ıal and external mflex, and the perforating ies, taking part ıe formation of ɔ-called "crucial tomosis." (*d*) **ıeous branches**, ıpanying twigs ıe small sciatic , pass round the border of the eus maximus le to the integu- . (*e*) The **comes ischiatici** (a. ans n. ischiadici) long slender h which runs on the surface,

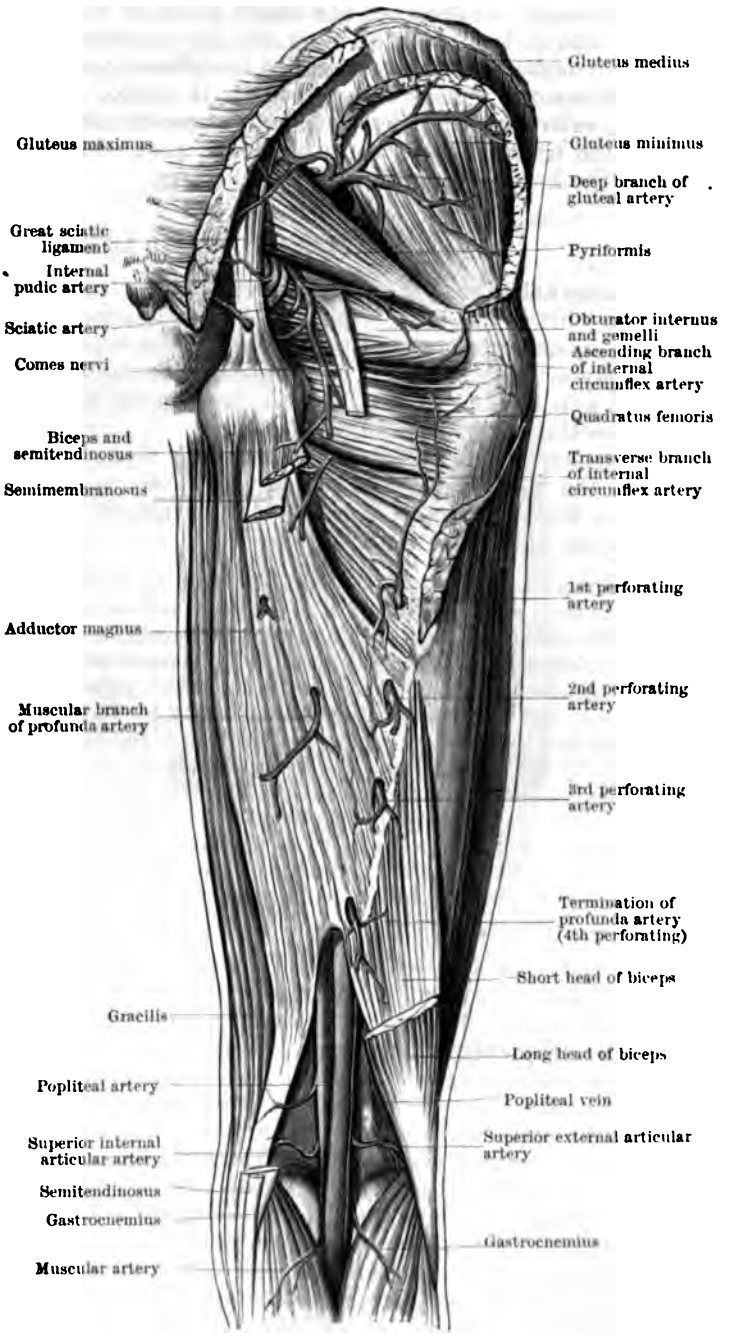


FIG. 639.—THE ARTERIES OF THE BUTTOCK AND THE BACK OF THE THIGH AND KNEE.

the substance of the great sciatic nerve. It supplies the nerve, and anastomoses ;he perforating arteries and with the termination of the profunda.

ARTERIES OF THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

The main artery of each lower limb is continued from the corresponding common iliac artery. It descends as a single trunk as far as the lower border of the popliteus, and ends there by dividing into the anterior and posterior tibial arteries. Distinctive names are, however, applied to different parts of the artery, corresponding to the several regions through which it passes. Thus in the abdomen it is called the **external iliac artery**, in the upper two-thirds of the thigh it receives the name of the **femoral artery**, whilst its lower part, which is situated on the flexor aspect of the knee, is termed the **popliteal artery**.

THE EXTERNAL ILIAC ARTERY.

The **external iliac artery** (a. iliaca externa) extends from a point opposite the sacro-iliac joint at the level of the lumbo-sacral articulation to a point beneath Poupart's ligament, midway between the anterior superior spine of the ilium and the symphysis pubis, where it becomes the femoral artery. Its length is about three and a half inches (87 to 100 mm.), and in the adult it is usually somewhat larger than the internal iliac artery.

It runs downwards, outwards, and forwards along the brim of the pelvis, resting upon the iliac fascia, which separates it above from the inner border, and below from the anterior surface of the psoas muscle, and it is enclosed with its accompanying vein in a thin fascial sheath.

Relations.—*Anterior.*—It is covered in front by peritoneum, which separates it on the left side from the pelvic colon, iliac colon, and coils of small intestine, and on the right side from the terminal portion of the ileum, and sometimes from the vermiform appendix. The ureter, descending behind the peritoneum, sometimes crosses the front of the artery near its origin, and in the female the ovarian vessels cross the upper part of the artery. Near its lower end the artery is crossed anteriorly by the genital branch of the genito-crural nerve and by the deep circumflex iliac vein. In the male this part of the artery is also crossed by the vas deferens, and in the female by the round ligament of the uterus. Several iliac lymphatic glands lie in front and at the sides of the external iliac artery, and almost invariably one of these is directly in front of its termination.

Posterior.—The iliac fascia and psoas muscle lie behind the artery. Near its upper end the obturator nerve is also posterior to the vessel.

Lateral.—Externally is the genito-crural nerve; internally, and on a somewhat posterior plane, is the external iliac vein.

Branches.—In addition to small branches to the psoas muscle and to the lymphatic glands, two named branches of considerable size spring from the external iliac artery, viz. the deep epigastric and the deep circumflex iliac.

(1) The **deep epigastric artery** (a. epigastrica inferior, Figs. 637 and 640) arises immediately above Poupart's ligament from the front of the external iliac. Curving forward from its origin it lies in the extra-peritoneal fat, it turns round the lower border of the peritoneal sac, and runs upwards and inwards along the inner side of the internal abdominal ring and along the outer border of Hesselbach's triangle; it then pierces the transversalis fascia, passes over the semilunar fold of Douglas and enters the sheath of the rectus abdominis. For a short distance it ascends behind the rectus, but it soon penetrates the substance of the muscle, and breaks up into branches which anastomose with terminal offsets of the superior epigastric branch of the internal mammary artery and with the lower intercostal arteries. At the internal abdominal ring in the male the vas deferens, the spermatic vessels, and the genital branch of the genito-crural nerve hook round the front and outer side of the artery, the vas deferens turning inwards behind it; whilst in the female the round ligament of the uterus and the genital branch of the genito-crural nerve occupy the corresponding positions.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** which spring mainly from the outer side of the artery supply the rectus, the pyramidalis, the transversalis, and the oblique muscles of the abdominal wall, and anastomose with branches of the deep circumflex iliac, the

lumbar, and the lower intercostal arteries. (*b*) **Cutaneous branches** which pass from the front of the deep epigastric pierce the rectus abdominis and the front part of its sheath, and terminate in the subcutaneous tissues of the anterior abdominal wall, where they anastomose with corresponding branches of the opposite side and with branches of the superficial epigastric artery. (*c*) The **cremasteric branch** (a. spermatica externa in the male, a. ligamenti teretis uteri in the female) is small. It descends through the inguinal canal and anastomoses with the external pudic and superficial perineal arteries, and in the male with the spermatic artery also. In the male it accompanies the spermatic cord, supplying its coverings, including the cremaster. In the female it runs with the round

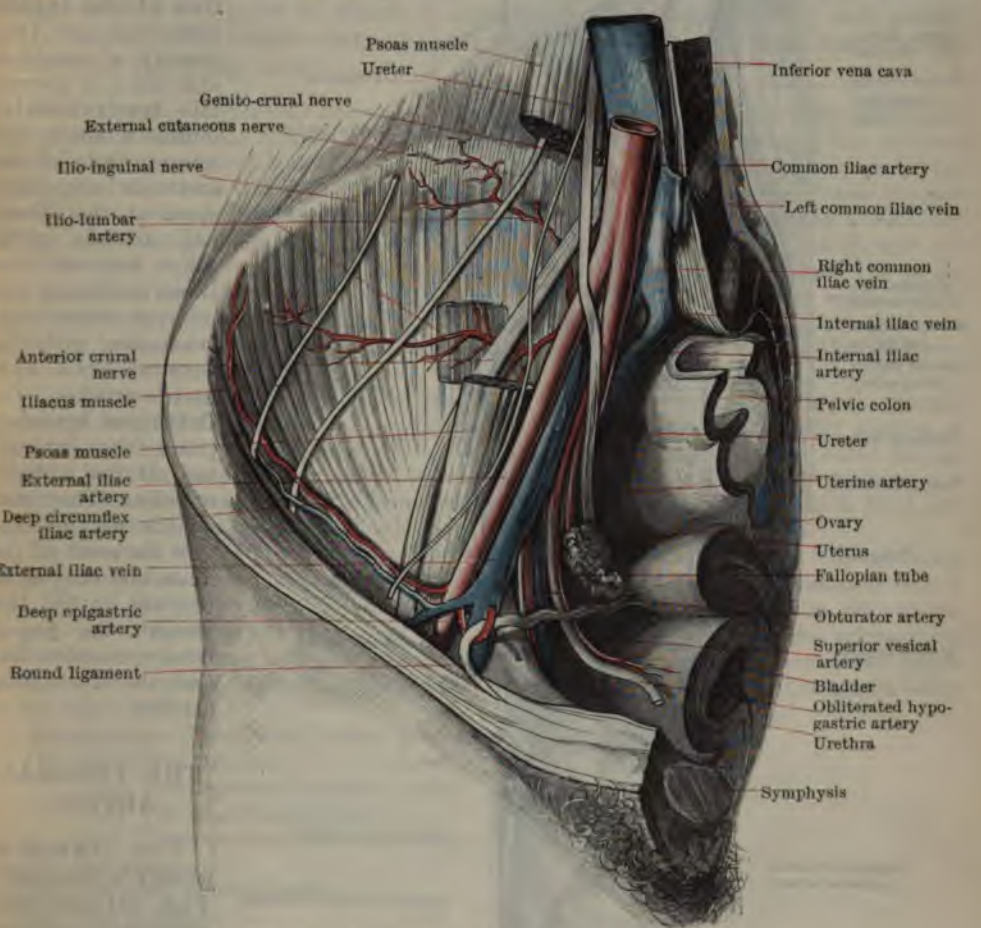


FIG. 640.—THE ILIAC ARTERIES AND VEINS IN THE FEMALE.

ligament. (*d*) The **pubic branch** (ramus pubicus) descends either on the outer or the inner side of the crural ring to anastomose with the pubic branch of the obturator artery; it also anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side. Sometimes when the obturator branch of the internal iliac artery is absent, the pubic branch of the deep epigastric artery enlarges and becomes the obturator artery, which descends to the obturator foramen either on the outer or the inner side of the crural ring. In the latter case the artery may be injured in the operation for the relief of a strangulated femoral hernia.

(2) The **deep circumflex iliac artery** (a. circumflexa ilium profunda, Figs. 637 and 640) springs from the outer side of the external iliac artery, usually a little below the deep epigastric, and immediately above Poupart's ligament. It runs outwards and upwards to the anterior superior spine of the ilium. In this part of its course it lies just above the lower border of Poupart's ligament, and is enclosed in a fibrous canal formed by the union of the transversalis and iliac fasciæ. A little beyond the anterior superior spine it pierces the transversalis abdominis, and

is continued backwards between the transversalis and the internal oblique, to terminate by anastomosing with branches of the ilio-lumbar artery.

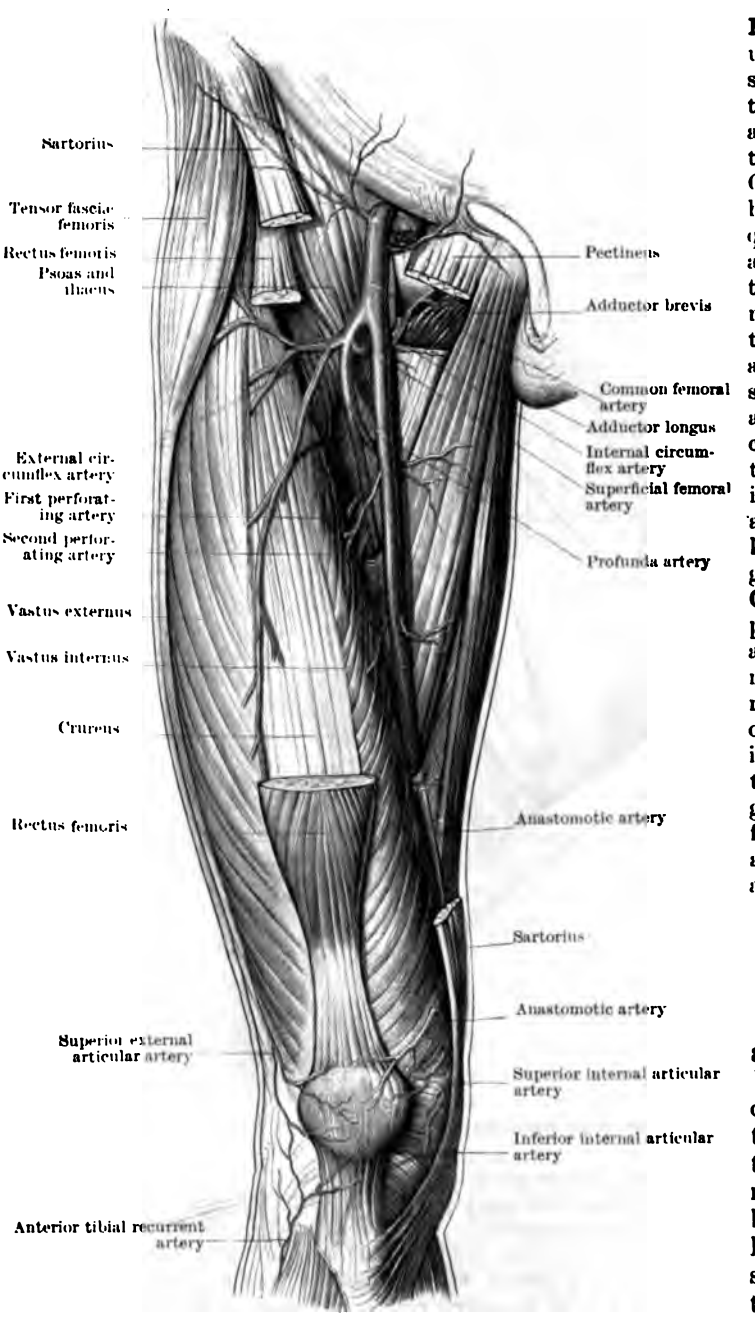


FIG. 641.—THE FEMORAL ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES.

Branches. — (*a*) **Muscular** to the upper parts of the sartorius and the tensor fasciæ femoris, and to the muscles of the abdominal wall. One of the latter branches is frequently of considerable size; it pierces the transversalis muscle a short distance in front of the anterior superior spine of the ilium, and ascends vertically between the transversalis and the internal oblique, anastomosing with the lumbar and epigastric arteries. (*b*) **Cutaneous branches** pierce the internal and external oblique muscles. They terminate in the skin over the crest of the ilium, and they anastomose with the gluteal, the superficial circumflex iliac and the ilio-lumbar arteries.

THE FEMORAL ARTERY.

The **femoral artery** (a. femoralis. Figs. 641 and 642) continues the external iliac into the thigh. It commences at the lower border of Poupart's ligament, and, descending through the upper two-thirds of the thigh, terminates at the opening in the adductor magnus. At one time it was customary to speak of the first one and a half inches, as far as the origin of the profunda branch, as the common femoral, and to say that it divided into the superficial and deep femoral branches, of which the former was the direct continuation of the common trunk. The morphology and development of the vessel gives no support for such terminology, and it should be discontinued.

Course.—Its general direction is indicated by a line drawn from the point of

origin midway between the anterior superior spine of the ilium and the symphysis pubis to the adductor tubercle, the thigh being flexed and rotated outwards.

In its upper half the femoral artery lies in Scarpa's triangle, and is comparatively superficial; at the apex of the triangle it passes beneath the sartorius, enters Hunter's canal, and is thus more deeply placed.

At its entry into Scarpa's triangle both the artery and its vein are enclosed, for a distance of one and a quarter inches, in a funnel-shaped fascial sheath formed of the fascia transversalis in front and the iliac fascia behind. This is called the **femoral sheath**; it is divided by septa, running from front to back, into three compartments, the outer of which is occupied by the femoral artery and genito-crural nerve. The middle contains the femoral vein, and the internal compartment constitutes the crural canal.

Relations.—In *Scarpa's triangle* the femoral artery is covered by skin and fascia, by superficial inguinal lymphatic glands and small superficial vessels. The anterior part of the femoral sheath and the cribriform fascia are in front of the upper part of the artery, and the fascia lata is in front of the lower part. Near the apex of the triangle the artery is crossed by the internal cutaneous nerve, and not infrequently by a tributary of the internal saphenous vein. Behind, it is in relation, from above downwards, with the posterior part of the femoral sheath, the pubic portion of the fascia lata and the psoas, the pectineus, and the upper part of the adductor longus muscles. The nerve to the pectineus passes between the artery and the psoas; the femoral vein and the profunda artery and vein intervene between it and the pectineus, and the femoral vein also separates it from the adductor longus.

The femoral vein which lies behind the artery in the lower part of Scarpa's triangle passes to its inner side above, but is separated from the artery by the outer septum of the femoral sheath. On the outer side of the artery is the anterior crural nerve above; lower down the internal saphenous nerve and the nerve to the vastus internus are continued on the outer side. The crural branch of the genito-crural nerve is in front and to the outer side above, and runs for a short distance in the femoral sheath.

In *Hunter's canal* the artery has behind it the adductor longus and the adductor magnus, whilst in front and to the outer side is the vastus internus. The femoral vein is also behind the artery, but lies to its outer side below and to its inner side above. Superficial to the artery is the fascial roof of the canal, upon which is the sub-sartorial plexus of nerves and the sartorius muscle. The internal or long saphenous nerve enters Hunter's canal with the artery, and runs first on its outer side, then in front, and lastly on its inner side.

Branches.—The femoral artery gives off the following branches:—

(1) Superficial branches.
  (*a*) The superficial external pudic.
  (*b*) The superficial epigastric.
  (*c*) The superficial circumflex iliac.
(2) Muscular.
(3) The deep external pudic.
(4) The profunda.
(5) The anastomotica magna.

(*a*) The **superficial circumflex iliac** (a. circumflexa ilium superficialis) springs from the front of the femoral artery just below Poupart's ligament. It pierces the femoral sheath and the fascia lata, external to the saphenous opening, and runs in the superficial fascia as far as the anterior superior spine of the ilium. It supplies the outer set of inguinal glands and the skin of the groin, and it sends branches through the fascia lata which anastomose with the deep circumflex iliac and supply the upper parts of the sartorius and tensor fasciæ femoris muscles.

(*b*) The **superficial epigastric artery** (a. epigastrica superficialis) arises near the preceding. It pierces the femoral sheath and the cribriform fascia, and passes upwards and inwards between the superficial and deep layers of the superficial fascia of the abdominal wall towards the umbilicus. It supplies the inguinal glands and the integument, and anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, with the deep epigastric, and with the superficial circumflex iliac and superficial external pudic arteries.

(*c*) **The superficial external pudic artery** (a. pudenda externa superficialis) also

springs from the front of the femoral artery, and, after piercing the femoral sheath and the cribriform fascia, runs upwards and inwards towards the spine of the pubis, where it crosses superficial to the spermatic cord. It supplies the integument of the lower part of the abdominal wall, the root of the dorsum of the penis in the male, and the region of the mons Veneris in the female, and it anastomoses with its fellow of the opposite side, the deep external pudic, the dorsal artery of the penis, and the superficial epigastric arteries.

(2) **Muscular branches** are distributed to the pectineus and the adductor

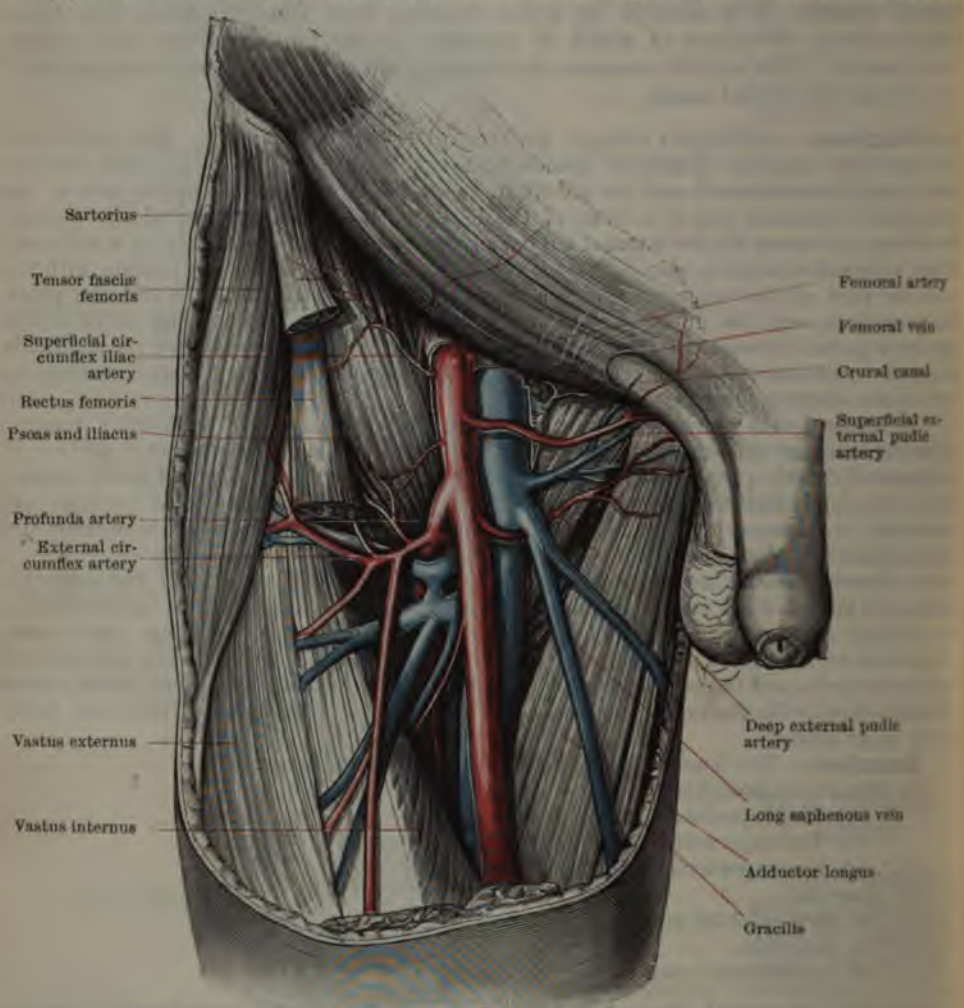


FIG. 642.—THE FEMORAL VESSELS IN SCARPA'S TRIANGLE.

muscles on the inner side, and to the sartorius and the vastus internus on the outer side.

(3) The **deep external pudic artery** (a. pudenda externa profunda) rises from the inner side of the femoral. It runs inwards, across the front of the pectineus, and in front of or behind the adductor longus, to the inner side of the thigh; it then pierces the deep fascia, and terminates in the scrotum, where it anastomoses with the superficial perineal and superficial external pudic arteries, and with the cremasteric branch of the deep epigastric artery.

(4) The **profunda artery** (a. profunda femoris, Fig. 640) is the largest branch of the femoral artery. It arises about an inch and a half below Poupart's ligament, from the outer side of the femoral artery. Curving backwards and inwards, it *passes behind* the latter vessel, and runs downwards, close to the inner aspect of

he femur, to the lower third of the thigh, where it perforates the adductor magnus nd passes to the back of the thigh. Its termination is known as the fourth erforating artery. As the profunda descends it lies in front of the iliacus, the ectineus, the adductor brevis, and the adductor magnus. It is separated from he femoral artery by its own vein, by the femoral vein, and by the adductor longus nuscle behind which it passes.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** are given off from the profunda both in Scarpa's riangle, and whilst it lies between the adductor muscles; many of them terminate in the dductors, others pass through the adductor magnus, and terminate in the hamstrings, where they anastomose with the transverse branch of the internal circumflex and with the upper muscular branches of the popliteal artery.

(*b*) The **external circumflex artery** (a. circumflexa femoris lateralis, Figs. 641 and 642) springs from the outer side of the profunda, or occasionally from the femoral artery above the origin of the profunda. It runs outwards across the front of the iliacus, and between the superficial and deep branches of the anterior crural nerve, to the outer border of Scarpa's triangle; then, passing behind the sartorius and the rectus femoris, it terminates by dividing into three terminal branches—the ascending, the transverse, and the descending. Before its termination it supplies branches to the muscles mentioned and to the upper part of the crureus.

(1.) The **ascending terminal branch** (ramus ascendens) runs upwards and outwards, behind the rectus femoris and the tensor fasciæ femoris, along the anterior intertrochanteric line, to the anterior borders of the gluteus medius and minimus, between which it passes to anastomose with the deep branches of the gluteal artery. It supplies twigs to the neighbouring muscles, anastomoses with the gluteal, the deep circumflex iliac, and the transverse branch of the external circumflex arteries, and, as it ascends along the anterior intertrochanteric line, gives off a branch which passes between the two limbs of the Y-shaped ligament into the hip-joint. (ii.) The **transverse terminal branch** is small; it runs outwards between the crureus and the rectus femoris, passes into the substance of the vastus externus, winds round the femur, and anastomoses with the ascending and descending branches, with the perforating branches of the profunda, and with the sciatic and internal circumflex arteries. (iii.) The **descending terminal branch** (ramus descendens) runs downwards behind the rectus and along the anterior border of the vastus externus accompanied by the nerve to the latter muscle. It anastomoses with the transverse branch, with twigs of the inferior perforating arteries, with the anastomotic branch of the femoral, and with the superior external articular branch of the popliteal artery.

(*c*) The **internal circumflex artery** (a. circumflexa femoris medialis, Fig. 641) springs from the inner and back part of the profunda, at the same level as the external circumflex, and runs backwards, through the floor of Scarpa's triangle, passing between the psoas and the pectineus; crossing the upper border of the adductor brevis it is continued backwards beneath the neck of the femur, and passes between the adjacent borders of the obturator externus and the adductor brevis to the upper border of the adductor magnus, where it divides into two terminal branches, a transverse and an ascending.

Branches.—(i.) An **articular branch** (ramus acetabuli) is given off as the artery passes beneath the neck of the femur. It ascends to the cotyloid notch where it anastomoses with twigs from the posterior branch of the obturator artery, and it sends branches into the cotyloid cavity and along the ligamentum teres to the head of the femur. (ii.) **Muscular branches are** given off to the neighbouring muscles. The largest of these branches usually rises immediately before the termination of the artery, it descends on the anterior aspect of the adductor magnus and anastomoses with the muscular branches of the profunda artery. (iii.) The **ascending terminal branch** (ramus profundus) passes upwards and outwards, between the obturator externus and the quadratus femoris to the digital fossa of the femur, where it anastomoses with branches of the gluteal and the sciatic arteries. (iv.) The **transverse terminal branch** (ramus superficialis) runs backwards between the lower border of the quadratus femoris and the upper border of the adductor magnus to the hamstring muscles. It anastomoses in front of the lower part of the gluteus maximus with the sciatic and first perforating arteries and with the transverse branch of the external circumflex, and in the substance of the hamstrings with the muscular branches of the profunda.

(*d*) The **perforating arteries** (Fig. 643), including the terminal branch of the profunda, are four in number. They curve backwards and outwards round the posterior aspect of the femur, lying close to the bone, in front of well-marked tendinous arches, which interrupt the continuity of muscular attachments; their terminal branches enter the vastus externus and anastomose in its substance with each other, with the descending branch of the external circumflex, with the anastomotic, and with the superior external articular branch of the popliteal.

The **first perforating artery** (a. perforans prima) pierces the insertions of the adductors brevis and magnus, and some of its branches anastomose in front of the gluteus maximus with the sciatic, with the transverse branch of the internal circumflex, and with the transverse branch of the external circumflex, forming what is known as the crucial anastomosis.

The **second perforating artery** (a. perforans secunda) pierces the adductors brevis and magnus, and then passes between the gluteus maximus and the short head of the biceps into the vastus externus. It anastomoses with its fellows above and below, and with the internal circumflex and the upper muscular branches of the popliteal artery.

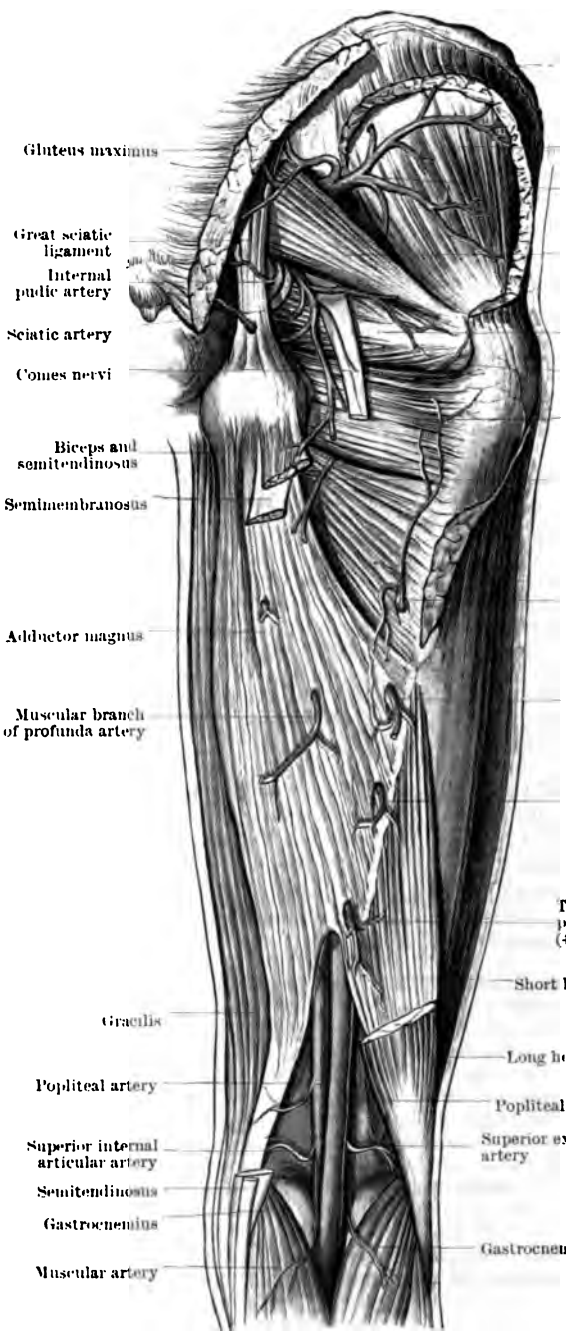


FIG. 643.—THE ARTERIES OF THE BUTTOCK AND THE BACK OF THE THIGH AND KNEE.

The **third** (a. perforans tertia) and **fourth perforating arteries** pass through the adductor magnus and the short head of the biceps into the vastus externus. Their anastomoses are similar to those of the second perforating.

A **nutrient branch** (a. nutricia femoris) to the femur is given off either from the second or third perforating artery, usually the former; an additional nutrient branch may also be supplied by the first or fourth perforating arteries.

(5) The **anastomotic** (a. genu suprema) arises near the termination of the femoral artery in the lower part of Hunter's canal, and divides almost immediately into a superficial and a deep branch; indeed, very frequently the two branches arise separately from the femoral trunk.

(*a*) The **superficial branch** (ramus saphenus) passes through the lower end of Hunter's canal with the long saphenous nerve, and appears superficially on the inner side of the knee between the gracilis and the sartorius. It gives twigs to the integument of the upper and inner part of the leg, and it anastomoses with the inferior internal articular artery. (*b*) The **deep branch** (ramus musculo-articularis) descends in the substance of the vastus internus *along* the anterior aspect of the tendon of the adductor magnus. It anastomoses with

he superior internal articular artery, and it sends branches outwards, one on the surface f the femur and another along the upper border of the patella, to anastomose with the escending branch of the external circumflex, the inferior perforating artery, the superior xternal articular, and the anterior tibial recurrent.

THE POPLITEAL ARTERY.

The **popliteal artery** (a. poplitea) is the direct continuation of the femoral. It ommences at the upper and inner part of the popliteal space, under cover of the emimembranosus, and terminates at the lower border of the popliteus muscle, and n a level with the lower part of the tubercle of the tibia, by dividing into the nterior and the posterior tibial arteries.

From its origin the artery descends, with an outward inclination, to the interpace between the condyles of the femur, whence it is continued vertically downards to its termination.

Relations.—*Anterior.*—It is in contact in front and from above downwards with the opliteal surface of the femur, the posterior ligament of the knee-joint, and the fascia overing the posterior surface of the popliteus.

Posterior.—The artery is overlapped behind by the outer border of the semiembranosus above; it is crossed about its middle by the popliteal vein and the internal opliteal nerve, the vein intervening between the artery and the nerve; whilst in the wer part of its extent it is overlapped by the adjacent borders of the two heads of the astrocnemius, and is crossed by the nerves to the soleus and popliteus and by the antaris muscle.

Lateral.—On its outer side it is in relation above with the internal popliteal nerve and e popliteal vein, then with the outer condyle of the femur, and below with the outer ead of the gastrocnemius and with the plantaris.

On the inner side it is in relation above with the semimembranosus, in the middle ith the inner condyle of the femur, and below with the internal popliteal nerve, the opliteal vein, and the internal head of the gastrocnemius. Popliteal lymphatic glands re arranged irregularly around the artery.

Branches.—(1) **Muscular branches** are given off in two sets, upper and lower.

The upper muscular branches are distributed to the lower parts of the hamstring nuscles, in which they anastomose with branches of the profunda artery.

The lower muscular, or sural, arteries (aa. surales) enter the upper parts of the gastronemius, the plantaris, the soleus, and the popliteus muscles, and they anastomose with branches of the posterior tibial artery and the lower articular arteries.

(2) The **articular branches** are five in number—viz. upper and lower external, upper nd lower internal, and an azygos branch.

(*a*) The **superior external articular artery** (a. genu superior lateralis) passes outwards bove the external condyle, behind the femur and in front of the biceps tendon, into the astus externus, where it anastomoses with the anastomotic, the descending branch of the xternal circumflex, and the lowest perforating artery; it also sends branches downwards o anastomose with the inferior external articular and with the anterior tibial recurrent.

(*b*) The **superior internal articular artery** (a. genu superior medialis) passes inwards bove the internal condyle, behind the femur, and in front of the tendon of the adductor agnus, into the vastus internus. It anastomoses with branches of the anastomotic and the superior external articular artery.

(*c*) The **inferior external articular artery** (a. genu inferior lateralis) runs outwards ross the popliteus muscle and in front of the plantaris and the external head of the astrocnemius; then turning forwards, it is joined by the inferior external articular nerve, nd passes to the inner side of the external lateral ligament. It terminates by anastoosing with its fellow of the opposite side and with the superior external articular and nterior tibial recurrent arteries.

(*d*) The **inferior internal articular artery** (a. genu inferior medialis) passes inwards elow the inner tuberosity of the tibia, along the upper border of the popliteus and in ont of the internal head of the gastrocnemius, to the inner side of the knee, where it rns forwards between the bone and the internal lateral ligament, and terminates nteriorly by anastomosing with its fellow of the opposite side, with the recurrent branch the anterior tibial artery, and with the superior internal articular artery.

(*e*) The **azygos articular artery** (a. genu media) passes directly forwards from the front

of the popliteal artery, pierces the central part of the posterior ligament of the knee-joint, and enters the intercondylar space. It supplies branches to the crucial ligaments and to the synovial membrane, and is accompanied by the azygos articular branch of the internal popliteal nerve, and sometimes by the genicular branch of the obturator nerve.

(3) **Cutaneous branches** are distributed to the skin over the popliteal space. One of these, the *superficial sural artery*, descends in the middle line of the back of the calf along with the external saphenous nerve.

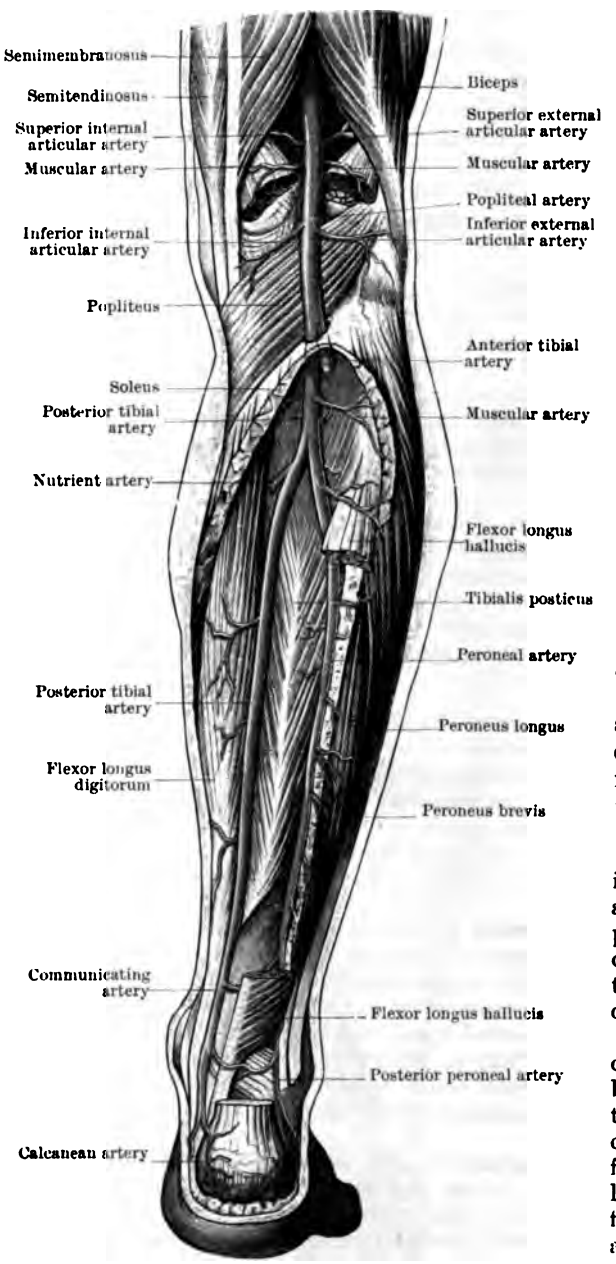


FIG. 644.—THE POPLITEAL AND POSTERIOR TIBIAL ARTERIES AND THEIR BRANCHES.

THE POSTERIOR TIBIAL ARTERY.

The **posterior tibial artery** (a. tibialis posterior), the larger of the two terminal branches of the popliteal, commences at the lower border of the popliteus and terminates midway between the tip of the inner malleolus and the most prominent part of the heel, at the lower border of the internal annular ligament. It ends by dividing into the internal and the external plantar arteries, which pass onwards to the sole of the foot.

The artery runs downwards and inwards on the back of the leg between the superficial and deep layers of muscles, and covered by the deep intermuscular fascia which intervenes between them.

Relations.—*Anterior.*—It is in contact in front, and from above downwards, with the tibialis posticus, the flexor longus digitorum, the posterior surface of the tibia, and the posterior ligament of the ankle-joint.

Posterior. — The artery is crossed about an inch and a half below its origin by the posterior tibial nerve. Elsewhere it is in contact with the intermuscular fascia, which binds down the deep layer of muscles. More superficially the upper half of the artery is covered by the fleshy parts of the soleus and gastrocnemius muscles, between which is the plantaris; the lower half of the artery is much nearer the surface, and is only covered by skin and fascia, except at its termination, where it lies beneath the internal annular ligament and the origin of the abductor hallucis.

Lateral.—The artery is accompanied by two venæ comites, one on either side. The posterior tibial nerve lies at first on the inner side of the vessel, then crosses behind it, and is continued down on its outer side. In the last part of its course the artery is separated

from the internal malleolus by the tendons of the tibialis posticus and the flexor longus digitorum, whilst the tendon of the flexor longus hallucis lies behind and external to it.

Branches.—The posterior tibial gives off numerous branches, the largest of which, the peroneal, forms one of the chief arteries of the leg. The branches include—

(1) Two large **muscular branches** which are distributed to the soleus, the tibialis posticus, the flexor longus digitorum, and the flexor longus hallucis. They anastomose with the deep sural branches of the popliteal artery and the lower internal articular artery.

(2) The **medullary branch** (a. nutricia tibiæ), the largest of the medullary group of arteries, springs from the upper part of the posterior tibial, pierces the tibialis posticus, and enters the medullary foramen on the posterior surface of the tibia. In the interior of the bone it divides into ascending and descending branches, the former passing upwards towards the head of the bone, and the latter downwards towards the lower extremity. Before entering the tibia the medullary artery gives small muscular branches.

(3) A **communicating branch** (ramus communicans) unites the posterior tibial to the peroneal artery about an inch above the inferior tibio-fibular articulation. It passes behind the shaft of the tibia and in front of the flexor longus hallucis.

(4) **Cutaneous branches** are distributed to the skin of the inner and posterior part of the leg.

(5) An **internal malleolar branch** (a. malleolaris posterior medialis) is distributed to the internal surface of the inner malleolus, anastomosing with a corresponding branch of the anterior tibial artery.

(6) The **peroneal artery** (a. peronæa, Fig. 644) is the largest branch of the posterior tibial. It arises about an inch below the lower border of the popliteus, curves outwards across the upper part of the tibialis posticus to the postero-internal border of the fibula, along which it descends to the lower part of the interosseous space, and it terminates about an inch above the ankle-joint by dividing into anterior and posterior terminal branches.

As the peroneal artery passes outwards from its origin it lies behind the tibialis posticus, and is covered posteriorly by the deep intermuscular fascia and by the soleus. As it descends along the postero-internal border of the fibula it lies in a fibrous canal between the tibialis posticus in front and the flexor longus hallucis behind. The peroneal artery is accompanied by two venæ comites, and is crossed in front and behind by communicating branches between them.

Branches.—(*a*) **Muscular branches** are distributed to the soleus, tibialis posticus, flexor longus hallucis, and peroneal muscles. Some pass through the interosseous membrane and supply the anterior muscles of the leg.

(*b*) **A medullary branch** (a. nutricia fibulæ) enters the medullary foramen of the fibula.

(*c*) **A communicating branch** (a. communicans) passes across the back of the lower end of the shaft of the tibia, about an inch above the inferior tibio-fibular articulation, to anastomose with the posterior tibial artery.

(*d*) The **terminal branches** are: (i.) The anterior terminal branch or *anterior peroneal artery* (ramus perforans), which passes forwards between the lower border of the interosseous membrane and the interosseous inferior tibio-fibular ligament, and runs in front of the ankle to the dorsum of the foot, where it anastomoses with the external malleolar branch of the anterior tibial artery and with the tarsal branch of the dorsalis pedis; it also supplies branches to the inferior tibio-fibular articulation, to the ankle-joint, and to the peroneus tertius.

(ii.) The posterior terminal branch (ramus calcaneus lateralis), or *posterior peroneal artery*, passes downwards behind the inferior tibio-fibular articulation and external malleolus to the outer side of the heel and the foot. It supplies the ankle, the inferior tibio-fibular articulation, and the calcaneo-astragaloid joint, and anastomoses with the internal calcaneal branch of the external plantar artery, and with the tarsal and metatarsal branches of the dorsalis pedis.

Plantar Arteries.

(7) The **internal** and **external plantar arteries** are the terminal branches of the posterior tibial artery. They arise beneath the origin of the abductor hallucis muscle, midway between the tip of the internal malleolus and the most prominent part of the inner side of the os calcis.

Internal Plantar Artery (a. plantaris medialis).—This is the smaller of the two terminal branches of the posterior tibial artery. It passes forwards along the inner side of the foot, in the interval between the abductor hallucis and the flexor brevis digitorum, to the head of the first metatarsal bone, where it terminates by uniting with the plantar digital branch of the dorsalis hallucis, which is distributed to the inner side of the great toe. In its course forwards it gives branches to the adjacent muscles and articulations, and to the subjacent skin; it also gives three

digital branches which anastomose at the roots of the inner three interdigital clefts, with the princeps hallucis branch of the dorsalis pedis and with the inner two digital branches from the plantar arch. Some of the cutaneous branches of the internal plantar artery anastomose, round the inner border of the foot, with the inner cutaneous branches of the dorsalis pedis artery.

External Plantar Artery (a. plantaris lateralis).—This artery, the larger of the two terminal branches of the posterior tibial artery, runs forwards and outwards, first between the flexor brevis digitorum and the accessorius and then in the interval between the flexor brevis digitorum and the abductor minimi digiti, to the inner side of the base of the fifth metatarsal bone, where it turns abruptly inwards; it then passes across the bases of the metatarsal bones and the origins of the interossei, and above the oblique adductor of the great toe, to the outer side of the base of the first metatarsal bone, where it terminates by anastomosing with the dorsalis pedis artery. The last part of the artery is convex forwards and forms the plantar arch, which is completed by the dorsalis pedis.

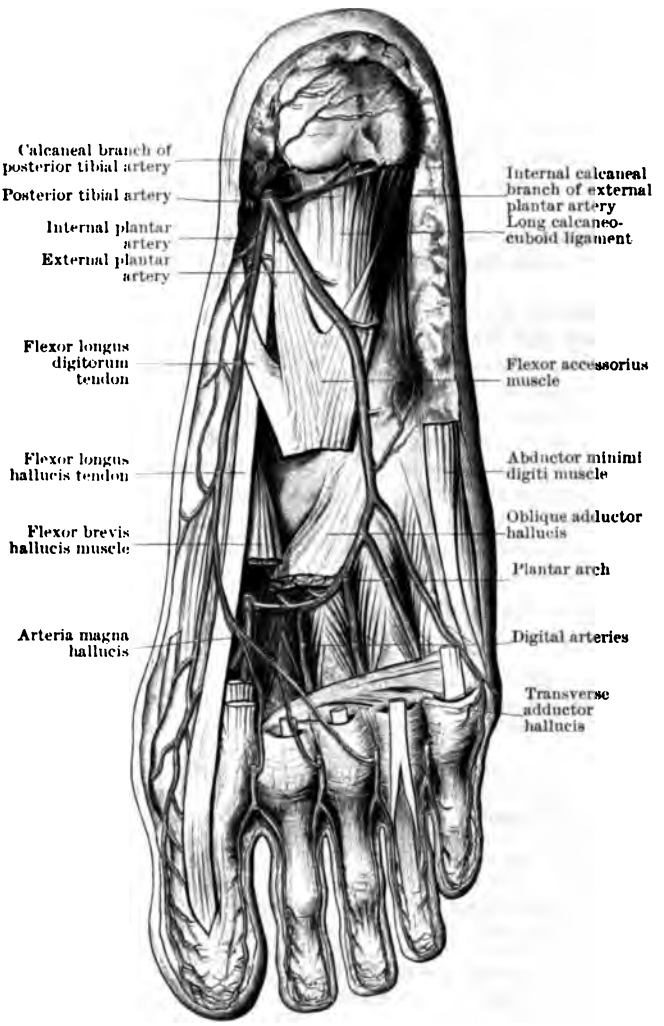


FIG. 645.—THE PLANTAR ARTERIES AND THEIR BRANCHES.

Branches. — Between its origin and the base of the fifth metatarsal the external plantar artery gives off (*a*) the **internal calcaneal branch**, which is distributed to the skin and the subcutaneous tissue of the heel.

(*b*) **Muscular branches** to the abductor hallucis, flexor brevis digitorum, accessorius, and abductor minimi digiti.

(*c*) **Cutaneous branches** to the skin of the outer side of the foot.

Between the base of the fifth metatarsal bone and the first interosseous space it forms the **plantar arch** (arcus plantaris), and gives off (*d*) four **digital branches** (aa. metatarsæ plantares); (*e*) three **posterior perforating arteries** (rami perforantes) to the dorsal interosseous arteries; and (*f*) **articular branches** to the tarsal joints.

The **outermost digital branch** runs along the outer side of the little toe, supplying the skin, joints, and the flexor tendons with their synovial sheaths. The **inner three digital branches** run forwards on the plantar surfaces of the interossei, the inner two lying dorsal to the oblique adductor of the great toe, and all three passing dorsal to the transverse adductor. At the bases of the interdigital clefts the three inner digital arteries divide into collateral branches (aa. digitales plantares) which run along the plantar aspect of adjacent toes, and supply skin, joints, and the flexor tendons and sheaths. Opposite the last phalanx of each toe the digital arteries anastomose.

The **posterior perforating arteries** are three in number; they pass dorsalwards through the three outer interosseous spaces, between the heads of the dorsal interosseous muscles, and terminate by uniting with the dorsal interosseous branches of the metatarsal artery.

Anterior perforating branches which communicate with the dorsal interosseous arteries are given off from two or three of the digital arteries just before they divide.

The **articular branches** are numerous and irregular; they supply the joints and ligaments of the tarsus on its plantar aspect.

The Anterior Tibial Artery.

The **anterior tibial artery** (a. tibialis anterior), the smaller of the two terminal divisions of the popliteal, commences opposite the lower border of the popliteus muscle, and terminates in front of the ankle, where it is continued into the dorsal artery of the foot.

Course and Relations.—From its origin at the back of the leg the artery passes forwards to the front, between the two uppermost slips of the tibialis posticus and above the upper border of the interosseous membrane. It then descends resting, in the upper two-thirds of its course, upon the anterior surface of the interosseous membrane and, subsequently, on the shaft of the tibia and the anterior ligament of the ankle-joint. In the upper third of the anterior compartment of the leg it lies between the extensor longus digitorum externally and the tibialis anticus internally; in the middle third it is between the extensor longus hallucis and the tibialis anticus; in the lower third the extensor longus hallucis crosses in front of the artery and reaches its inner side, and the last part of the vessel lies between the tendon of the extensor longus hallucis and the innermost tendon of the extensor longus digitorum.

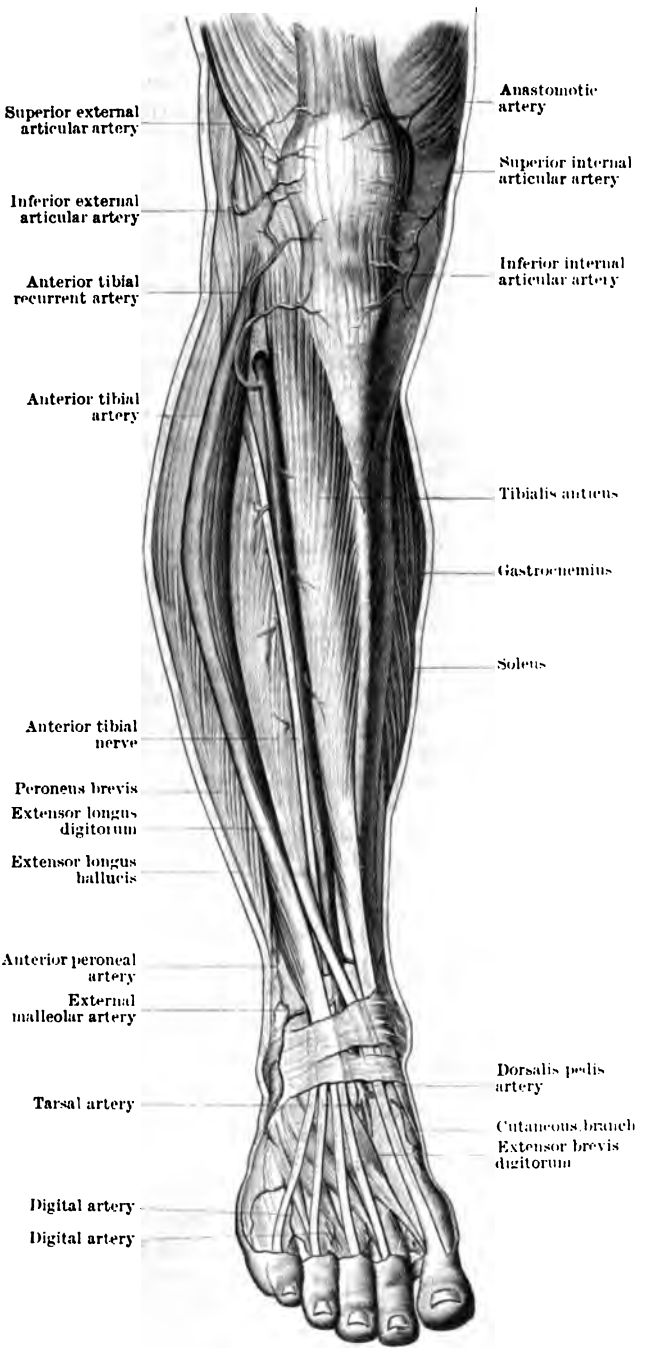


Fig. 646.—The Anterior Tibial Artery and its Branches.

The anterior tibial nerve is at first well to the outer side of the artery, but it soon passes in front of the vessel, and it lies in front of the artery in its middle

third; lower down the nerve is usually found on the outer side again, and at the ankle it intervenes between the artery and the innermost tendon of the extensor longus digitorum.

Two venæ comites, with numerous intercommunications, accompany the artery.

Obviously the anterior tibial artery is, at least in its upper part, deeply placed: moreover, its lateral muscular boundaries overlap it. In the greater part of its extent it is, however, easily accessible from the surface; and beyond being crossed by the nerve and tendon, as already described, is only covered, in addition, by skin, fascia, and the anterior annular ligament.

Branches.—Close to its origin the artery gives off superior fibular and posterior tibial recurrent branches; after it reaches the front of the leg it gives off anterior tibial recurrent, muscular, cutaneous, internal malleolar, and external malleolar branches.

(1) The **superior fibular branch** is a small vessel which may arise separately from the anterior tibial artery, or by a common stem with the posterior tibial recurrent; occasionally it springs from the lower end of the popliteal artery, or from the posterior tibial. It runs upwards and outwards behind the neck of the fibula and through the fibres of the soleus, and it terminates in branches which supply the soleus, the peroneus longus, and the skin of the upper and outer part of the leg. It anastomoses with the inferior external articular artery.

(2) The **posterior tibial recurrent branch** (a. recurrens tibialis posterior), also small, and not always present, runs upwards in front of the popliteus muscle to the back of the knee-joint. It anastomoses with the inferior articular branches of the popliteal, and gives branches to the popliteus muscle and the superior tibio-fibular articulation.

(3) The **anterior tibial recurrent branch** (a. recurrens tibialis anterior) arises from the anterior tibial artery in front of the interosseous membrane. It runs upwards and inwards, between the upper part of the tibialis anticus and the outer tuberosity of the tibia, accompanied by the recurrent articular branch of the external popliteal nerve, and after supplying the tibialis anticus and the superior tibio-fibular articulation it pierces the deep fascia of the leg; it is connected with the anastomoses round the knee-joint formed by the articular branches of the popliteal artery, the descending branch of the external circumflex artery, and the anastomotic artery.

(4) The **muscular branches** are distributed to the muscles of the front of the leg, and a few small branches also pass backwards to the deep surface of the tibialis posticus muscle.

(5) The **cutaneous branches** supply the skin of the front of the leg.

(6) The **internal malleolar branch** (a. malleolaris anterior medialis) arises from the lower part of the anterior tibial artery, and is smaller than its companion on the outer side. It runs inwards, beneath the tibialis anticus tendon, ramifies over the internal malleolus, anastomosing with branches of the posterior tibial artery, and is distributed to the skin and to the ankle-joint.

(7) The **external malleolar branch** (a. malleolaris anterior lateralis), more constant and larger than the internal, passes outwards beneath the extensor longus digitorum and peroneus tertius towards the external malleolus. It anastomoses with the anterior peroneal and tarsal arteries, and supplies the ankle-joint and the adjacent articulations.

Dorsalis Pedis Artery (a. dorsalis pedis).—The dorsal artery of the foot is the direct continuation of the anterior tibial; it commences opposite the front of the ankle-joint, and extends to the posterior extremity of the first interosseous space, where it passes to the plantar aspect of the foot, and, anastomosing with the termination of the external plantar artery, completes the plantar arch.

It is covered superficially by skin and fascia, including the inferior part of the anterior annular ligament, and it is crossed, just before it reaches the first interosseous space, by the innermost tendon of the extensor brevis digitorum. It rests upon the anterior ligament of the ankle, the head of the astragalus, the astragalo-navicular ligament, the dorsum of the navicular bone, the dorsal naviculo-cuneiform and the inter-cuneiform ligaments between the internal and middle cuneiform bones. On its outer side is the internal terminal branch of the anterior tibial nerve, which intervenes between it and the extensor brevis digitorum and innermost tendon of the extensor longus digitorum. On its inner side it is in relation with the tendon of the extensor proprius hallucis. Two venæ comites, one on each side, accompany the artery.

As it passes through the base of the first interosseous space it lies between the) heads of the first dorsal interosseous muscle, and in the sole of the foot it is sal to the flexor brevis hallucis.

Branches.—On the dorsum of the foot the dorsalis pedis artery gives off cutaneous nches, the tarsal branch, the metatarsal branch, and the dorsalis hallucis or first dorsal rosseous. In the sole the foot, and before it tes with the external ıtar artery, it gives off princeps hallucis.

(1) **Cutaneous branches,** or three in number, are ributed to the skin on dorsum and inner side ıe foot; they anastomose ı branches of the internal ıtar artery.

(2) The **tarsal branch** :arsea lateralis) is given)pposite the head of the agalus; it runs outwards eath the extensor brevis torum, supplying that ıcle and the tarsal joints, l anastomoses with ıches of the anterior)neal, metatarsal, and rnal plantar arteries, with the external leolar artery.

(3) The **metatarsal ıry** (a. arcuata) arises osite the internal cunei- ı bone. It runs out- ds on the bases of the atarsal bones, beneath long and short extensor lons, supplies the ex- ıor brevis, and anasto- es with branches of tarsal and external ıtar arteries. It gives off ıe **dorsal interosseous ıries** (aa. metatarseæ ıales) which run down- ds on the muscles which ıpy the three outer inter- ous spaces to the clefts the toes, where each

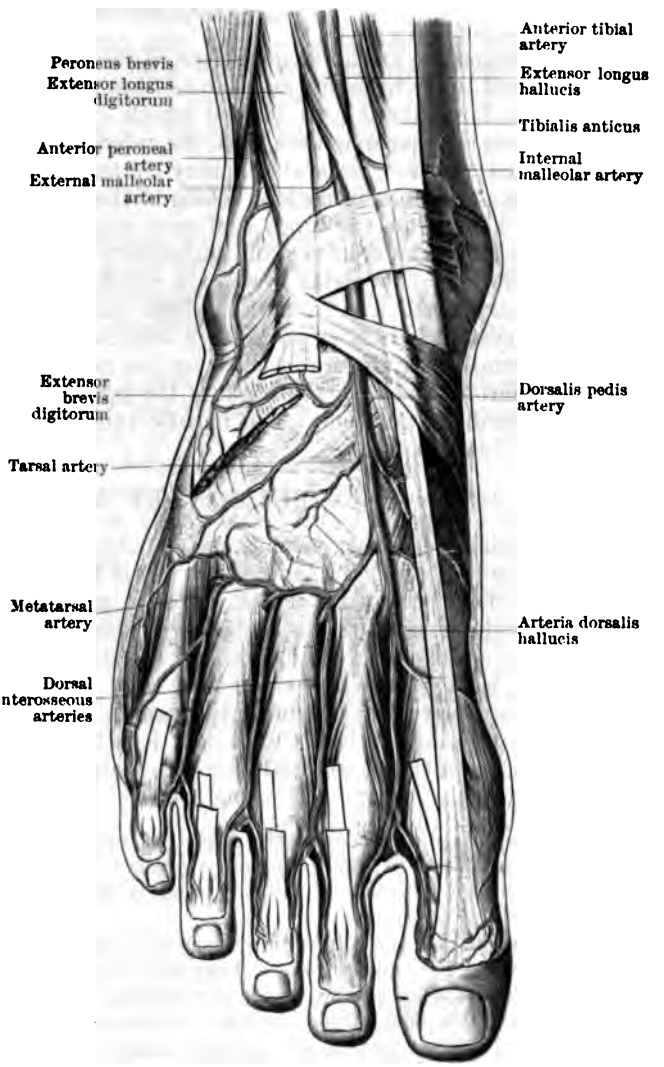


FIG. 647.—THE DORSALIS PEDIS ARTERY AND ITS BRANCHES.

les into two *collateral digital branches* (aa. digitales dorsales) for the adjacent sides ıe toes bounding the cleft to which it goes. The outer side of the little toe receives anch from the outermost dorsal interosseous artery. Each dorsal interosseous artery s off a *posterior perforating branch* which passes through the posterior part of the rosseous space, between the heads of the dorsal interosseous muscle, to anastomose ı the plantar arch, and an *anterior perforating branch*, which descends through the rior part of the space to anastomose with the corresponding plantar digital artery.

(4) The **dorsalis hallucis artery** (first dorsal interosseous) is continued forwards ı the dorsal artery of the foot, and runs on the dorsal surface of the first dorsal rosseous muscle. It ends by dividing into collateral dorsal digital branches for the .cent sides of the first and second toes. Before it divides it usually gives off a dorsal tal branch which passes beneath the tendon of the extensor hallucis to the inner side ıe great toe.

(5) The **princeps hallucis** (plantar digital artery) springs from the termination of

the dorsalis pedis in the sole of the foot; it runs forwards in the plantar part of the first interosseous space, and divides, at the interdigital cleft, into collateral digital branches for the supply of the adjacent sides of the first and second toes on their plantar aspects. Before its division it supplies a plantar digital branch to the inner side of the great toe.

THE VEINS.

Veins commence at the terminations of the capillaries. They converge towards the heart, and unite with one another to form larger and still larger vessels, until finally seven large trunks are formed which open into the auricles of the heart. Three of these, the **superior vena cava**, the **inferior vena cava**, and the **coronary sinus**, belong to the *systemic circulation*; they contain venous blood, and open into the right auricle. The remaining four belong to the *pulmonary circulation*; they return arterialised blood from the lungs, and open into the left auricle.

In addition to the systemic and pulmonary veins, there is also a third group of veins, constituting the **portal system**, in which blood from the abdominal part of the alimentary canal, and from the spleen and pancreas, is conveyed to the liver. The portal system is further peculiar in that it both begins and ends in capillaries. From its terminal capillaries in the liver the hepatic veins arise, and as these open into the inferior vena cava the blood of the portal system is finally poured into the general systemic circulation. The hepatic veins also receive blood supplied to the liver by the hepatic arteries.

PULMONARY VEINS.

The terminal **pulmonary veins** (v. pulmonales, Figs. 613 and 620), two on each side, open into the left auricle of the heart. Their tributaries arise in capillary plexuses in the walls of the pulmonary alveoli. By the union of the smaller veins larger vessels are formed which run along the anterior aspects of the bronchial tubes, and, uniting together, ultimately form a single efferent vessel in each lobe, which passes into the root of the lung. Thus there are five main pulmonary veins, but, immediately after entering the root of the lung, the vessels from the upper and middle lobes of the right lung join together, and so only four terminal pulmonary veins open into the left auricle of the heart. Neither the main stems nor their tributaries possess valves.

Relations.—In the root of the lung the upper pulmonary vein on each side lies below and in front of the pulmonary artery. The lower pulmonary vein on each side is in the lowest part of the root, and it is placed much farther back than the upper vein.

On the right side the upper pulmonary vein passes behind the superior vena cava, and the lower behind the right auricle. They both terminate in the upper and back part of the left auricle close to the interauricular septum.

On the left side both upper and lower pulmonary veins cross the front of the descending aorta, and they terminate in the upper and back part of the left auricle near its left border.

All four pulmonary veins perforate the fibrous layer of the pericardium, and receive partial coverings of the serous layer before they enter the auricle.

SYSTEMIC VEINS.

The systemic veins return blood to the right auricle of the heart through the superior vena cava, the inferior vena cava, and the coronary sinus. The two first-named receive blood from the veins of the body and limbs and from most of the abdominal and pelvic viscera. The coronary sinus receives blood from the veins of the walls of the heart alone.

General arrangement.—The veins of the body wall and limbs form two groups —(1) the superficial veins; (2) the deep veins.

The **superficial veins**, which commence in the capillaries of the skin and subcutaneous tissues, lie in the superficial fascia, and are very numerous. They

frequently anastomose with one another, and they also communicate with the deep veins, in which, after piercing the deep fascia, they terminate. They may or may not accompany superficial arteries.

The **deep veins** accompany arteries, and are known as *venæ comites*. The large arteries have only one accompanying vein, but with the medium-sized and small arteries there are usually two venæ comites, which freely anastomose with each other by short transverse branches of communication.

Visceral veins usually accompany the arteries which supply viscera in the head, neck, thorax, and abdomen. As a rule there is only one vein with each visceral artery, and, with the exception of those which enter into the formation of the portal system, they terminate in the deep systemic veins.

THE CORONARY SINUS AND THE VEINS OF THE HEART.

The **coronary sinus** (sinus coronarius, Fig. 613) is a short, but relatively wide, venous trunk which receives the majority of the veins of the heart. It lies in the inferior portion of the auriculo-ventricular sulcus, between the left auricle and the left ventricle, and it is covered superficially by some of the muscular fibres of the auricle.

It terminates in the lower and back part of the right auricle, between the orifice of the inferior vena cava on the right, and the right auriculo-ventricular orifice in front; an imperfect valve, consisting of one or two cusps, called the **valve of Thebesius**, is situated at the opening of the sinus into the auricle.

The apertures of all the tributaries of the coronary sinus, except that of the oblique vein, are provided with valves, which, however, are frequently incompetent.

Tributaries.—(1) The **great cardiac** or **left coronary vein** (v. cordis magna, Fig. 614) commences at the apex of the heart. It ascends in the anterior interventricular sulcus to the auriculo-ventricular groove; it then turns to the left, and, passing round the left margin of the heart into the postero-inferior part of the auriculo-ventricular groove, terminates in the left extremity of the coronary sinus. It receives tributaries from the walls of both ventricles and from the wall of the left auricle. It also receives the *left marginal vein*, which commences at the lower extremity of the left margin of the heart, along which it ascends to its termination.

(2) **Small cardiac** or **right coronary vein** (v. cordis parva).—This vein is very variable; as a rule it commences at the right margin of the heart in the auriculo-ventricular sulcus, passes to the left, and terminates in the coronary sinus near its right end. It receives tributaries from the walls of the right auricle and the right ventricle; one from the latter, the *right marginal vein*, ascends along the right margin of the heart, and sometimes opens directly into the right auricle.

(3) The **oblique vein of Marshall** (v. obliqua atrii sinistri, Fig. 613) is a small venous channel which descends obliquely on the posterior wall of the left auricle and terminates in the coronary sinus. Its orifice is not provided with a valve. It is of special interest, inasmuch as it represents the left superior vena cava of some other mammals, and is developed from the left duct of Cuvier.

(4) The **inferior interventricular, inferior cardiac**, or **middle cardiac vein** (v. cordis media), commences at the apex of the heart, and, passing backwards in the inferior interventricular sulcus, terminates in the right end of the coronary sinus. It receives tributaries from the inferior parts of the walls of both ventricles.

Veins of the heart which do not end in the coronary sinus.—(*a*) The *anterior cardiac veins* (vv. cordis anteriores) are two or three small vessels which ascend on the anterior wall of the right ventricle to the auriculo-ventricular groove, where they either end separately in the right auricle or terminate in the commencement of the small cardiac vein. (*b*) The *venæ minimæ cordis*.—A number of small veins which commence in the substance of the walls of the heart, and terminate directly in its cavities, principally in the auricles; some few, however, open into the ventricles.

THE SUPERIOR VENA CAVA AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

The **superior vena cava** (Figs. 619 and 620) returns the blood from the head and neck, the upper extremities, the thoracic wall, and a portion of the upper part

of the posterior wall of the abdomen. It is formed, at the lower border of the first right costal cartilage, by the union of the two innominate veins, and it descends, with a slight convexity to the right, to the level of the third right costal cartilage, where it opens into the upper and back part of the right auricle. It is about three inches (7·5 cm.) long; in the lower half of its extent it is enclosed within the fibrous layer of the pericardium, and it is covered in front and laterally by the serous layer.

Relations.—It is overlapped *in front* by the margins of the right lung and pleural sac and by the ascending aorta. The lung and pleura intervene between it and the second and third costal cartilages, the internal intercostal muscles in the first and second intercostal spaces, and the internal mammary vessels. It is in relation *behind* with the right vagus nerve, the vena azygos major, the right bronchus, the right pulmonary artery, and the upper right pulmonary vein. On its *left side* are the commencement of the innominate artery and the ascending portion of the aorta, whilst on the *right side* it is in close relation with the right pleura, the phrenic nerve and comes nervi phrenici vessels intervening.

Tributaries.—In addition to the two innominate veins, by the union of which it is formed, the superior vena cava only receives one large tributary, viz. the vena azygos major; but several small pericardial and mediastinal veins open into it.

The Azygos Veins.

The **vena azygos major** (v. azygos, Fig. 660) commences either from the back of the inferior vena cava, at the level of the right renal vein, or as the direct upward continuation of an anastomosing channel which connects together the lumbar veins of the right side, and which is known as the *right ascending lumbar vein*. The great azygos vein ascends through the aortic orifice of the diaphragm, and is continued upwards through the posterior mediastinum. In the upper part of its course, it first passes behind and then arches forwards above the root of the right lung to its termination in the posterior part of the superior vena cava, immediately before the latter vessel pierces the pericardium. It frequently possesses imperfect valves.

Relations.—*In the abdomen* it lies on the bodies of the upper lumbar vertebræ, behind the right crus of the diaphragm and the inferior vena cava, and to the right side of the thoracic duct.

In the thorax it lies on the bodies of the lower eight dorsal vertebræ, the intervening discs, and the anterior common ligament, and it crosses in front of the right aortic intercostal arteries. In the lower part of the posterior mediastinum it is covered in front by the right pleura and lung; at a higher level it is overlapped by the right margin of the œsophagus, and immediately before its termination it is crossed by the root of the right lung.

On its right side it receives the right posterior intercostal veins. On its left side it is in relation, in the greater part of its extent, with the thoracic duct and, as it arches forwards over the root of the lung, with the right vagus nerve. About the level of the seventh dorsal vertebra it receives the vena azygos minor superior, whilst at the level of the eighth dorsal vertebra the vena azygos minor inferior opens into it.

In addition to the left azygos veins it receives the right posterior intercostal veins, except that from the first space but including the right superior intercostal vein, the right subcostal vein, and, through the ascending lumbar vein, the upper right lumbar veins. It also receives the right bronchial veins and some small œsophageal, pericardial, and mediastinal tributaries.

The **vena azygos minor superior** (v. hemi-azygos accessoria) is formed by the union of the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh left posterior intercostal veins. It lies in the posterior mediastinum on the left sides of the bodies of the fifth, sixth, and seventh dorsal vertebræ, and crosses the spine from left to right opposite the body of the seventh dorsal vertebra, passing behind the aorta, œsophagus, and thoracic duct; it terminates in the vena azygos major. It receives the left bronchial veins, some small posterior mediastinal veins also open into it, and it communicates with the left superior intercostal vein.

The **vena azygos minor inferior** (v. hemi-azygos) commences in the epigastric region. At its origin it is connected either with the left ascending lumbar vein or with the left renal vein. After piercing the left crus of the diaphragm it ascends on the left sides of the

bodies of the lower dorsal vertebræ, and opposite the eighth dorsal vertebra it turns to the right, crosses the front of the spine behind the aorta, œsophagus, and thoracic duct, and terminates in the vena azygos major. As it ascends in the posterior mediastinum it lies internal to the sympathetic cord, behind the roots of the splanchnic nerves, and superficial to the lower left intercostal arteries. Through the left ascending lumbar vein it receives blood from the upper lumbar veins of the left side; the lower four posterior intercostal veins, the left subcostal vein, and small mediastinal tributaries also terminate in it.

Not infrequently the upper and lower minor azygos veins unite, opposite the seventh or eighth dorsal vertebra, to form a common trunk which terminates in the azygos major.

The **bronchial veins** do not quite correspond to the bronchial arteries, and they are not found on the walls of the smallest bronchi. On each side the tributaries run in front of and behind the bronchial tubes to the root of the lung, where they unite, as a rule, into two small trunks; those of the right side open into the vena azygos major, and those of the left into the vena azygos minor superior, or into the left superior intercostal vein. On both sides they are joined by tracheal and posterior mediastinal veins. Some few small bronchial veins, including most of those from the smaller tubes, open into the pulmonary veins.

Intercostal Veins.—There are two sets of intercostal veins (vv. intercostales), the anterior and the posterior.

The **anterior intercostal veins** are tributaries of the internal mammary or of the musculo-phrenic veins, and are described with those vessels (p. 874).

The **posterior intercostal veins** (Fig. 660) are eleven in number on each side. A single vein runs in each intercostal space; it is situated in the subcostal groove above the corresponding artery.

On the right side the posterior intercostal vein of the first space accompanies the superior intercostal artery across the front of the neck of the first rib, and terminates in the vertebral or innominate vein. The second, third, and fourth intercostal veins of the right side unite together to form a common trunk, the **right superior intercostal vein** (v. intercostalis suprema dextra), which terminates by joining the vena azygos major. The fifth to the eleventh posterior intercostal veins of the right side open separately in the vena azygos major.

On the left side the first posterior intercostal vein follows a course similar to that taken by the corresponding vein on the right side, and terminates in the left vertebral or innominate vein. The second, third, and fourth posterior intercostal veins of the left side unite to form the **left superior intercostal vein** (v. intercostalis suprema sinistra), which runs from behind forwards along the left and anterior aspect of the aortic arch. It passes obliquely between the left vagus and phrenic nerves, crosses the root of the left subclavian artery, and ends in the lower part of the left innominate vein. The fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth posterior intercostal veins of the left side terminate in the vena azygos minor superior, and the ninth, tenth, and eleventh in the vena azygos minor inferior.

Each posterior intercostal vein is provided with valves, both at its termination and along its course, which prevent the blood flowing towards the anterior aspect of the thoracic wall. Its tributaries are derived from the adjacent muscles and bones, and a short distance from its termination it receives a dorsal tributary which passes forwards to it between the transverse processes of the vertebræ. This dorsal vessel is formed by the union of small veins which issue from the muscles of the back, from the anterior and posterior spinal plexuses which lie respectively in front of the bodies and behind the arches of the vertebræ, and by venous channels which issue through the intervertebral foramina; the latter vessels commence in the spinal canal, where they are connected with the anterior and posterior spinal veins.

The Innominate Veins.

The **innominate** or **brachio-cephalic veins** (vv. anonymæ dextra et sinistra Figs. 619 and 620), two in number, right and left, return blood from the head and neck, the upper extremities, the upper part of the posterior wall of the thorax, the anterior wall of the thorax, and the upper part of the anterior wall of the abdomen. Each innominate vein commences behind the sternal end of the clavicle of the corresponding side, and is formed by the union of the internal jugular and subclavian veins; the two innominate veins terminate by uniting together, at the lower border of the cartilage of the first rib on the right side, to form the superior

vena cava. To reach this point the left vein has to pass from left to right behind the manubrium sterni, and it is therefore about three times as long as the right vein. The innominate veins do not possess valves.

The **right innominate vein** is a little more than one inch (3 cm.) in length. It descends almost vertically to the lower border of the first costal cartilage, and terminates in the superior vena cava.

Relations.—It is in relation in front with the sternal end of the clavicle and the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles. It partly overlaps the innominate artery, which lies to its left side, and it is in front of the right vagus nerve and the posterior part of the upper end of the right pleural sac. The phrenic nerve and the accompanying vessels run along its right side, and intervene between it and the right pleural sac.

Tributaries.—In addition to the veins by the union of which it is formed, the right innominate vein receives the right vertebral and internal mammary veins, and sometimes the right inferior thyroid vein and the first right posterior intercostal vein. The right lymphatic duct also opens into it.

The **left innominate vein** passes from left to right, with a slight obliquity downwards, behind the upper part of the manubrium sterni, to the lower border of the first right costal cartilage, where it terminates in the superior vena cava. It is a little less than three inches long (6 to 7·5 cm.)

Relations.—It is covered in front, in the greater part of its extent, by the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles, but at its right extremity it is slightly overlapped by the right pleura, and in the middle line the remains of the thymus gland intervene between it and the posterior surface of the sternum. It rests posteriorly upon the left subclavian artery, the left phrenic, and the left vagus nerves, the left superior cardiac branch of the sympathetic, the inferior cervical branch of the left vagus, the left common carotid artery, the trachea, and the innominate artery.

Its lower border is in relation with the arch of the aorta, and on its upper border it receives the inferior thyroid vein of one or both sides.

Tributaries.—It receives the vertebral, internal mammary, inferior thyroid, and superior intercostal veins of its own side, the first left posterior intercostal vein, and some pericardial, thymic, anterior bronchial, and anterior mediastinal veins. Sometimes the right inferior thyroid vein joins it, but usually this vessel terminates in the right innominate vein or in the commencement of the superior vena cava.

The thoracic duct opens into it just at the angle of junction of the internal jugular and subclavian veins.

Internal mammary veins (vv. mammariæ internæ).—Each internal mammary artery is accompanied by venæ comites; they commence by the union of the venæ comites of the superior epigastric and musculo-phrenic arteries, between the sixth costal cartilage and the triangularis sterni, and at the upper part of the thorax they fuse into a single vessel which enters the superior mediastinum and ends in the innominate vein of the same side.

The tributaries of the internal mammary veins are—(*a*) The **venæ comites** of the **superior epigastric** and **musculo-phrenic arteries**, which in their turn receive tributaries which correspond with the branches of the arteries they accompany. (*b*) Six **anterior perforating veins** which accompany the corresponding arteries, one lying in each of the upper six intercostal spaces. (*c*) Twelve **anterior intercostal veins** from the upper six intercostal spaces, two veins lying in each space with the corresponding branches of the internal mammary artery. (*d*) Small and irregular **pleural, muscular, mediastinal,** and **sternal veins.**

The internal mammary veins are provided with numerous valves which prevent the blood from flowing downwards.

Superior epigastric veins (vv. epigastricæ superiores).—The venæ comites of the superior epigastric artery receive tributaries from the substance of the rectus abdominis, the sheath of the muscle, and the superjacent skin and fascia; they pass with the artery, between the sternal and costal origins of the diaphragm, and terminate in the internal mammary veins.

Musculo-phrenic veins.—The venæ comites of the musculo-phrenic artery commence in the abdomen, pass through the diaphragm with the artery, and terminate in the internal mammary veins. They receive as tributaries the anterior intercostal veins of the seventh, eighth, and ninth intercostal spaces, and small venules from the substance of the diaphragm.

Vertebral Veins (vv. vertebrales).—These correspond only to the extra-cranial rts of the vertebral arteries. Each commences by the union of offsets from e intraspinal venous plexuses, and, issuing from the spinal canal, passes across e posterior arch of the atlas with the vertebral artery to the foramen in the ansverse process of the atlas. It then descends through the foramina in the rvical transverse processes, and breaks up into a plexus of venous channels which rround the artery. At the lower part of the neck these channels unite to form single trunk which issues from the foramen in the transverse process of the cth cervical vertebra, and descends, in the interval between the longus colli and alenus anticus muscles, to terminate in the upper and back part of the innominate in, where it possesses a uni- or bi-cuspidate valve.

Relations.—In the first part of its course the vein lies in the suboccipital triangle. ıe second, plexiform portion, is in the canal formed by the foramina in the transverse ocesses of the cervical vertebræ, and, with the artery which it surrounds, lies in front of e trunks of the cervical spinal nerves. The third part, in the root of the neck, is tween the longus colli and scalenus anticus muscles, in front of the first part of the rtebral artery, and behind the internal jugular vein.

Tributaries.—In addition to the offsets from the intraspinal venous plexuses by the ıion of which it is formed, each vertebral vein receives the following tributaries:—(*a*) nall vessels which issue from the muscles, ligaments, and bones of the deeper parts of the ck, and the lower and back part of the head. (*b*) Offsets from the intraspinal venous exuses which pass out of the spinal canal by the intervertebral foramina. (*c*) The **ıterior deep cervical** or **anterior vertebral vein**, a vessel which is formed by the union of ibutaries which issue from a venous plexus which lies in front of the bodies and ı the roots of the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ. This vessel accompanies ıe ascending cervical artery, and terminates in the lower part of the vertebral vein, ımediately after the latter has issued from the foramen in the sixth cervical transverse ocess. (*d*) The **posterior deep cervical** (v. cervicalis profunda) or **posterior vertebral ein**; this commences in the suboccipital triangle from a venous plexus with which ıe vertebral and occipital veins communicate. It descends behind the transverse ocesses of the cervical vertebræ in company with the profunda cervicis artery, turns rwards at the root of the neck, between the transverse processes of the sixth and venth cervical vertebræ or between the latter and the neck of the first rib, and opens to the vertebral vein. It receives blood from the muscles, ligaments, and bones of the ıck of the neck. (*e*) The **posterior intercostal vein** from the first intercostal space some-mes opens into it.

Occasionally the venous plexus round the vertebral artery ends below in two terminal unks, anterior and posterior, instead of one. In these cases the second terminal vessel es behind the lower part of the vertebral artery, passes through the foramen in the ansverse process of the seventh cervical vertebra, and turns forwards on the outer side the artery to join the anterior trunk, thus forming a common terminal vein which ıds in the usual manner.

Inferior Thyroid Veins (vv. thyreoideæ inferiores).—Each inferior thyroid ein commences by the union of a series of tributaries which issue from the ısthmus and the corresponding lateral lobe of the thyroid body. The two veins escend along the front of the trachea into the superior mediastinum, where the ight inferior thyroid vein terminates in the junction of the two innominate veins, nd the left in the upper part of the left innominate vein; or the two veins unite o form a single trunk, which usually ends in the left innominate vein, but occa-ionally in the right. In their descent through the neck the inferior thyroid veins requently anastomose together, and sometimes these anastomoses are so frequent nd irregular that a venous plexus is formed in front of the lower cervical portion f the trachea.

VEINS OF THE HEAD AND NECK.

Internal jugular veins (Figs. 620 and 650).—Each internal jugular vein (v. ugularis interna) commences in the posterior compartment of the jugular foramen, s the direct continuation of the lateral sinus, and terminates behind the sternal art of the clavicle by uniting with the subclavian vein of the same side to form he innominate vein.

At its commencement it is dilated, forming the bulb of the **jugular vein**, and in this situation it lies behind and somewhat to the outer side of the internal carotid artery and the last four cranial nerves. As it descends it accompanies first the internal and then the common carotid artery; inclining forwards during its descent, it gradually passes from its original position, behind and to the outer side of the internal carotid artery, and lies more completely to the outer side of the internal and common carotid arteries, and indeed somewhat overlaps the latter in front. This is more especially the case on the left side, for both internal jugular veins trend slightly towards the right as they descend; consequently at the root of the neck the right vein is separated from the right common carotid artery by a small interval filled by areolar tissue, whilst the left vein is more directly in front of the corresponding common carotid artery.

Within an inch of its lower extremity each internal jugular vein is provided with a valve, which, however, is frequently incompetent. It consists of one, two, or three cusps.

Relations.—The vein lies in front of the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ, the rectus capitis lateralis, rectus capitis anticus major, and scalenus anticus muscles, the ascending cervical artery, which runs upwards in the interval between the attachments of the two latter muscles, and the phrenic nerve; the suprascapular and the transverse cervical arteries intervene between it and the scalenus anticus. At the root of the neck the vein lies in front of the first part of the subclavian artery and the origins of the vertebral artery and the thyroid axis, and on the left side it is in front of the terminal part of the thoracic duct.

On the inner side of the internal jugular vein, immediately below the skull, are the internal carotid artery and the last four cranial nerves; in the rest of its extent it is in relation internally either with the internal or the common carotid artery, whilst to its inner side and somewhat posteriorly, between it and the large arteries, lies the vagus nerve.

Each internal jugular vein is covered in the whole of its length by the sterno-mastoid muscle; near its upper end it is crossed by the posterior belly of the digastric, whilst in its lower half, in addition to the sterno-mastoid, the omo-hyoid, the sterno-hyoid, and the sterno-thyroid muscles are superficial to it. Just below the transverse process of the atlas, and under cover of the sterno-mastoid, the vein is crossed on its outer side by the spinal accessory nerve and by the occipital artery; about the middle of its course it is also crossed by the communicans cervicis nerve, and near its lower end by the anterior jugular vein; the latter vessel, however, is separated from it by the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles. Superficial to the vein are numerous deep cervical lymphatic glands.

Tributaries.—(*a*) The **inferior petrosal sinus**, which joins it near its commencement. (*b*) **Pharyngeal branches** from the venous plexus on the wall of the pharynx. (*c*) The **common facial vein**, which receives the facial vein and its tributaries. (*d*) The **lingual veins** (vv. linguales), small venæ comites, which commence chiefly in the sublingual and dorsalis linguæ veins, and accompany the first and second parts of the lingual artery. (*e*) The **ranine vein**, which commences beneath the tip of the tongue, and accompanies at first the two terminal parts of the lingual artery, and afterwards the hypoglossal nerve. (*f*) The **superior thyroid vein** (v. thyreoidea superioris), which accompanies the corresponding artery. (*g*) The **middle thyroid vein**, which passes backwards from the lateral lobe of the thyroid body and crosses the middle of the outer aspect of the common carotid artery. (*h*) The **occipital vein** (v. occipitalis) occasionally terminates in the internal jugular vein. In many cases, however, it ends in the suboccipital plexus, which is drained by the vertebral and deep cervical veins (see p. 875).

The **common facial vein** (v. facialis communis) is formed by the union of the **facial vein** (v. facialis anterior) with the anterior division, or terminal branch, of a venous trunk which lies in substance of the parotid gland, and which is called the **temporo-maxillary vein** (v. facialis posterior). It accompanies the first part of the facial artery in the carotid triangle, passes between the sterno-mastoid, and terminates in the anterior border of the internal jugular vein. Just before it disappears beneath the sterno-mastoid, the common facial vein frequently gives off a large branch, which descends along the anterior border of the sterno-mastoid to the suprasternal fossa, where it joins the anterior jugular vein.

The **facial vein** (v. facialis anterior, Fig. 648) commences at the inner angle of the *orbit in the* angular vein, which is formed by the union of the supra-orbital and frontal

ins. It passes downwards and backwards on the face, from the inner angle of the orbit the lower and anterior part of the masseter muscle, which it crosses, lying in the same ane as the facial artery, but following a much straighter course. After crossing the wer border of the jaw it passes across the submaxillary triangle, superficial to the bmaxillary gland, and separate from the facial artery, which here lies in a deeper plane, id it terminates a short distance below the angle of the jaw by uniting with the anterior vision of the temporo-maxillary vein to form the common facial vein.

The facial vein receives tributaries corresponding with all the branches of the facial tery, except the ascending palatine and the tonsillar, which have no accompanying veins, ie blood from the region which they supply being returned for the most part through ie pharyngeal plexus. The facial vein also communicates with the pterygoid plexus hich surrounds the external pterygoid muscle by means of an anastomosing channel, illed the **deep facial vein**, which passes backwards between the masseter and buccinator uscles into the zygomatic fossa.

The **inferior thyroid veins** have already been described (see p. 875).

Subclavian Veins.—The subclavian vein (v. subclavia) of each side is the irect continuation of the main vein of the upper extremity, the axillary vein; but hrough its tributary, the external jugular vein, it also receives blood both from he superficial and deep parts of the head and neck.

From its commencement at the outer border of the first rib it runs inwards elow and in front of the corresponding artery, from which it is separated by the ower part of the scalenus anticus muscle, and it terminates behind the sternal nd of the clavicle, in the innominate vein of the corresponding side. As it passes nwards it forms a slight curve, the convexity of which is directed upwards.

Each subclavian vein possesses a single bicuspid valve which is situated imme- iately on the distal side of the opening of the external jugular vein.

Relations.—The subclavian vein is in relation in front with the posterior layer of the osto-coracoid membrane, which separates it from the subclavius muscle, and the nerve o the subclavius, and with the back of the sternal end of the clavicle, from which it is artly separated, however, by the fibres of the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles.

It is closely attached in front to the posterior surface of the costo-coracoid membrane, onsequently it is expanded when the clavicle is moved forwards, a condition of affairs hich constitutes a distinct danger when operations are being performed in the neighbour- ood of the vein, for in the event of the vessel being wounded, forward movement of the avicle may cause air to be sucked into the vein with fatal results.

Behind the vein, and on a higher plane, are the first and third parts of the subclavian tery, but it is separated from the second part by the scalenus anticus. To the inner de of the anterior scalene the posterior relations of the vein, in addition to the sub- avian artery, are the upper part of the internal mammary artery, the phrenic nerve, and ie cervical portion of the pleura.

It rests upon the upper surface of the first rib.

Tributaries.—Whilst the subclavian vein is the direct continuation of the axillary ein, and receives the blood from the upper extremity, it has, as a general rule, only one amed tributary, viz. the external jugular vein.

The **external jugular vein** (v. jugularis externa, Fig. 648) is formed on the uperficial surface of the sterno-mastoid muscle, a little below and behind the angle f the jaw, by the union of the posterior auricular vein with the posterior terminal ranch of the *temporo-maxillary vein*. After its formation the external jugular ein descends, with a slight obliquity backwards, to the anterior part of the ubclavian portion of the posterior triangle of the neck, where it pierces the deep ascia, and, after crossing in front of the third part of the subclavian artery, erminates in the subclavian vein.

Whilst on the surface of the sterno-mastoid muscle it is covered by the super- icial fascia and platysma muscle, and it lies parallel with, and slightly in front of, he great auricular nerve; after crossing the transverse cervical nerve it reaches he posterior border of the sterno-mastoid, where it receives a tributary called the **posterior external jugular vein**, which commences in the superficial tissues of the upper and back part of the neck, and runs downwards and forwards across the root

of the upper part of the posterior cervical triangle to its termination in the external jugular vein.

As the external jugular vein pierces the deep cervical fascia in the subclavian triangle, its wall is closely attached to the margin of the opening through which it passes, and as it is crossing in front of the third part of the subclavian artery it is joined by the suprascapular, transverse cervical, and anterior jugular veins.

There are usually two valves in the lower part of the vein—one, which is generally incompetent, at its termination, and a second at a higher level

Tributaries.—In addition to the posterior auricular vein and the posterior division

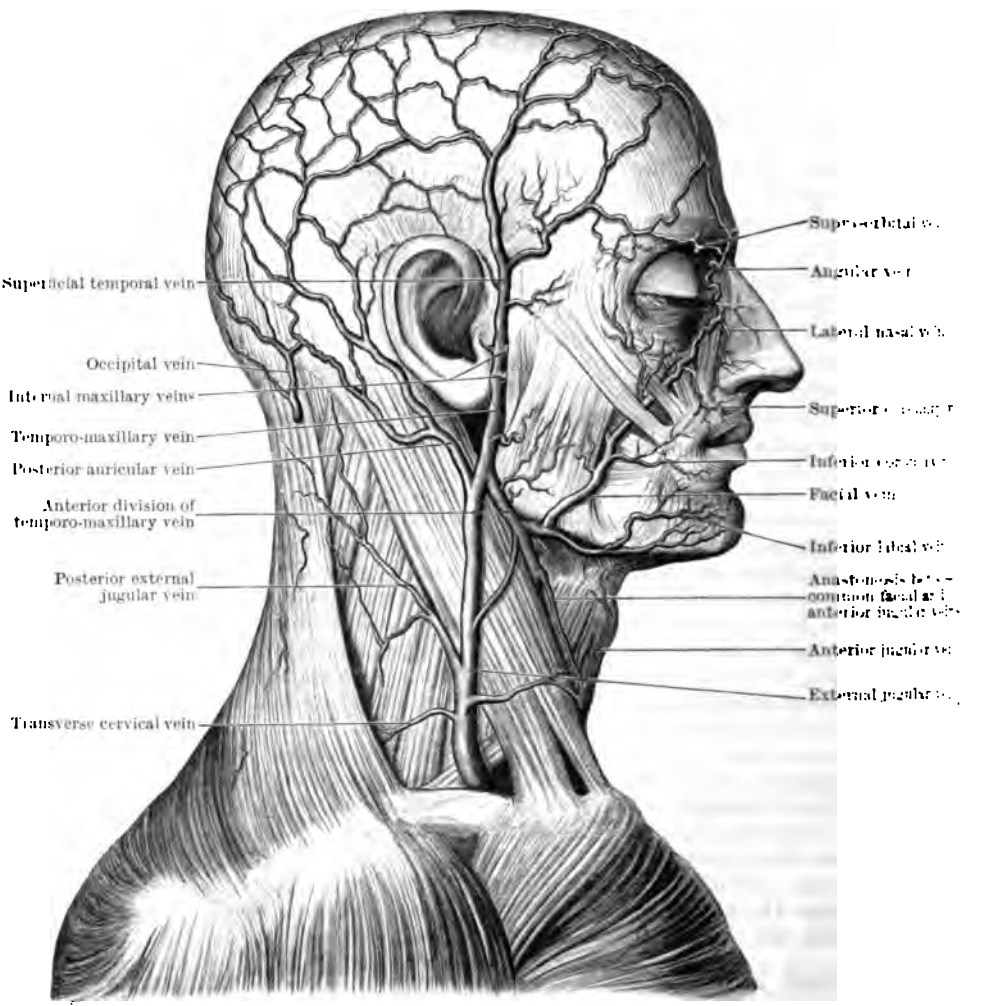


FIG. 648.—SUPERFICIAL VEINS OF THE HEAD AND NECK.

of the temporo-maxillary vein by which it is formed, the external jugular vein receives the posterior external jugular vein, which has already been described, the transverse cervical and suprascapular veins from the region of the shoulder, and the anterior jugular vein. Occasionally the cephalic vein also opens into it.

The **posterior auricular vein** (v. auricularis posterior, Fig. 648) receives tributaries from the posterior parts of the parietal and temporal regions and from the inner surface of the pinna. It is considerably larger than the posterior auricular artery, which it only accompanies in the scalp. At the base of the scalp it leaves the artery and descends in the superficial fascia, over the upper part of the sterno-mastoid, to open into the commencement of the external jugular vein.

The posterior division of the **temporo-maxillary vein** (see p. 880).

The **transverse cervical** and **suprascapular veins** accompany the corresponding teries; not infrequently they open directly into the subclavian vein.

The **anterior jugular vein** (v. jugularis anterior) commences over the anterior belly of e digastric muscle, and is formed by the union of small veins from the lower lip and the bmental region. It descends in the superficial fascia, at a variable distance from the iddle line, and perforates the superficial layer of the deep fascia just above the inner d of the clavicle. It there enters the space above the manubrium sterni, which lies tween the first and second layers of the deep cervical fascia, and which is called Burns's ace, where, after anastomosing with its fellow of the opposite side and receiving a mmunication from the facial vein, it turns outwards, between the sterno-mastoid superially and the sterno-hyoid, sterno-thyroid, and scalenus anticus muscles deeply, to rminate at the outer border of the latter muscle in the external jugular vein.

The Veins of the Scalp.

The veins which drain the blood from the superficial parts of the scalp are the ntal, the supra-orbital, the superficial temporal, the posterior auricular, and the cipital. The blood from the deeper part of the scalp, in the region of the nporal fossa on each side, passes into the deep temporal veins, which are butaries of the pterygoid plexus.

The **frontal** (v. frontalis) and **supra-orbital veins** (v. supra-orbitalis) receive blood m the inner and front part of the scalp. They unite together, near the upper d inner angle of the orbit, to form the *angular vein*; before the union is ected the supra-orbital vein sends a branch backwards through the supra-orbital tch into the orbital cavity, where it terminates in the ophthalmic vein, and as s branch passes through the notch it receives the frontal diploic vein (p. 881).

The **superficial temporal vein** (v. temporalis superficialis) receives tributaries m the outer part of the frontal region, from the greater part of the superial area of the temporal region, and from the anterior part of the parietal gion. It passes downwards, across the posterior root of the zygoma, into the rotid gland, where it unites with the internal maxillary vein to form the temporoaxillary trunk.

The **posterior auricular vein** (v. auricularis posterior) drains the posterior rtions of the temporal and parietal areas of the scalp. It runs downwards ross the mastoid portion of the temporal bone, and terminates in the external gular vein.

The **occipital vein** (v. occipitalis, Fig. 648) receives tributaries from the inner d posterior part of the parietal region and from the occipital region. As a rule pierces the occipital origin of the trapezius, and, passing deeply into the subcipital triangle, terminates in a plexus of veins which is drained by the vertebral d deep cervical veins. It sometimes communicates with the external jugular in, and occasionally an offset from it accompanies the corresponding artery and ds in the internal jugular vein.

It generally receives the mastoid emissary vein; one of its tributaries receives e parietal emissary vein, and occasionally an emissary vein from the torcular erophili opens into it.

The Veins of the Orbit, the Nose, and the Pterygo-maxillary Region.

The veins of these three regions are closely associated together; for although e orbital blood is returned for the most part to the cavernous sinus by the hthalmic vein, the latter vein is closely connected with the pterygoid plexus ich lies in the pterygo-maxillary region.

Veins of the Orbit.—The veins of the orbit correspond, with the exception of e frontal vein, with the branches of the ophthalmic artery, and they gradually verge, as they pass backwards in the orbit, until they form two main trunks, an per (v. ophthalmica superior) and a lower (v. ophthalmica inferior); these minate, separately or by a single trunk, in the anterior end of the cavernous us, to which they pass through the foramen lacerum anterius, and between the o heads of the external rectus muscle.

The superior ophthalmic vein communicates, at the internal angle of the orbit,

with the angular vein, and the inferior ophthalmic vein communicates through the spheno-maxillary fissure with the pterygoid plexus.

Veins of the Nose.—The veins of the walls of the nasal cavity end partly in the ethmoidal tributaries of the superior ophthalmic vein, partly in the septal affluent of the superior coronary and in the lateral nasal veins, both of which are tributaries of the facial vein; but the majority of the veins of the nose, both from the septal and outer walls, join together to form a spheno-palatine vein which passes through the spheno-palatine foramen and the spheno-maxillary fossa, and terminates in the pterygoid plexus.

Pterygoid Plexus and the Internal Maxillary Vein.—The **pterygoid plexus** (plexus pterygoideus) of veins lies in the zygomatic and pterygoid fossæ. It covers the inner surface of the internal pterygoid muscle, and surrounds the external pterygoid. It receives tributaries which correspond with and accompany the branches of the internal maxillary artery—viz. spheno-palatine, pterygo-palatine, vidian, infra-orbital, posterior superior dental, posterior palatine, buccal, two or three deep temporal, pterygoid, masseteric, and inferior dental veins, and the vena comites of the middle meningeal artery. It communicates superiorly with the cavernous sinus through the foramen ovale, anteriorly with the inferior ophthalmic vein through the spheno-maxillary fissure, and between the masseter and the buccinator with the facial vein by the deep facial anastomosing branch. It also communicates posteriorly and internally, on the inner side of the internal pterygoid, with the pharyngeal plexus, and it terminates posteriorly in the internal maxillary vein.

The **internal maxillary vein** is a short vessel which accompanies the first part of the internal maxillary artery, between the spheno-mandibular ligament and the neck of the lower jaw; it enters the parotid gland, and terminates by uniting with the superficial temporal vein to form the temporo-maxillary trunk. Occasionally the internal maxillary vein is double.

The **temporo-maxillary vein** (v. facialis posterior) is a short trunk which is formed in the upper part of the parotid gland, behind the neck of the jaw, by the union of the superficial temporal and internal maxillary veins. As it descends it lies superficial to the external carotid artery, and it is crossed by the cervico- and temporo-facial branches of the facial nerve. It terminates at the lower part of the parotid gland by dividing into posterior and anterior divisions. The posterior division passes backwards, perforates the deep cervical fascia, and unites on the upper part of the sterno-mastoid muscle with the posterior auricular vein to form the external jugular vein. The anterior division passes downwards and forwards into the carotid triangle, where it terminates in the common facial vein.

VENOUS SINUSES AND VEINS OF THE CRANIUM AND OF ITS CONTENTS.

The venous channels met with in the cranial walls and cranial cavity are:—

(1) The diploic veins (vv. diploicæ), which lie in the cancellous tissue between the outer and inner tables of the cranial bones.

(2) The meningeal veins, which accompany the meningeal arteries in the outer layer of the dura mater.

(3) The veins of the brain, which lie between the folds of pia mater and in the subarachnoid space.

(4) The cranial venous sinuses, channels which are situated between the outer and inner layers of the dura mater; they receive the blood from the terminal cerebral veins.

Diploic and Meningeal Veins.

The **diploic veins** (vv. diploicæ) are anastomosing spaces in the cancellous tissue of the flat bones of the skull; they are lined by endothelium. The number of efferent vessels which emerge from these spaces is not constant, but usually there are at least four—viz. a frontal, two temporal, anterior and posterior, and an occipital.

The **frontal diploic vein** (v. diploica frontalis) is one of the most constant; it drains the anterior part of the frontal bone, and, passing through a small aperture in the upper margin of the supraorbital notch, terminates in the supraorbital vein.

The **anterior temporal diploic vein** (v. diploica temporalis anterior) drains the posterior part of the frontal bone and the anterior part of the parietal bone; it pierces the great wing of the sphenoid, and terminates either in the spheno-parietal sinus or in the anterior deep temporal vein.

The **posterior temporal diploic vein** (v. diploica temporalis posterior) drains the posterior part of the parietal bone; it runs downwards to the posterior inferior angle of the parietal bone, and terminates in the lateral sinus, to which it passes either through a foramen in the inner table of the parietal bone or through the mastoid foramen.

The **occipital diploic vein** (v. diploica occipitalis) is usually the largest of the

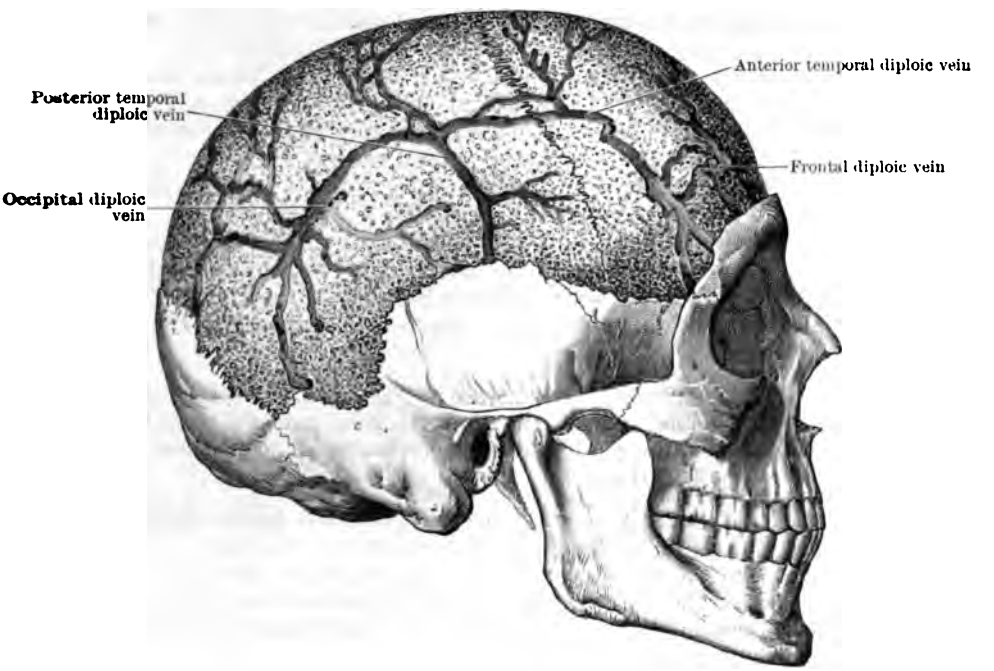


FIG. 649.—THE VEINS OF THE DIPLOË.

series; it drains the occipital bone, and terminates either externally in the occipital vein or internally in the lateral sinus.

The **meningeal veins** (v. meningeæ) commence in two capillary plexuses, a deep and a superficial. The deep plexus is a wide-meshed network in the inner layer of the dura mater. Its efferent vessels terminate in the superficial plexus. The superficial plexus lies in the outer layer of the dura mater. It consists of numerous vessels of uniform calibre which frequently anastomose together, and terminate in two sets of efferents; of these, one set ends in the cranial blood sinuses, and the other accompanies the meningeal arteries. The efferent meningeal veins are peculiar, inasmuch as they do not increase in size as they approach their terminations, and they are irregular in their relations to the arteries; as a rule the middle meningeal arteries alone possess two venæ comites, the other meningeal arteries usually having only one accompanying vein.

VEINS OF THE BRAIN.

The veins of the brain include the veins of the cerebrum, of the mid-brain, of the cerebellum, of the pons, and of the medulla oblongata. They do not possess valves.

Veins of the Cerebrum (vv. cerebri).—The cerebral veins are arranged in two groups, (*a*) the deep and (*b*) the superficial.

The deep veins issue from the substance of the brain. The superficial veins lie upon its surface in the pia mater and the subarachnoid space. The terminal trunks of both sets pierce the arachnoid membrane and the inner layer of the dura mater, and open into the cranial venous sinuses.

(*a*) The **deep cerebral veins** are the choroid veins, the veins of the corpora striata, the veins of Galen, and the inferior striate veins.

Each **choroid vein** (v. chorioidea) is formed by the union of tributaries which issue from the choroid plexus in the descending horn of a lateral ventricle. It ascends along the lateral border of the velum interpositum, and passes forwards in the outer border of that fold of pia mater to the foramen of Monro, where it receives efferents from the choroid plexus of the third ventricle, and ends by uniting with the vein of the corpus striatum to form the vein of Galen.

The **vein of the corpus striatum**, on each side, is formed by the union of tributaries which issue from the corpus striatum and from the optic thalamus. It runs forwards between these bodies, in a groove in the floor of the lateral ventricle, and, after receiving tributaries from the walls of the anterior horn of the ventricle, including the septum lucidum, it terminates at the apex of the velum interpositum, where it joins the choroid vein to form the vein of Galen.

The **veins of Galen** are three in number—a right and a left vein, and the vena magna Galeni.

Each lateral vein of Galen commences at the apex of the velum interpositum, near the foramen of Monro, by the union of the vein of the corpus striatum with the choroid vein. The two veins run backwards between the layers of the velum, and terminate beneath the splenium of the corpus callosum by uniting to form the vena magna Galeni.

The tributaries which enter each vein, after its formation, are the basilar vein, the efferent veins from the choroid plexus of the third ventricle, and veins from the posterior part of the corpus callosum, the pineal body, the corpora quadrigemina, and the walls of the posterior cornu of the lateral ventricle.

The **vena magna Galeni** (v. cerebri magna [Galeni]) passes backwards and slightly upwards from its origin, and ends in the anterior extremity of the straight sinus. In addition to the two veins of Galen, by the union of which it is formed, it receives tributaries from the posterior parts of the callosal convolutions, from the inner and tentorial surfaces of the occipital lobes of the brain, and from the upper surface of the cerebellum.

An **inferior striate vein** descends on each side from the substance of the corpus striatum, and, after passing through the anterior perforated space, ends in the basilar vein (p. 883), which, as already stated, is a tributary of the corresponding lateral vein of Galen.

(*b*) The **superficial cerebral veins** are more numerous and of larger calibre than the cerebral arteries. They lie upon the surface of the cerebrum, they drain blood from the cerebral cortex, and they are divisible into two sets, the superior and the inferior.

The **superior cerebral veins** (vv. cerebri superiores), twelve or more in number, lie in the pia mater and subarachnoid space on the upper and outer aspect of the cerebral hemispheres. They run inwards to the margin of the longitudinal fissure, where they receive tributaries from the inner surface of the hemispheres, and they terminate in the superior longitudinal sinus. The anterior veins of this set are small and run transversely inwards, but the posterior are large and run obliquely forwards and inwards; they are embedded for some distance in the wall of the sinus, and their orifices are directed forwards against the blood stream.

The **inferior cerebral veins** (vv. cerebri inferiores) lie on the lower and outer aspects of the cerebral hemispheres; they run downwards and inwards, and terminate in the sinuses which lie at the base of the skull—viz. the cavernous, the superior petrosal, and the lateral sinuses. One of these veins, the **superficial Sylvian vein**, runs along the posterior horizontal limb and stem of the fissure of Sylvius to the

vernous sinus; occasionally it is united by an anastomotic loop, known as the **eat anastomotic vein** of Trolard, with the superior longitudinal sinus, and sometimes by the **posterior anastomotic vein** with the lateral sinus.

The **anterior cerebral vein** of each side lies in the great longitudinal fissure, and companies the corresponding anterior cerebral artery; it receives tributaries from ie corpus callosum and the callosal convolution. Turning downwards round the nu of the corpus callosum, it reaches the base of the brain, and terminates in the silar vein.

The **deep Sylvian vein** lies deeply in the fissure of Sylvius; it anastomoses freely ith the superficial Sylvian vein, receives tributaries from the island of Reil and ie adjacent opercula, and terminates in the basilar vein.

The **basilar vein** commences at the anterior perforated space; it is formed by the nion of the anterior cerebral vein with the deep Sylvian vein and with the inferior riate vein. Passing backwards round the crus cerebri, it terminates in a vein f Galen. Its tributaries are derived from the tuber cinereum, the corpus albicans, ie posterior perforated space, the uncinate gyrus, the inferior cornu of the lateral ntricle, and the crus cerebri.

Veins of the Mid-brain.—The veins of the mid-brain terminate for the most art in the veins of Galen.

Cerebellar Veins.—These veins also are divisible into two groups, the superficial and the deep. The former are quite independent of and much more umerous than the arteries. They form two sets, the superior and the inferior.

The **superior superficial cerebellar veins** (vv. cerebelli superiores) terminate in a ingle median or vermian efferent vessel which is sometimes double, and in several ateral efferents. The superior vermian vein runs forwards and ends in the vena agna Galeni, and the lateral superior cerebellar veins terminate in the lateral inuses or in the superior petrosal sinuses.

The **inferior superficial cerebellar veins** (vv. cerebelli inferiores) also form a mall vermian and numerous lateral efferents; the former runs backwards and oins either the straight sinus or one of the lateral sinuses, and the latter end in he inferior petrosal and occipital sinuses.

The **deep cerebellar veins** issue from the substance of the cerebellum and erminate in the superficial veins.

Veins of the Pons Varolii.—The deep veins from the substance of the pons pass orwards to its anterior surface, where they become superficial, and, anastomosing ogether, form a plexus which is drained by superior and inferior efferent veins. The superior efferent veins join the basilar vein; the inferior efferent veins either nite with the cerebellar veins, or they open into the superior petrosal sinus.

Veins of the Medulla Oblongata.—Deep veins of the bulb issue from its substance and end in a superficial plexus. This plexus is drained by an anterior and posterior median vein and by radicular veins.

The **anterior median vein** is continuous below with the corresponding vein of the pinal cord; it communicates above with the plexus on the surface of the pons.

The **posterior median vein** is continuous below with the posterior median vein f the cord, from which it ascends to the lower end of the fourth ventricle, where ; divides into two branches which join the inferior petrosal or basilar sinuses.

The **radicular veins** issue from the lateral parts of the plexus and run with the oots of the last four cranial nerves; they end in the inferior petrosal and occipital nuses.

Blood Sinuses of the Cranium.

The **venous sinuses** of the cranium are spaces between the layers of the dura mater; hey are lined by an endothelium which is continuous with the endothelium of the eins. They receive the veins of the brain, communicate frequently with the eningeal veins and with veins external to the cranium, and terminate directly or ndirectly in the internal jugular vein. Some of the cranial blood sinuses are npaired, others are paired.

Unpaired Sinuses.—These are the superior longitudinal, the inferior longiudinal, the straight, the circular, and the basilar.

The **superior longitudinal sinus** (sinus sagittalis superior) commences in the anterior fossa of the cranium, at the crista galli, where it communicates through the foramen cæcum with the veins of the nasal cavity or with the angular vein. It passes upwards, then backwards, and finally downwards in the convex margin of the falx cerebri, grooving the frontal, parietal, and upper part of the occipital bones. As it descends it passes slightly to the right side, and it ends at the level of the internal occipital protuberance by becoming the right lateral sinus. Instead

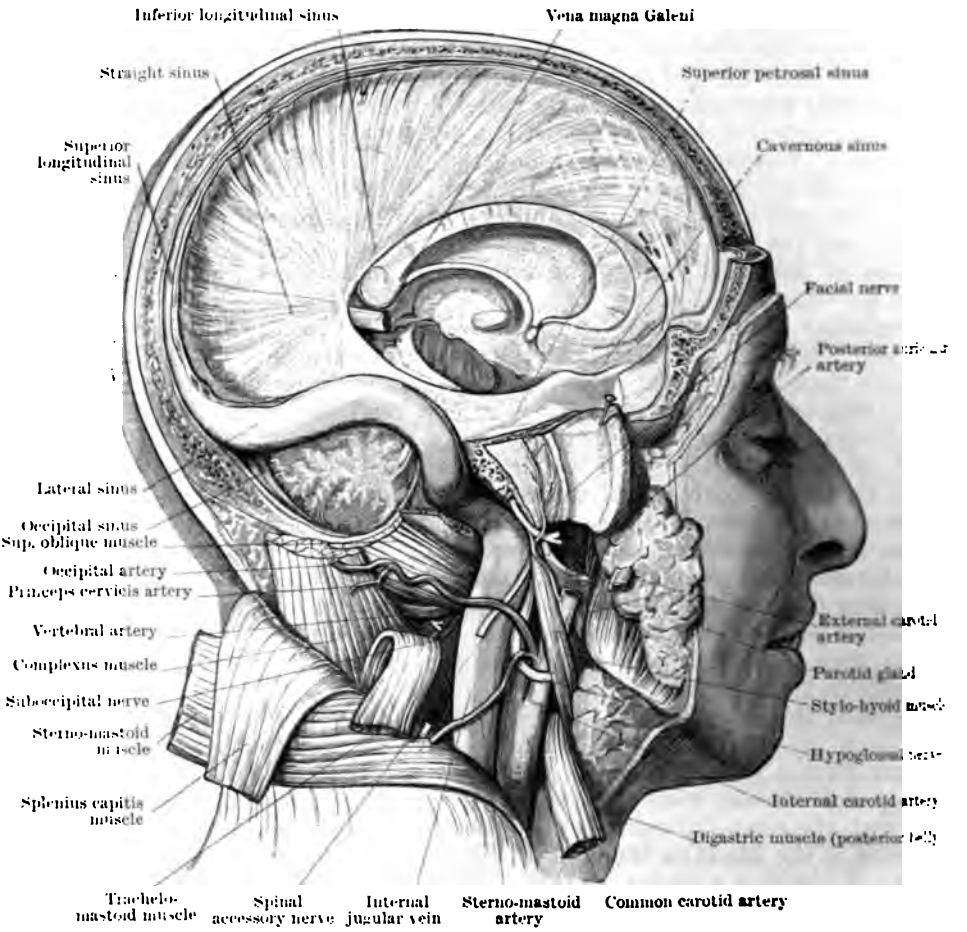


FIG. 650.—DISSECTION OF THE HEAD AND NECK, showing the cranial blood sinuses and the upper part of the internal jugular vein.

of passing to the right, it occasionally turns to the left, and ends in the left lateral sinus. In either case its termination is associated with a well-marked dilatation, the *torcular Herophili*, which marks a confluence of sinuses, and which is lodged in a depression at one side of the internal occipital protuberance. The torcular is connected across the protuberance, by an anastomosing channel with a similar dilatation, which marks the junction of the straight sinus with the lateral sinus of the opposite side. Opening into the superior longitudinal sinus are the superior cerebral veins, and it communicates on each side by small openings with a series of spaces in the dura mater, the **lacunæ laterales**, into which the Pacchionian bodies (arachnoidal villi) project. It also communicates, by emissary veins which pass through the foramen cæcum and through each parietal foramen (emissarium parietale), with the veins on the exterior of the cranium. Its cavity, which is triangular in transverse section, is crossed by several fibrous strands called the **chordæ Willisii**.

The **inferior longitudinal sinus** (sinus sagittalis inferior) lies in the posterior two-thirds of the lower free margin of the falx cerebri. It terminates posteriorly

by joining with the vena magna Galeni to form the straight sinus. It is circular in transverse section, and it receives tributaries from the falx cerebri and from the inner surface of the middle third of each cerebral hemisphere.

The **circular sinus** (sinus circularis) is situated in the pituitary fossa, and surrounds the pituitary body. It is usually formed by anterior (sinus intercavernosus anterior) and posterior (sinus intercavernosus posterior) transverse channels which pass across the pituitary fossa from one cavernous sinus to the other.

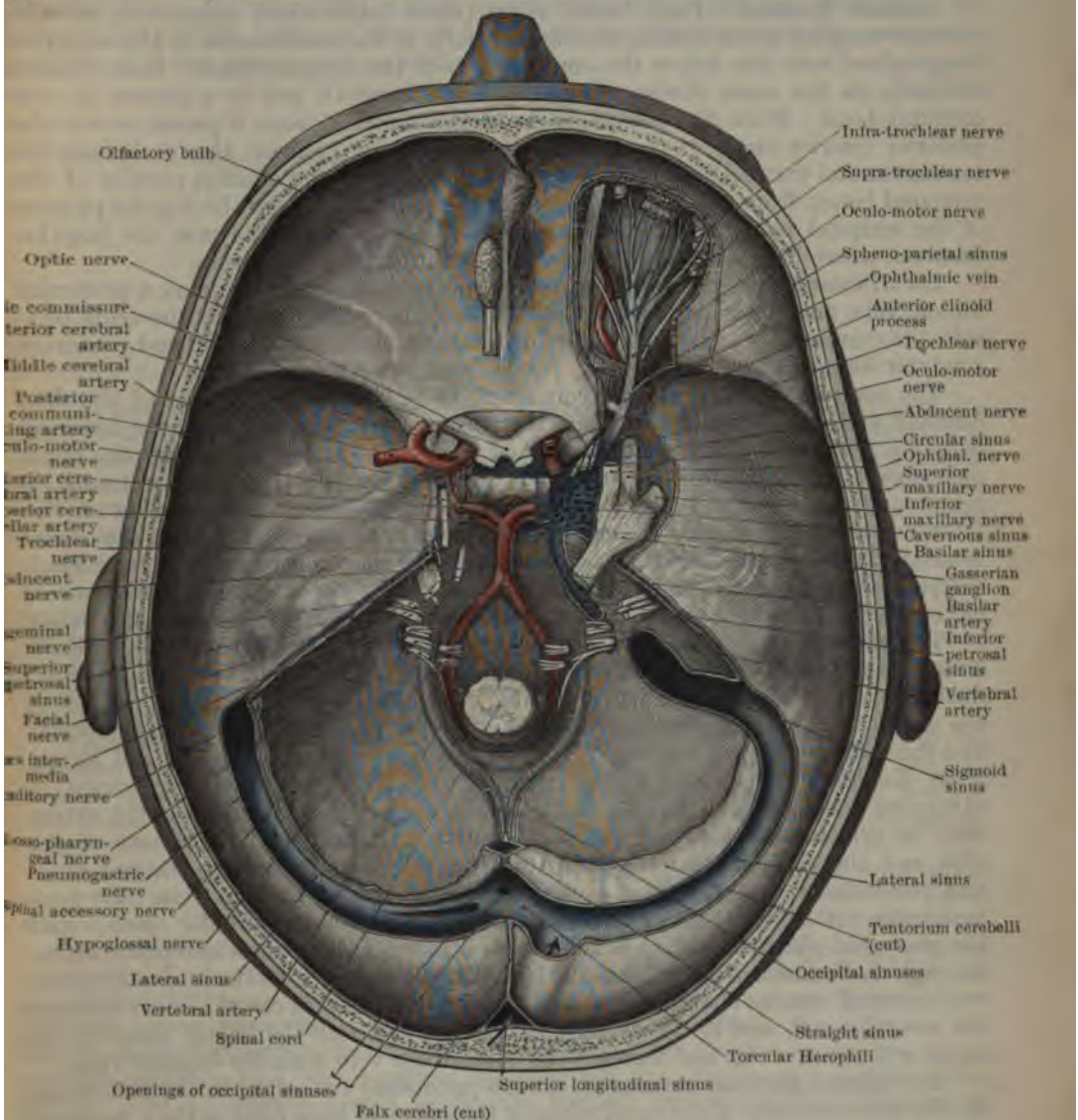


FIG. 651.—BASAL BLOOD SINUSES OF THE DURA MATER.

The **basilar sinus** (plexus basilaris).—The term basilar sinus is applied to a venous plexus situated in the dura mater on the basilar part of the occipital bone. It connects the posterior ends of the cavernous or the anterior ends of the inferior petrosal sinuses together, and communicates below with the anterior spinal veins.

The **straight sinus** (sinus rectus) is formed by the union of the inferior longitudinal sinus with the great vein of Galen. It runs downwards and backwards, along the line of attachment of the falx cerebri to the tentorium cerebelli. As a general rule it turns to the left at the internal occipital protuberance, dilates somewhat, and becomes continuous with the left lateral sinus, its dilatation being united

with the corresponding dilatation on the lower end of the superior longitudinal sinus—the torcular Herophili—by a transverse anastomosing channel. Occasionally the straight sinus terminates in the right lateral sinus, and in that case the superior longitudinal sinus ends in the left lateral sinus. It receives some of the superior cerebellar veins and a few tributaries from the falx cerebri.

Paired Sinuses.—There are six pairs of sinuses, viz. the lateral, the occipital, the cavernous, the superior petrosal, the inferior petrosal, and the spheno-parietal.

Lateral Sinuses.—Each lateral sinus (sinus transversus) commences at the internal occipital protuberance, the right usually as the continuation of the superior longitudinal, and the left as the continuation of the straight sinus. Each passes outwards in the outer border of the tentorium cerebelli and in a groove in the occipital bone. From the lateral angle of the occipital bone it passes on to the posterior inferior angle of the parietal bone, which it grooves; then it leaves the tentorium and turns downwards on the inner surface of the mastoid portion of the temporal bone; from the latter it passes to the upper surface of the jugular process of the occipital bone, and turns forwards and then downwards into the jugular foramen, where it becomes continuous with the internal jugular vein.

Its tributaries are some of the superior and inferior cerebellar veins, a posterior diploic vein, and the superior petrosal sinus. It is connected with the veins outside the cranium by emissary veins which pass through the mastoid and posterior condylar foramina.

The **occipital sinuses** (sinus occipitales) lie in the attached border of the falx cerebelli and in the dura mater along the postero-lateral boundaries of the foramen magnum: frequently they unite above and open by a single channel into the commencement of either the right or the left lateral sinus, but their upper extremities may remain separate, and then each communicates with the commencement of the lateral sinus of its own side. They open below into the terminal part of the corresponding lateral sinuses, and they communicate with the posterior spinal veins. Each occipital sinus is an anastomosing channel between the upper and lower extremities of the lateral sinus of the same side, and each receives a few inferior cerebellar veins.

The **cavernous sinuses** lie at the sides of the body of the sphenoid bone. Each sinus (sinus cavernosus) commences anteriorly at the inner end of the sphenoidal fissure, where it receives the corresponding ophthalmic vein, and it terminates at the apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone by dividing into the superior and the inferior petrosal sinuses. Its cavity, which is irregular in size and shape, is so divided by numerous fibrous strands that it assumes the appearance of cavernous tissue, and in its outer wall are embedded the internal carotid artery with its sympathetic plexuses, the third, fourth, first, and second divisions of the fifth, and the sixth cranial nerves. Its tributaries are the spheno-parietal sinus and the inferior cerebral veins, including the superficial Sylvian vein. It communicates with the opposite cavernous sinus by means of the circular sinus; with the pterygoid plexus in the zygomatic fossa by an emissary vein which passes either through the foramen ovale or through the foramen Vesalii; with the internal jugular vein by small venous channels which accompany the internal carotid artery through the carotid canal, and by the inferior petrosal sinus; with the lateral sinus by the superior petrosal sinus, and through the ophthalmic vein with the angular vein.

The **spheno-parietal sinuses** (s. spheno-parietales) are lodged in the dura mater on the under surfaces of the small wings of the sphenoid bone close to their posterior borders. Each sinus communicates with the middle meningeal veins, receives veins from the dura mater, and terminates in the anterior part of the corresponding cavernous sinus.

Superior Petrosal Sinuses.—Each superior petrosal sinus (s. petrosus superior) commences at the apex of the petrous portion of the temporal bone in the posterior end of the corresponding cavernous sinus. It runs backwards and outwards in the attached margin of the tentorium cerebelli, above the fifth cranial nerve, and grooves the upper border of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, at the outer extremity of which it terminates in the lateral sinus at the point where the latter is turning downwards on the inner surface of the mastoid portion of the temporal bone. It *receives* inferior cerebral, superior cerebellar, tympanic, and diploic veins.

Inferior Petrosal Sinuses.—An inferior petrosal sinus (s. petrosus inferior) commences at the posterior end of each cavernous sinus; it runs backwards, outwards, and downwards in the posterior fossa of the cranium, in a groove along the lower margin of the petrous portion of the temporal bone and the adjacent border of the basilar portion of the occipital bone, to the anterior compartment of the jugular foramen of the same side, through which it passes. It crosses the last four cranial nerves either externally or internally, and it terminates in the internal jugular vein. Its tributaries include inferior cerebellar veins and veins from the internal ear, which pass to it through the internal auditory meatus, the aqueductus cochlea, and the aqueductus vestibuli.

The Spinal Veins.

The spinal veins include—

(1) The extra-spinal veins.
  (*a*) The anterior spinal plexus.
  (*b*) „ posterior „
(2) The veins of the bodies of the vertebræ.
(3) The intra-spinal veins.
  (*a*) The anterior longitudinal veins.
  (*b*) „ posterior „ „
(4) The veins of the spinal cord.

The **anterior spinal plexus** lies in front of the bodies of the vertebræ. It consists of a number of relatively small anastomosing channels, which communicate with the veins of the bodies of the vertebræ, and which receive tributaries from the adjacent muscles and ligaments. Its efferent vessels terminate in the cervical region in the anterior deep cervical vein, in the dorsal region in intercostal veins, in the lumbar region in the lumbar veins, and in the sacral region in the lateral sacral veins.

The **posterior spinal plexus** consists of numerous anastomosing venous channels which lie on the laminæ and round the spines and the articular and transverse processes of the vertebræ. The plexus receives tributaries from the muscles and skin of the back, and communicates, through the ligamenta subflava, with the posterior longitudinal spinal veins in the interior of the spinal canal. Its efferent vessels pass between the transverse processes of the vertebræ, or through the sacral foramina, and terminate in the vertebral, the intercostal, the lumbar, and the lateral sacral veins respectively.

Veins of the Bodies of the Vertebræ.—The cancellous tissue of the bodies of the vertebræ is permeated by large venous channels which communicate anteriorly with the anterior spinal plexus. These channels terminate posteriorly in the *venæ basis vertebræ*, which open into transverse anastomosing vessels which connect the anterior longitudinal spinal veins.

Anterior Longitudinal Spinal Veins.—Two anterior longitudinal spinal veins collect blood from the bodies of the vertebræ, from the adjacent ligaments, and from the spinal dura mater. They are plexiform vessels which extend from the foramen magnum to the coccyx, behind the bodies of the vertebræ and along the margins of the posterior common ligament, and they are connected together, opposite each vertebral body, by transverse anastomoses which lie between the posterior common ligament and the bodies of the vertebræ; these transverse anastomoses are greatly dilated opposite the centres of the bodies where they receive the venæ basis vertebræ. Each anterior longitudinal spinal vein communicates round the margin of the canal with the corresponding posterior vein, and it gives off efferent vessels which pass through the intervertebral foramina to terminate, according to the region in which they are placed, in the vertebral, intercostal, lumbar, or lateral sacral veins.

Superiorly the anterior longitudinal spinal veins give off large offsets, above the arch of the atlas, which form the commencement of the vertebral veins; through the foramen magnum they communicate with the basilar and with the occipital sinuses.

The **posterior longitudinal spinal veins** are placed, one on each side, between the dura mater anteriorly and the laminæ and ligamenta subflava posteriorly. They are plexiform vessels which extend along the whole length of the spinal canal. They receive tributaries from the laminæ, ligaments, and spinal membranes, and from a post-spinal plexus of veins which lies between the laminæ of the vertebræ and the deep muscles of the back; they anastomose with each other by transverse channels which pass across the laminæ, with the posterior spinal plexus by vessels which pierce the ligamenta subflava, and with the

anterior longitudinal veins round the margins of the canal. Their efferent vessels unite with those of the anterior longitudinal veins, and terminate with them.

By means of the longitudinal spinal veins and the anastomoses between them, a venous ring is formed within the spinal canal opposite each vertebra. Commencing in front, opposite the body of the vertebra, where it receives the vena basis vertebræ, it passes outwards to the anterior longitudinal spinal vein, turns backwards along the inner side of the pedicle and the inner surface of the lamina to the posterior longitudinal vein, and is completed by the anastomoses between the posterior longitudinal veins. This ring communicates through the ligamenta subflava with the posterior spinal plexus, and through the intervertebral foramina with the vertebral, with the dorsal tributaries of the intercostal or lumbar veins, or with the lateral sacral veins, according to the region in which it lies.

Superiorly the posterior longitudinal spinal veins communicate with the occipital sinuses, and as these also communicate with the anterior spinal veins, and the latter with the basilar sinus, a venous ring is completed round the foramen magnum.

Veins of the Spinal Cord.—The veins of the spinal cord issue from the substance of the cord, and terminate in a plexus in the pia mater. In this plexus there are six longitudinal channels—one *antero-median*, along the anterior fissure, two *antero-lateral*, immediately behind the anterior nerve roots, two *postero-lateral*, immediately behind the posterior nerve roots, and one *postero-median*, over the posterior septum. Radicular efferent vessels issue from the plexus, and pass along the nerve roots to communicate with the efferent vessels from the anterior and posterior longitudinal spinal veins, and to terminate in them. The veins of the spinal cord vary very much in size, but they are largest on the lower and on the posterior portions of the cord.

The postero-median and antero-median veins are continued above into the corresponding veins of the medulla oblongata.

The antero-lateral and postero-lateral veins pour their blood partly into the median veins and partly into the radicular veins; indeed, the greater part of the blood from the spinal cord is returned by the latter veins.

THE VEINS OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The veins of each upper extremity are divisible into two sets—viz. **superficial** and **deep**. Both sets open eventually into a common terminal trunk which is known as the **axillary vein**. This vein is therefore the chief efferent stem of the upper extremity. It is continued as the subclavian vein to the innominate vein, and its blood, together with that of the corresponding side of the head and neck, reaches the superior vena cava.

The Deep Veins of the Upper Extremity.

The deep veins, with the exception of the axillary vein, are arranged in pairs which accompany the different arteries and are similarly named. So far as these veins (venæ comites) are concerned it will be sufficient to state that they are provided with valves, that they are situated one on either side of the artery with which they are associated, and that they are usually united together by numerous transverse anastomoses which cross in front of or behind the artery. The axillary vein, however, requires more detailed consideration.

The Axillary Vein.

The **axillary vein** (v. axillaris, Fig. 629) commences as the direct continuation of the basilic vein, opposite the lower border of the teres major. It passes upwards and inwards through the axilla, along the inner side of the corresponding artery, and terminates at the outer border of the first rib by becoming the subclavian vein. It possesses a bicuspid valve which is usually situated opposite the lower border of the subscapularis muscle.

Relations.—Its anterior relations are similar to those of the axillary artery, but, in addition, the vein is crossed in front, under cover of the clavicular part of the pectoralis

major, by the pectoral branches of the acromio-thoracic artery, and by branches of the internal anterior thoracic nerve, and it receives in front, just above the upper border of the pectoralis minor, the termination of the cephalic vein.

Behind it are the muscles which form the posterior wall of the axilla, the axillary fat, and the first serration of the serratus magnus. The long thoracic nerve intervenes between it and the serratus magnus, and the subscapular nerves and the subscapular artery pass between it and the subscapularis.

It is separated from the axillary artery on the outer side, in the lower part of its extent by the ulnar and internal cutaneous nerves, in the middle of its course by the inner cord of the brachial plexus, and in the upper part of the axilla, behind the costo-coracoid membrane, by the internal anterior thoracic nerve. To its inner side lie the outer set of axillary glands, and in the lower part of the axilla the lesser internal cutaneous nerve.

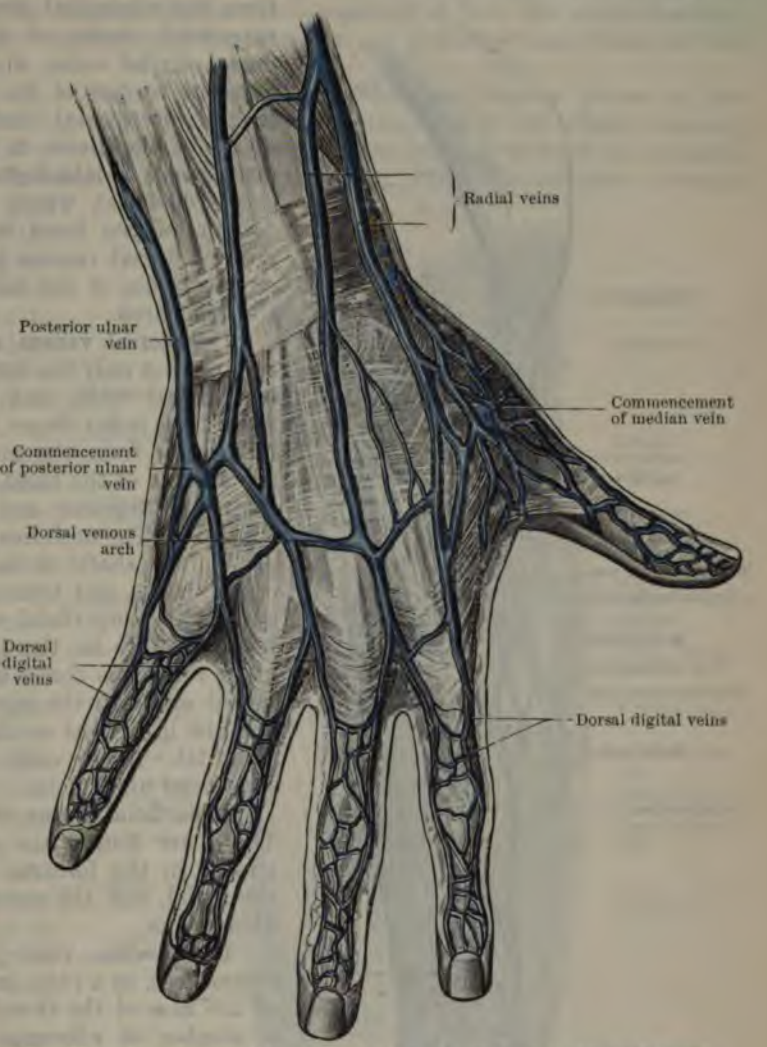


FIG. 652.—SUPERFICIAL VEINS ON THE DORSUM OF THE HAND AND DIGITS.

Tributaries.—In addition to tributaries corresponding with the branches of the axillary artery, it receives the venæ comites of the brachial artery, at the lower border of the subscapularis, and the cephalic vein, which joins it at the upper border of the small pectoral muscle.

THE SUPERFICIAL VEINS OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The superficial veins of the upper extremity commence in the superficial fascia of the palm and dorsum of the hand and of the fingers.

The superficial veins of the palmar aspects of the fingers terminate for the most part in **dorsal digital veins**, which run along the dorso-lateral borders of the digits; some, however, pass upwards into the palm and join the superficial palmar veins, which, in comparison with the superficial dorsal veins, are relatively few and small. The superficial veins of the palm anastomose together, forming a more or less polygonal plexus from which some efferent vessels pass laterally round the borders of the palm to the dorsal plexus of the hand, whilst others ascend towards the wrist, where they end either in the median or the anterior ulnar superficial veins of the forearm.

The superficial veins on the dorsal aspect of each digit form two longitudinal vessels, the **dorsal digital veins** (vv. digitales dorsales propriæ), which ascend along the dorso-lateral borders of the digit. They receive tributaries from the palmar aspect of the digit, from the pulp of the tip, from the subungual tissues, and from the superficial tissues of the dorsum. The dorsal digital veins, which run along the adjacent borders of the second, third, and fourth interdigital clefts, unite, at the apices of the clefts, to form three **dorsal interosseous** or **interdigital veins** (vv. metacarpæ dorsales), which terminate on the dorsum of the hand in a dorsal venous arch or dorsal venous plexus; the radial or outer vein of the index-finger ends in the same arch.

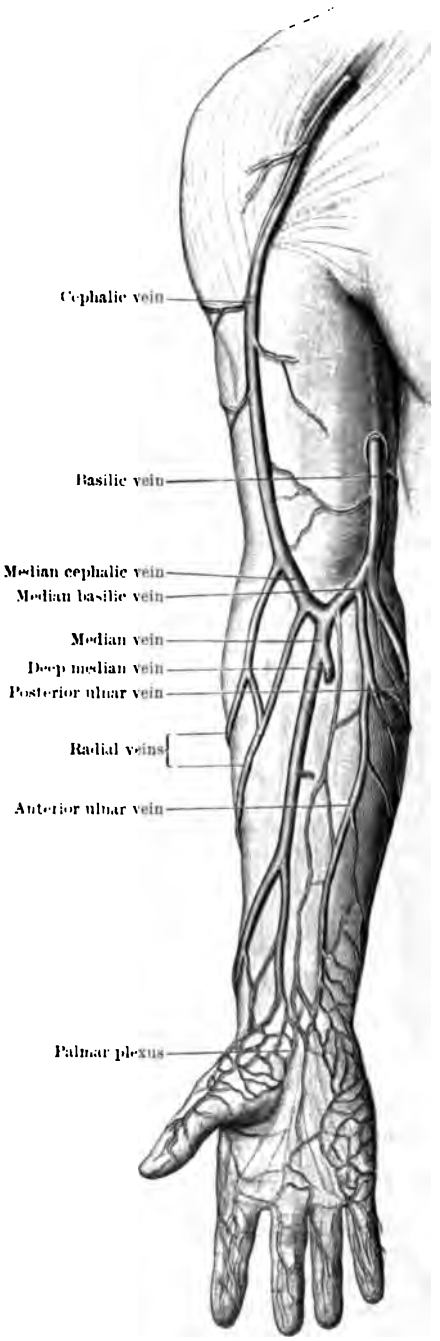


FIG. 653.—SUPERFICIAL VEINS ON THE FLEXOR ASPECT OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The **dorsal venous arch** of the hand receives not only the dorsal interosseous or interdigital veins, and the radial digital vein of the index-finger, but also numerous tributaries from the superficial tissues of the dorsum of the hand, which anastomose frequently together and form a plexiform network. The arch lies opposite the lower parts of the shafts of the four inner metacarpal bones, and terminates at its radial end in the superficial radial vein, and at its ulnar end in the posterior or dorsal ulnar vein; the dorsal digital veins of the thumb open into the superficial radial vein, and the innermost or ulnar digital vein of the little finger ends in the posterior superficial ulnar vein.

Superficial Veins of the Forearm.—There are four main superficial venous trunks in the forearm—viz. the median, the radial, and the anterior and posterior ulnar veins.

The **median vein** (v. mediana cubiti) commences, as a rule, on the dorsal aspect of the base of the thumb by the union of a number of efferents from the dorsal plexus; it turns round the radial border of the forearm, receives numerous tributaries from the radial and median portions of the palm, and ascends to the middle of the bend of the elbow, where it is joined by the *deep median vein*, a large anastomosing channel which connects it with the deep veins, and immediately afterwards terminates by dividing into median cephalic and median basilic branches.

The **median cephalic** (v. mediana cephalica), or outer branch of the median vein, runs upwards and outwards in the groove between the biceps and the supinator longus muscles. It crosses the musculo-cutaneous nerve superficially, and terminates, a short distance above the external condyle, by uniting with the *radial* vein to form the cephalic vein.

The **median basilic vein** (v. mediana basilica) is the inner branch of the ıedian vein. Running more transversely than the median cephalic vein, it passes pwards and inwards along the groove between the biceps and the pronator radii teres. t is crossed superficially by the anterior terminal branch of the internal cutaneous erve; it lies upon the bicipital fascia, which separates it from the brachial artery, nd it terminates by uniting with the anterior and posterior ulnar veins to form he basilic vein.

The **radial vein** (v. radialis) commences in the dorsal venous plexus of the ıand, and, after receiving some of the dorsal digital veins of the thumb, runs up he radial border of the forearm in relation with the anterior division of the musculo-utaneous nerve. It receives tributaries from the subcutaneous tissue through rhich it passes, and erminates at the outer ide of the bend of the lbow by uniting with he median cephalic ranch of the median ein to form the cephalic ein. It contains several alves.

The **anterior and osterior ulnar veins** vv. ulnares) vary con-derably in size, but as rule the posterior is ıe larger. Both are rovided with valves.

The **anterior ulnar ein** commences at the ase of the little finger, y the union of tribu-aries from the ulnar art of the dorsal venous lexus and from the lnar side of the palm; t ascends along the ront of the ulnar side f the forearm, and it erminates in the basilic ranch of the median ein.

The **posterior ulnar ein** commences in the lorsal venous plexus; t receives the ulnar lorsal digital vein of the little finger, and ascends along the dorsal side of the ılnar aspect of the forearm. It terminates by joining the basilic branch of the nedian vein to form the basilic vein.

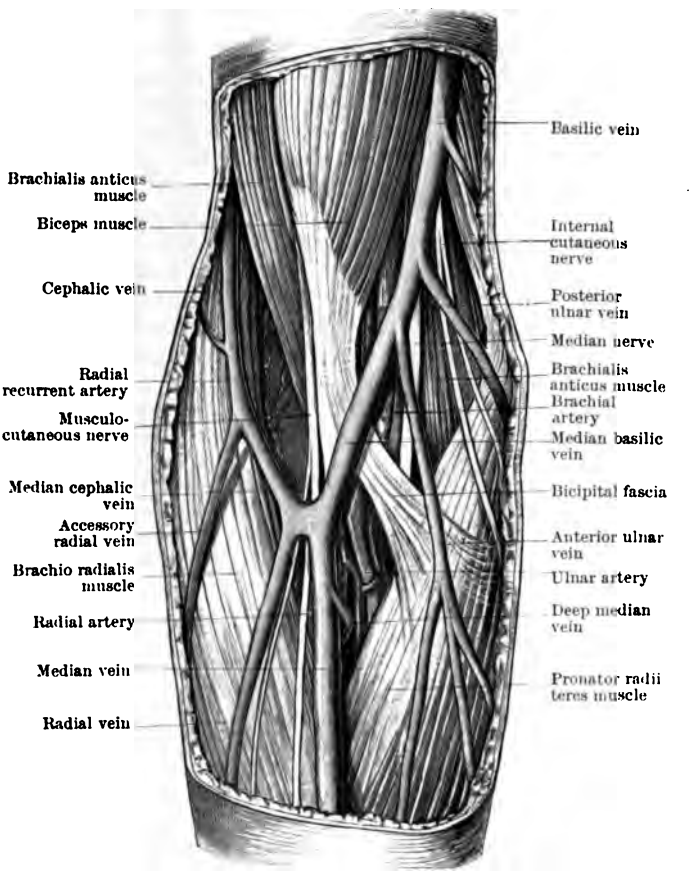


FIG. 654.—SUPERFICIAL VEINS AT THE BEND OF THE ELBOW.

Superficial Veins of the Upper Arm.—Only two large superficial trunks, the ıasilic and the cephalic, are found in the upper arm.

The **basilic vein** (v. basilica) commences at the upper and inner part of the ɔend of the elbow by the union of the median basilic with the posterior ulnar vein. :t ascends in a groove along the inner border of the biceps to the middle of the ıpper arm, where it passes through an opening in the deep fascia, the hiatus emilunaris, and in the rest of its course lies deeply along the inner side of the ɔrachial artery. It terminates at the lower border of the teres major by becoming he axillary vein, and it contains one or more bicuspid valves.

The **cephalic vein** (v. cephalica) is formed at the upper and outer part of the ɔend of the elbow by the union of the radial vein with the cephalic branch of the

median vein. It ascends first along the outer border of the biceps, where it is accompanied by the superior external cutaneous branch of the musculo-spiral nerve; then, after piercing the deep fascia, it is continued upwards between the adjacent borders of the deltoid and pectoralis major muscles, accompanied by the descending or humeral branch of the acromio-thoracic axis. Just below the clavicle it turns inwards, crosses the pectoralis minor, pierces the costo-coracoid membrane, and terminates in the upper or third part of the axillary vein. It is provided with a bicuspid valve at its termination. In its primitive form it terminated in the external jugular vein, to reach which it passed either over or through the clavicle. This condition occasionally persists, or is represented by a small communicating vein.

THE INFERIOR VENA CAVA AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

The **inferior vena cava** (Fig. 655) is a large venous trunk which receives the whole of the blood from the lower extremities, and the greater part of the blood from the walls and contents of the abdomen and pelvis. It commences opposite the right side of the body of the fifth lumbar vertebra, behind and to the right of the right common iliac artery, ascends through the abdomen in front and to the right of the vertebral column and the right crus of the diaphragm, and pierces the cupola of the diaphragm, between the middle and right sections of the central tendinous leaflet, at the level of the eighth dorsal vertebra. It then pierces the fibrous pericardium, enters the middle mediastinum, and terminates in the lower and back part of the right auricle. Its intrapericardial portion is very short, and it is covered on its anterior and lateral aspects by the parietal portion of the serous layer. Attached to the lower and front margin of its auricular orifice is the Eustachian valve, which is a remnant of an important fold of endocardium by which, in the fœtus, the blood from the inferior vena cava is directed, through the foramen ovale, into the left auricle.

Relations.—The inferior vena cava is in relation behind with the bodies of the lower lumbar vertebræ and the corresponding part of the anterior common ligament, the anterior portion of the right psoas muscle, the right lumbar sympathetic cord, the roots of the right lumbar arteries, the right crus of the diaphragm, the right renal artery, the right semilunar ganglion, the right inferior phrenic artery, and the inner and upper portion of the right suprarenal body.

In front of it, from below upwards, are the following structures—the right common iliac artery, the lower end of the mesentery and the superior mesenteric artery, the right spermatic artery and the third part of the duodenum, the head of the pancreas, the portal vein and the first part of the duodenum, the foramen of Winslow, and the posterior surface of the liver. More superficially are coils of small intestine, the great omentum, and the transverse colon and mesocolon.

To its left side are the aorta and the right crus of the diaphragm.

On its right side and below is the right ureter, whilst at a higher level the right kidney is only separated from it by a short interval.

Tributaries.—In addition to the two common iliac veins, by the union of which it is formed, and through which it receives blood from the pelvis and from the lower extremities, the inferior vena cava receives the following tributaries:—The hepatic veins, the right inferior phrenic vein, the right suprarenal vein, the right and left renal veins, the right spermatic or ovarian vein, and the right and left lumbar veins.

Hepatic Veins (vv. hepaticæ, Fig. 655).—These veins convey blood which has passed through the liver from the portal veins and from the hepatic artery, and they open into that portion of the inferior vena cava which lies immediately below the diaphragm, and behind the right lobe of the liver. They form two groups, an upper group of two or three large trunks, and a lower group of smaller veins.

The upper group occasionally consists of only two veins, a right and a left; more frequently there are three vessels, a right, a left, and a middle vein, and in the latter case the middle vein issues from the Spigelian lobe.

The veins of the lower group vary in number from six or seven to twenty; they return blood from the right and Spigelian lobes.

The hepatic veins commence in the interior of the lobules of the liver as

intralobular veins; these issue from the upper and posterior aspects of the lobules, and unite together to form *sublobular veins*; and the latter, uniting with one another as they converge towards the posterior surface of the liver, form the larger hepatic veins.

Inferior Phrenic Veins (vv. phrenicæ inferiores).—The venæ comites of the inferior phrenic arteries are formed by tributaries which issue from the substance

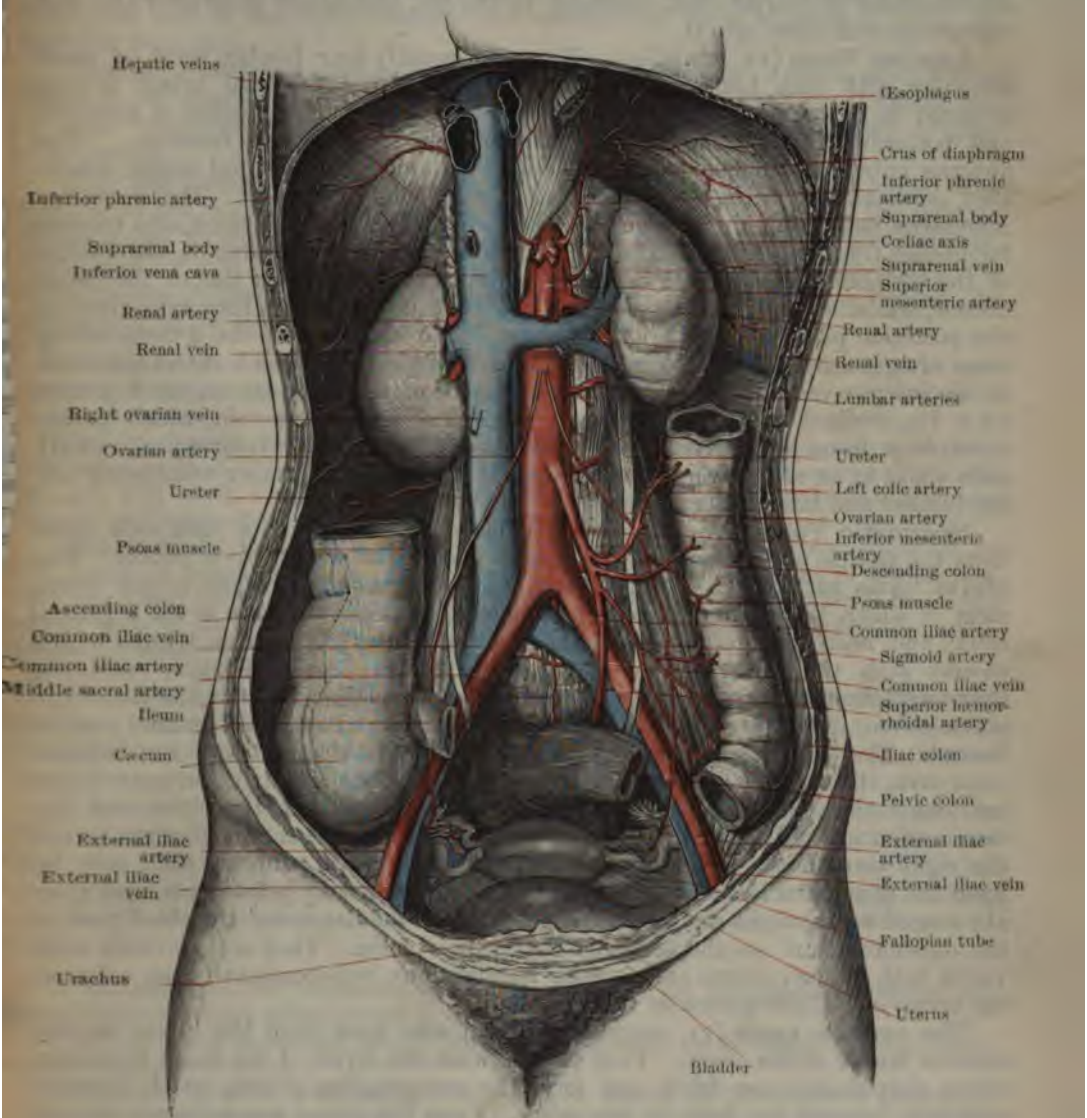


FIG. 655.—THE INFERIOR VENA CAVA AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

of the diaphragm. The right vein terminates in the upper part of the inferior vena cava. The left veins pass behind the œsophagus, and usually end in the left suprarenal vein.

Suprarenal Veins.—A single suprarenal vein (v. suprarenalis) issues from the hilum on the anterior surface of each suprarenal body; the right vein terminates in the inferior vena cava; the left usually ends in the left renal vein, but sometimes it opens directly into the inferior vena cava.

Renal Veins (vv. renales).—Each renal vein is formed by the union of five or six tributaries which issue from the hilum of the kidney, where they lie in front of the corresponding arteries.

The **right renal vein** is about one inch long; it passes behind the second part of the duodenum, and terminates in the right side of the inferior vena cava.

The **left renal vein** crosses in front of the left psoas, the left crus of the diaphragm, and the aorta immediately below the superior mesenteric artery. It lies behind the pancreas and the fourth part of the duodenum, and, running above the third part of the duodenum, terminates in the left side of the inferior vena cava. The left spermatic or ovarian vein, according to the sex, and almost invariably the left suprarenal vein, open into it.

Lumbar Veins (vv. lumbales).—There are usually four lumbar veins on each side, one with each lumbar artery; the vein with the subcostal artery is not included in this number. The lumbar veins are formed by the union of anterior and posterior trunks between the transverse processes of the vertebræ. The anterior tributaries commence in the lateral walls of the abdominal cavity, where they communicate with the superior and deep epigastric veins. The posterior tributaries issue from the muscles of the back in the lumbar region, and receive tributaries from the spinal plexuses. The main stems pass forwards on the bodies of the vertebræ; on each side they run behind and to the inner side of the psoas muscle, whilst those of the left side also pass behind the aorta. They terminate in the posterior part of the inferior vena cava. Not uncommonly the corresponding veins of opposite sides unite together to form a single trunk which enters the back of the inferior vena cava. All the lumbar veins of each side are united together by a longitudinal anastomosing vessel, the ascending lumbar vein, which passes upwards in front of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ, and usually ends above in an azygos vein, whilst below it connects the lumbar veins with the ilio-lumbar and lateral sacral veins.

Spermatic Veins (vv. spermaticæ).—The spermatic veins on each side issue from the testicle and epididymis and form a plexus, the *pampiniform plexus*. The plexus forms part of the spermatic cord, and consists of from eight to ten veins, most of which lie in front of the vas deferens; it passes upwards in the inguinal canal, and, near the internal abdominal ring, terminates in two main trunks which ascend with the corresponding spermatic artery for some distance, receiving tributaries from the ureter, and, occasionally, on the left side from the iliac and pelvic colon; ultimately the two veins unite together and a single terminal vein is formed. The terminal spermatic vein on the right side opens into the inferior vena cava, that on the left side into the left renal vein. The left spermatic veins are longer than the right, the left testicle being lower than the right, and the termination in the left renal vein being at a higher level than the termination of the right vein in the inferior vena cava. The spermatic veins on each side lie upon the psoas muscle and the ureter. They are covered by peritoneum, and they are crossed on the right side by the termination of the ileum and the third part of the duodenum, and on the left side by the iliac colon. They are provided with valves both in their course and at their terminations, but occasionally the valve at the orifice of the left spermatic vein is absent.

The **ovarian veins** (vv. ovaricæ), on each side, issue from the hilum on the anterior border of the ovary. They pass between the layers of the broad ligament, where they anastomose freely and form the *pampiniform plexus*, which extends outwards towards the brim of the pelvis. From the plexus two veins are formed which accompany the corresponding ovarian artery; they pass in front of the external iliac artery, and then upwards behind the peritoneum and in front of the psoas muscle and ureter. The veins of the right side, like the corresponding spermatic veins, also pass behind the termination of the ileum and the third part of the duodenum; whilst the left veins, near the brim of the pelvis, pass behind the commencement of the pelvic colon.

The two veins on each side ultimately fuse together to form a single terminal vein which ends, on the right side in the inferior vena cava, and on the left side in the left renal vein. As the left ovarian veins ascend on the psoas they sometimes receive tributaries from the iliac and pelvic colon.

The Iliac Veins.

The **common iliac veins** (Figs. 640 and 655), right and left, are formed by the union of the corresponding external and internal iliac veins. Each commences opposite the brim of the pelvis, immediately behind the upper part of the internal iliac artery of its own side, and both vessels pass upwards to the right side of the body of the fifth lumbar vertebra, at the upper part of which, just behind and to the outer side of the right common iliac artery, they unite together to form the inferior vena cava.

The **right common iliac vein** (v. iliaca communis dextra) is much shorter than the left; it passes in front of the obturator nerve and the ilio-lumbar artery, and at first behind and then somewhat to the outer side of the corresponding common iliac artery.

The **left common iliac vein** (v. iliaca communis sinistra) is much longer than the right, and is also placed more obliquely. It passes upwards and to the right, in front of the body of the fifth lumbar vertebra, and across the middle sacral artery. For some distance it runs along the inner side of the left common iliac artery, and then passes behind the right common iliac artery. It also passes behind the mesentery of the pelvic colon and the superior hæmorrhoidal artery.

Tributaries.—Each common iliac vein receives the corresponding external and internal iliac veins and the ilio-lumbar veins. The left common iliac vein receives in addition the middle sacral vein.

The **ilio-lumbar veins** (vv. ilio-lumbales) receive tributaries from the iliac fossa, from the lower parts of the spinal muscles, and from the spinal canal. There is a single vein on each side which accompanies the corresponding artery. It passes behind the psoas muscle and terminates in the common iliac vein.

Middle Sacral Veins.—The venæ comites of the middle sacral artery commence by the union of tributaries which issue from the venous plexus in front of the sacrum, through which they communicate with the lateral sacral veins and receive blood from the sacral part of the spinal canal. They unite above into a single stem (v. sacralis media), which terminates in the left common iliac vein.

The **internal iliac vein** (v. hypogastrica, Fig. 640) is a short trunk formed by the union of tributaries which correspond to all the branches of the internal iliac artery, with the exception of the hypogastric or umbilical and the ilio-lumbar branches.

It commences at the upper border of the great sciatic notch, and ascends to the brim of the pelvis, where it unites with the external iliac vein to form the common iliac vein. It lies immediately behind and slightly to the inner side of the internal iliac artery, is crossed externally by the obturator nerve, and is in relation internally, on the left side with the pelvic colon, and on the right side with the lower part of the ileum.

Tributaries.—The tributaries, which are numerous, are conveniently divisible into extra-pelvic and intra-pelvic groups.

The *extra-pelvic tributaries* are all **parietal**, and include the obturator, internal pudic, sciatic, and gluteal veins.

Obturator Vein (v. obturatoria).—This vein is formed by the union of tributaries which issue from the hip-joint and from the muscles on the upper and inner part of the thigh. It enters the pelvis through the obturator foramen, runs backwards along the lateral wall lying on the pelvic fascia immediately below the corresponding artery, and, passing between the internal iliac artery on the outside and the ureter on the inside, terminates in the internal iliac vein.

Sciatic Veins (vv. glutææ inferiores).—The venæ comites of the sciatic artery commence in the subcutaneous tissues on the back of the thigh; they ascend with the sciatic artery, and pass deeply into the buttock beneath the gluteus maximus, where they receive numerous tributaries from the surrounding muscles. Entering the pelvis through the great sciatic foramen, they unite into a single vessel, which terminates in the lower and anterior part of the internal iliac vein below the termination of the obturator vein.

Gluteal Veins (vv. glutææ superiores).—The venæ comites of the gluteal artery are formed by tributaries which issue from the muscles of the buttock. They accompany

the artery through the great sciatic foramen, and terminate in the internal iliac vein: they frequently unite together before reaching their termination.

Internal Pudic Veins.—The venæ comites of the internal pudic artery commence by tributaries which emerge from the corpus cavernosum of the penis (vv. profundæ penis) or clitoris (vv. profundæ clitoridis). They follow the course of the internal pudic artery, and usually join together into a single vessel (v. pudenda interna) which terminates in the internal iliac vein. As tributaries they receive the veins from the bulb, the superficial perineal and inferior hæmorrhoidal veins (vv. hæmorrhoidales inferiores), and veins from the muscles of the buttock.

The **inferior hæmorrhoidal veins**, which commence in the substance of the external sphincter of the anus and in the walls of the anal canal, anastomose with the middle and superior hæmorrhoidal veins, and consequently connect the portal and vena caval systems together.

The *intra-pelvic tributaries* of the internal iliac vein are either (*a*) **parietal** or (*b*) **visceral**; the former comprises the lateral sacral veins, the latter includes the efferent vessels from the plexuses around the several pelvic viscera.

(*a*) **Parietal: Lateral sacral veins** (vv. sacrales laterales) accompany the corresponding arteries, and terminate on each side in the inner and back part of the internal iliac vein.

(*b*) **Visceral tributaries** are derived from the rectum and from the plexuses associated with the uterus, vagina, bladder, and prostate. They include the middle hæmorrhoidal, the uterine, the vaginal, and the vesical veins.

The **middle hæmorrhoidal veins** (vv. hæmorrhoidales mediales) are very irregular, sometimes they cannot be distinguished. When present they are formed by tributaries which commence in the submucous tissue of the rectum, where they communicate with the superior and inferior hæmorrhoidal veins; they pass through the muscular coat, and fuse together to form two middle hæmorrhoidal veins, right and left, each of which runs outwards beneath the peritoneum, on the upper surface of the levator ani, to terminate in the internal iliac vein. In the male each middle hæmorrhoidal vein receives tributaries from the seminal vesicle and vas deferens of its own side.

Uterine Plexuses and Veins.—The **uterine plexuses** lie along the lateral borders of the uterus; they receive tributaries, which are entirely devoid of valves, from the uterus, and they communicate above with the ovarian, and below with the vaginal plexuses.

The **uterine veins** (vv. uterinæ), usually two on each side, issue from the lower parts of the uterine plexuses above their communications with the vaginal plexuses. At first the uterine veins on each side lie in the inner part of the base of the broad ligament above the lateral fornix of the vagina and the ureter; they then pass backwards, accompanying the corresponding artery, in a fold of peritoneum which lies between the back of the broad ligament and the recto-uterine fold; finally they ascend in the floor of the ovarian fossa, and terminate in the internal iliac vein.

Vaginal Plexuses and Vaginal Veins.—The **vaginal plexuses** lie at the sides of the vagina. They receive tributaries from the walls of the vagina, and communicate above with the uterine plexuses, below with the veins of the bulb, in front with the vesical plexus, and behind with the veins which issue from the middle and lower parts of the hæmorrhoidal plexus. A single **vaginal vein** issues from the upper part of the vaginal plexus on each side; it accompanies the corresponding arteries, and terminates in the internal iliac vein.

Superior Vesical Plexus.—The superior vesical plexus of veins lies on the outer surface of the muscular coat of the bladder at the fundus and the sides. It receives tributaries from the mucous and muscular walls, and its efferent vessels terminate in the prostatico-vesical plexus in the male, and in the inferior vesical plexus in the female.

Prostatico-vesical Plexus.—This plexus is distributed round the prostate and the neck of the bladder, and is enclosed between the proper fibrous capsule of the prostate and its sheath of recto-vesical fascia. In front it receives the dorsal vein of the penis, which usually terminates by two branches; behind and above it communicates with the superior vesical plexus, and receives tributaries from the seminal vesicles and vasa deferentia. One or more efferent vessels pass from it on each side and open into the corresponding internal iliac vein.

The **inferior vesical plexus** of the female, which represents the prostatico-vesical plexus of the male, surrounds the upper part of the urethra and the neck of the bladder. It receives the dorsal vein of the clitoris, and its efferent vessels terminate in the internal iliac vein.

Dorsal Veins of the Penis (vv. dorsales penis).—There are two dorsal veins of the penis—the superficial and the deep.

The **superficial dorsal vein** receives tributaries from the prepuce, and runs backwards immediately beneath the skin to the symphysis, where it divides into two branches which terminate in the superficial external pudic veins.

The **deep dorsal vein** lies on the dorsum of the penis beneath the deep fascia. It commences in the sulcus behind the glans, by the union of numerous tributaries from the glans and the anterior parts of the corpora cavernosa, and runs backwards in the mid-dorsal line, in the sulcus between the corpora cavernosa from which it receives many additional tributaries. At the root of the penis the vein passes between the two layers of the suspensory ligament, and then between the sub-pubic ligament and the deep transverse ligament of the perineum, thus reaching the space between the two layers of the triangular ligament, where it lies above the membranous part of the urethra, and is enclosed in some of the fibres of the compressor urethræ. Passing through the posterior layer of the triangular ligament, it enters the pelvis, and terminates, usually by two branches, in the prostatico-vesical plexus.

The **dorsal vein of the clitoris** in the female has a similar course to that of the deep dorsal vein of the penis in the male. It terminates in the inferior vesical plexus.

THE VEINS OF THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

The veins of the lower extremity, like those of the upper extremity, are arranged in two groups, the **superficial** and the **deep**, and in the lower as in the upper limb the deep veins are associated with the arteries as venæ comites, whilst the superficial veins which lie in the subcutaneous tissues ultimately terminate in the deep veins. There is, therefore, a general similarity in the arrangement of the veins of the upper and the lower limbs, but there are differences in the details of the arrangement which are of some importance. Thus, in the upper extremity, there are two deep veins with each artery from the fingers to the root of the limb, where a single trunk, the axillary vein, is formed; but in the lower extremity each main artery has two venæ comites only as far as the middle of the limb, where a single trunk is formed. This vessel, the **popliteal vein**, is the commencement of the main venous stem of the lower extremity; it is continued upwards through the thigh as the **femoral vein**, and along the brim of the pelvis as the **external iliac vein**, which terminates by uniting with the internal iliac vein to form the common iliac vein.

Further, the superficial veins of the upper limb are more numerous than those of the lower limb, for in the forearm there are four main superficial veins, and in the leg two; in the arm two main superficial veins, and in the thigh only one.

In the upper limb the blood which passes through the superficial veins is poured into the efferent trunk vein at the root of the limb—that is, into the axillary vein; but in the lower limb the blood from the superficies of the outer parts of the leg and foot passes into the commencement of the main efferent vein, the popliteal vein, at the middle of the limb—that is, in the region of the knee, whilst the blood from the superficial parts of the inner aspect of the lower limb is poured into the femoral vein near the root of the limb in the upper part of Scarpa's triangle.

In addition to the above-mentioned differences in the general arrangement of the veins of the upper and the lower extremities, it must also be noted that in the upper extremity all the blood of the limb, both that from the shoulder-girdle region as well as that from the projecting portion of the limb, is returned to the main efferent venous trunk; but in the lower extremity the greater part of the blood from the region of the pelvic girdle, and a considerable portion from that of the thigh, is returned by the gluteal, obturator, sciatic, and pudic veins to the internal iliac vein, which in the adult is not the main efferent vein of the lower extremity.

The Deep Veins of the Lower Extremity.

All the arteries of the lower limb except the popliteal and femoral trunks are accompanied by two *venæ comites*. They usually lie one on each side of the artery; they are connected with each other by transverse channels which pass in front of or behind the artery, and they are provided with numerous valves.

The **popliteal vein** (v. poplitea, Fig. 643) is formed, at the lower border of the popliteus muscle, by the union of the venæ comites of the anterior and posterior tibial arteries. At its commencement it lies to the inner side of and somewhat superficial to the popliteal artery, and to the outer side of the internal popliteal nerve. As it ascends through the popliteal space it gradually inclines towards the outer side of the artery, and in the middle of the space it is directly behind the artery, separating the artery from the internal popliteal nerve, which is still more posterior, whilst at the upper end of the space it is to the outer side of the artery,

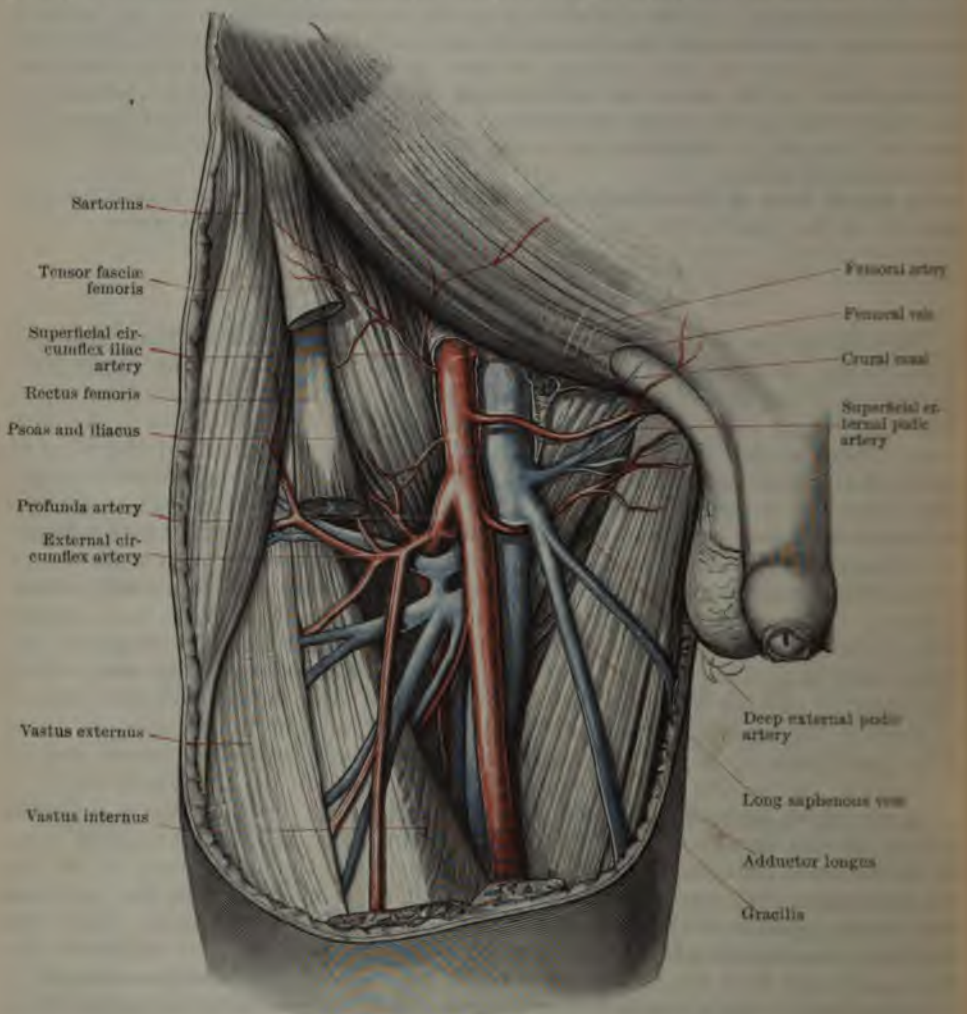


FIG. 656.—THE FEMORAL VESSELS IN SCARPA'S TRIANGLE.

and still between it and the internal popliteal nerve. It then passes through the adductor magnus muscle and becomes the femoral vein.

The popliteal vein, which is provided with two or three bicuspid valves, is closely bound to the artery by a dense fascial sheath. Not uncommonly there are one or more additional satellite veins which anastomose with the popliteal vein, and in these cases the artery is more or less completely surrounded by venous trunks.

Tributaries.—In addition to the venæ comites of the anterior and posterior tibial arteries, it receives tributaries which correspond with the branches of the popliteal artery, and it also receives one of the superficial veins of the leg, viz. the external or short saphenous vein.

The **femoral vein** (v. femoralis) is the direct continuation of the popliteal vein

It commences at the junction of the middle and lower thirds of the thigh, at the opening in the adductor magnus muscle. It then ascends through Hunter's canal, and through Scarpa's triangle, and terminates a little to the inner side of the middle of Poupart's ligament by becoming the external iliac vein.

In Hunter's canal it lies behind, and at first to the outer side of, the femoral artery, and upon the adductors magnus and longus which separate it from the profunda vessels. In the lower part of Scarpa's triangle it is behind and to the inner side of the artery, and immediately in front of the profunda vein which separates it from the profunda artery, but in the upper part of Scarpa's triangle it is directly on the inner side of the femoral artery. About one and a-half inches below Poupart's ligament it enters the middle compartment of the femoral sheath, through which it ascends to its termination, lying between the compartment for the femoral artery on the outer side and the crural canal on the inner side.

It usually contains two bicuspid valves—one near its termination and the other just above the entrance of its profunda tributary.

Tributaries.—It receives tributaries (venæ comites) which correspond with the branches of the femoral artery and the larger of the two superficial veins of the lower extremity, viz. the long saphenous vein, which enters the femoral vein where that vessel lies in the middle compartment of the femoral sheath.

FIG. 657.—THE INTERNAL OR LONG SAPHENOUS VEIN AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

The **external iliac vein** (v. iliaca externa, Figs. 637, 640, and 655) is the upward continuation of the femoral vein. It commences on the inner side of the termination of the external iliac artery, immediately behind Poupart's ligament, and ascends along the brim of the pelvis to a point at the level of the lumbo-sacral articulation and opposite the sacro-iliac joint, and immediately behind the internal iliac artery, where it ends by joining the internal iliac vein to form the common iliac vein. It lies at first on the inner side of the external iliac artery, but on a somewhat posterior plane, and then directly behind the artery, whilst just before its termination it crosses the outer side of the internal iliac artery, and separates that vessel from the inner border of the psoas muscle. In its whole course the vein lies anterior to the obturator nerve. It is usually provided with one biscupid valve, but sometimes there are two. Its tributaries correspond to the branches of the external iliac artery; thus the deep circumflex iliac (v. circumflex ilium profunda) and deep

epigastric (v. epigastrica inferior) veins open into it close to its origin, whilst in addition it frequently receives the pubic vein.

The **pubic vein** forms a communication between the obturator vein and the external iliac vein. It varies in size, and may form the main termination of the obturator vein from which it arises. Commencing in the obturator foramen, it ascends at the side of the pubic branch of the deep epigastric artery, and reaches the external iliac vein.

The Superficial Veins of the Lower Extremity.

The superficial veins of the lower extremity terminate in two trunks, one of which, the **external** or **short saphenous vein**, passes from the foot to the popliteal space; whilst the other, the **internal** or **long saphenous vein**, extends from the foot to the groin.

The superficial veins of the sole of the foot form a fine plexus, immediately beneath the skin, from which anterior and lateral efferents pass. The anterior efferents terminate in a transverse arch which lies in the furrow at the roots of the toes, and the lateral efferents pass round the sides of the foot to the internal or external saphenous veins. The transverse arch also receives small plantar digital veins from the toes, and it gives off interdigital efferent branches to the dorsal venous arch.

The superficial veins on the dorsal aspect of each toe unite together to form two **dorsal digital veins** (v. digitales pedis dorsales) which run along the borders of the dorsal surface. The dorsal digital veins of the adjacent borders of the interdigital clefts unite, at the apices of the clefts, to form four dorsal interdigital veins which terminate in the dorsal venous arch. The dorsal digital vein from the inner side of the great toe ends in the long saphenous vein, and that from the outer side of the little toe terminates in the short saphenous vein.

The **dorsal venous arch** (arcus venosus dorsalis pedis) lies in the subcutaneous tissue, between the skin and the branches of the musculo-cutaneous nerve, opposite the lower parts of the shafts of the metatarsal bones. It ends internally by uniting with the inner dorsal digital vein of the great toe to form the long saphenous vein, and externally by joining the outer dorsal digital vein of the little toe to form the short saphenous vein. The dorsal venous arch receives the dorsal interdigital veins; interdigital efferents from the plantar transverse arch, and numerous tributaries from the dorsum of the foot, which anastomose freely together, forming a wide-meshed dorsal venous plexus, open into it behind.

The **internal** or **long saphenous vein** (v. saphena magna) is formed by the union of the inner extremity of the dorsal venous arch with the inner dorsal digital vein of the great toe. It passes upwards in front of the internal malleolus, crosses the inner surface of the lower part of the shaft of the tibia, and ascends immediately behind the internal border of that bone to the knee, where it lies just behind the internal condyle of the femur; continuing upwards, with an inclination forwards and outwards, it gains the upper part of Scarpa's triangle, where it perforates the cribriform fascia and the femoral sheath to reach its termination in the femoral vein. In the foot and leg it is accompanied by the long saphenous nerve, and for a short distance below the knee by the superficial branch of the anastomotic artery. In the thigh, branches of the internal cutaneous nerve lie in close relation with it. It contains from eight to twenty bicuspid valves.

Tributaries.—It communicates freely through the deep fascia with the deep intermuscular veins. In the foot it receives tributaries from the inner part of the sole and from the dorsal venous plexus. As it ascends in the leg it is joined by tributaries from the dorsum of the foot, the inner side and back of the heel, the front of the leg and the back of the calf, and it anastomoses freely with the short saphenous vein. In the thigh it receives numerous tributaries, some of which usually converge to form two **superficial femoral veins**. Of these, one, the *external*, ascends from the outer side of the knee and terminates in the internal saphenous vein about the lower part of Scarpa's triangle; the other, the *internal*, receives a communication from the external saphenous vein, and ascends from the back of the thigh along its inner side to terminate in the long saphenous

vein almost opposite the termination of the external superficial femoral vein. The last tributaries to enter the long saphenous vein are the **superficial circumflex iliac, epigastric, and pudic veins.** They accompany the corresponding arteries, and terminate in the long saphenous vein immediately before the latter vessels perforate the cribriform fascia.

The superficial circumflex iliac vein receives blood from the lower and outer part of the abdominal wall and the upper and outer part of the thigh. The superficial epigastric vein drains the lower and inner part of the abdominal wall, and the superficial pudic vein receives blood from the dorsum of the penis and the scrotum in the male, and from the labium majus in the female.

The **external** or **short saphenous vein** (v. saphena parva) is formed by the union of the outer extremity of the dorsal venous arch with the outer dorsal digital vein of the little toe. At first it passes backwards along the outer side of the foot and below the external malleolus, lying on the external annular ligament in company with the external saphenous nerve; then it ascends behind the external malleolus, and along the outer border of the tendo Achillis, still in company with the external saphenous nerve, to the middle of the calf, above which it is continued in the superficial fascia, accompanied by the superficial sural artery, to the lower part of the popliteal space, where it pierces the deep fascia, and terminates in the popliteal vein. It communicates round the inner side of the leg with the internal saphenous vein, and through the deep fascia with the deep veins, and it contains from six to twelve bicuspid valves.

FIG. 658.—THE EXTERNAL OR SHORT SAPHENOUS VEIN AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

Tributaries.—It receives tributaries from the outer side of the foot, from the outer side and back of the heel, from the back of the leg, and occasionally a descending tributary from the back of the thigh. Just before it pierces the popliteal fascia it gives off a small branch which ascends round the inner side of the thigh and unites with the internal superficial femoral vein. In this way a communication is established between the external and internal saphenous veins; this communication is frequently enlarged, and not uncommonly constitutes the main continuation of the external saphenous vein.

THE PORTAL SYSTEM.

The portal system includes the veins which convey blood from almost the whole of the abdominal and pelvic parts of the alimentary canal, and from the spleen and pancreas, to the liver. The tributaries of origin of these veins agree closely with the terminal branches of the corresponding arteries. They are single vessels, which for some distance accompany the corresponding arteries, and are similarly named. The larger or terminal veins, however, leave their associated arteries; the **inferior mesenteric vein** joins the **splenic vein**, and the latter unites with the **superior mesenteric vein** to form the **portal vein**, which passes to the liver. These veins, together with their tributaries, constitute the portal system. All the vessels of this system are devoid of valves.

The **portal vein** (vena portæ) is a wide venous channel, about three inches long, which conveys blood from the stomach, from the whole of the intestine, except the terminal portion of the rectum, and from the spleen and pancreas to the liver. Unlike other veins, it ends like an artery by breaking up into branches, which ultimately terminate in capillaries in the substance of the liver; from these portal capillaries the hepatic veins (p. 892), which also receive the blood conveyed to the liver by the hepatic artery, arise; and as these open into the inferior vena cava, the portal blood ultimately reaches the general systemic circulation.

The portal vein commences by the union of the superior mesenteric and the

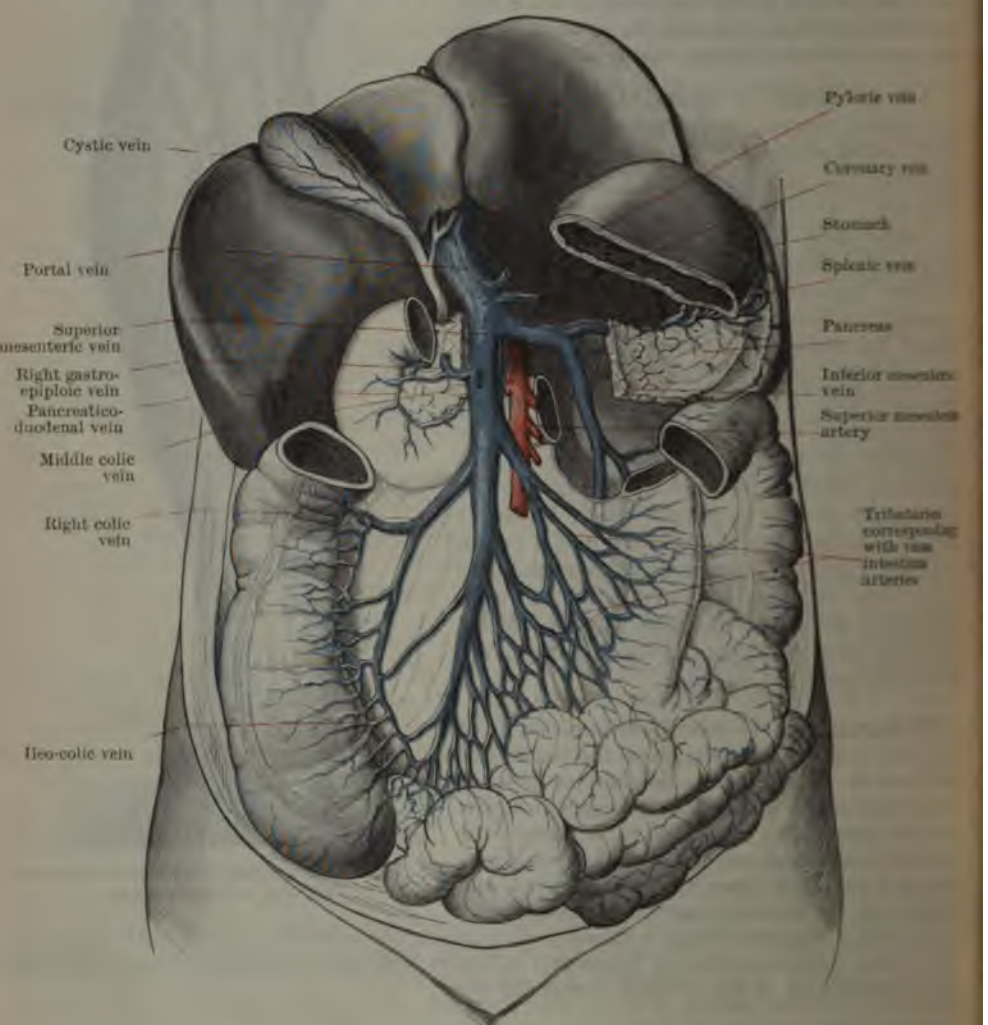


FIG. 659.—THE PORTAL VEIN AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

splenic veins behind and to the left of the neck of the pancreas, and either in front of the left border of the inferior vena cava, at the level of the body of the first lumbar vertebra, or in front of the upturned extremity of the lower portion of the head of the pancreas. It ascends in front of the inferior vena cava, and behind the neck of the pancreas and the first part of the duodenum, to the lower border of the foramen of Winslow, where it passes forwards, in the right pancreatico-gastric fold of peritoneum, and enters the lower border of the gastro-hepatic omentum; continuing its upward course, it lies behind the common bile-duct and hepatic artery, and in front of the foramen of Winslow; it ultimately reaches the right end of the transverse fissure of the liver, where it ends by dividing into a

ınd wide right and a longer and narrower left branch. Just before its ıtion it enlarges, forming the sinus of the portal vein.

› **right branch** generally receives the **cystic vein** and then enters the right lobe .iver, in which it breaks up into numerous branches which terminate in the :apillaries round the periphery and in the substance of the liver lobules.

› **left branch** runs from right to left along the transverse fissure, giving off es to the Spigelian and quadrate lobes; it crosses the longitudinal fissure, ls in a similar manner to the right branch, but in the substance of the e of the liver.

it crosses the longitudinal fissure, the left branch of the portal vein is joined t by the **round ligament** of the liver, a fibrous cord which is the remains of the ıbilical vein of the fœtus; and, somewhat to the right of the attachment of und ligament anteriorly, a fibrous cord springs from it posteriorly and ts it with the upper part of the inferior vena cava; this cord is the remains **ductus venosus**, a blood-vessel of the fœtus, through which blood coming ıe placenta, by the umbilical vein, passed into the inferior vena cava t going through the liver.

› portal vein is accompanied by numerous lymphatic vessels, and it is ıded in the gastro-hepatic omentum by filaments of the hepatic plexus es.

butaries.—Soon after its formation the portal vein receives the coronary and veins, and the cystic vein opens into its right branch.

coronary vein (v. coronaria ventriculi) commences in the gastro-hepatic omentum union of tributaries from both surfaces of the stomach. It runs to the left the layers of the gastro-hepatic omentum, and along the lesser curvature of the , with the corresponding artery, to the œsophagus, where it receives œsophageal ies. It then turns backwards in the left pancreatico-gastric fold, and reaches the r wall of the abdomen, where it again changes its direction to run from left to ehind the lesser sac of the peritoneum, to the right pancreatico-gastric fold, at the which it opens into the portal vein.

pyloric vein (v. pylorica) is a small vessel which is formed by the union of ies from the upper parts of both surfaces of the stomach. It runs from left to ong the right portion of the lesser curvature, between the layers of the gastro- omentum, and terminates in the portal vein, after that vessel has entered the epatic omentum.

cystic vein (v. cystica) is formed by the union of tributaries which accompany ıches of the cystic artery on the upper and lower surfaces of the gall-bladder; it along the cystic duct and, as a rule, terminates in the right branch of the portal

The Mesenteric and Splenic Veins.

superior mesenteric vein (v. mesenterica superior) commences in the right iliac connexion with the lower part of the ileum. It ascends along the right side of erior mesenteric artery in the root of the mesentery, forming a curve with the ty to the left.

t ascends it passes in front of the right ureter, the lower part of the inferior vena ıe third part of the duodenum, and the lower part of the head of the pancreas; ter passing behind the root of the transverse mesocolon, it terminates behind k of the pancreas by uniting with the splenic vein to form the portal vein.

ributaries correspond with the branches of the superior mesenteric artery. It is formed ınion of the ileo-cæcal and appendicular veins. In front and towards the left side the ies (vv. intestinales) from between the folds of the mesentery enter it; the right colic -colic veins enter its right side; the middle colic vein joins it in front at the lower border ıead of the pancreas, and close to its termination it receives the right gastro-epiploic pancreatico-duodenal veins.

right gastro-epiploic vein (v. gastro-epiploica dextra) runs from left to right along the order of the stomach, and between the two anterior layers of the great omentum. It tributaries from both surfaces of the stomach, and near the pylorus turns backwards in ıt pancreatico-gastric fold of peritoneum, passes behind the neck of the pancreas, and the superior mesenteric vein.

pancreatico-duodenal vein receives tributaries (vv. pancreatico-duodenalis) from the head ıncreas and the adjacent parts of the duodenum; it ascends along the superior pancreatico- l artery, and terminates in the upper part of the superior mesenteric vein.

The **splenic vein** (v. lienalis) is formed by the union of five or six tributaries which issue from the hilum on the anterior surface of the spleen. It passes backwards and inwards in the lieno-renal ligament to the kidney, then turning to the right it runs behind the upper border of the pancreas and below the splenic artery; it crosses the front of the abdominal aorta, immediately below the origin of the cœliac axis, and terminates behind the neck of the pancreas, by joining the superior mesenteric vein to form the portal vein.

Tributaries.—It receives the vasa brevia or gastric veins, the left gastro-epiploic vein, the pancreatic veins, and the inferior mesenteric vein. Occasionally the coronary vein terminates in it.

The **vasa brevia** or **gastric veins** (vv. gastricæ breves) are a series of small venous channels which gather blood from the region of the left portion of the great curvature of the stomach; they pass backwards towards the spleen in the gastro-splenic omentum, and terminate either in the trunk of the splenic vein or in one of its main tributaries.

The **left gastro-epiploic vein** runs from right to left along the lower border of the stomach between the layers of the great omentum. At the left extremity of the stomach it enters the gastro-splenic omentum, through which it passes towards the hilum of the spleen, and it terminates in the commencement of the splenic vein. It receives tributaries from both surfaces of the stomach.

The **pancreatic veins** issue from the substance of the pancreas, and terminate directly in the splenic vein.

The **inferior mesenteric vein** (v. mesenterica inferior) commences, as the superior hæmorrhoidal vein, in the venous plexus which lies between the muscular and mucous coats of the rectum. The **superior hæmorrhoidal vein** (v. hæmorrhoidalis superior) drains the greater part of the blood from the hæmorrhoidal plexus, through which it communicates with the middle and inferior hæmorrhoidal veins. It ascends in company with the superior hæmorrhoidal artery, and between the layers of the meso-rectum, to the brim of the pelvis, where it passes in front of the left common iliac artery and becomes the inferior mesenteric vein.

The inferior mesenteric vein runs upwards on the left of the aorta, behind the peritoneum and in front of the left psoas muscle and the left spermatic artery. Near its termination it crosses in front of the left renal vein, and, passing behind the body of the pancreas, ends in the splenic vein. Occasionally it terminates in the angle of union of the superior mesenteric and splenic veins.

Tributaries.—In addition to the superior hæmorrhoidal vein, of which it is the direct continuation, the inferior mesenteric vein receives **sigmoid tributaries** (vv. sigmoidæ) from the iliac and pelvic colon, and the **left colic vein** from the descending colon and splenic flexure.

THE LYMPH VASCULAR SYSTEM.

The vessels of the lymph vascular system (vasa lymphatica) contain a colourless fluid, rich in white corpuscles, called lymph. In many respects they resemble blood-vessels, especially the veins; but unlike veins they communicate with intercellular spaces and with serous sacs, and their continuity is interrupted by interposed nodular aggregations of lymph tissue which are known as **lymph glands** (lymphoglandulæ).

Lymph is collected in intercellular spaces from which lymph capillaries arise; the latter terminate in lymphatic vessels, which unite together, forming larger vessels; and ultimately two terminal trunks—viz. the **thoracic duct** and the **right lymphatic duct**—open into the venous system, at the commencement respectively of the left and right innominate veins.

There are no outgoing vessels, but it is customary to speak of afferent (vasa afferentia) and efferent (vasa efferentia) lymphatics with reference to vessels which enter or leave the interposed lymph-glands.

Lymph vessels, and the spaces in which they commence, merely collect and convey lymph. The lymphatic glands act, in part at least, as filters, and possibly also some of the white corpuscles are formed in them.

The greater part, if not the whole, of the lymph of the body passes through one or more of the lymph glands before it reaches the blood vascular system.

Lymphatic spaces.—Lymph spaces are simply intervals or clefts in connective tissue. The larger spaces are lined by a layer of flattened endothelial cells, with sinuous outlines, similar to the cells of the lymphatic capillaries; but the smaller spaces have no endothelial lining, and they are limited only by the cells of the tissue in which they lie. The precise nature of the communications between lymphatic spaces and lymph capillaries has not been definitely ascertained; but

ıdoubtedly lymph passes from the spaces into the capillaries, and probably it ›es so because the spaces and vessels are directly continuous.

As alternative explanations, it may be suggested either that the passage is due the existence of stomata in the walls which separate spaces from the capillaries, that it may be due to transudation through intervening tissues.

Lymph capillaries.—Lymph capillaries are not only much larger and more regular than blood capillaries, but they are also larger than the lymphatic vessels to which they open. They are lined by a single layer of endothelial cells which ›ssess very sinuous outlines; apparently they are in direct structural continuity ith lymph spaces, and they anastomose freely together, forming plexiform byrinths.

Lymphatic vessels.—The smallest lymphatic vessels are much narrower 'in ılibre than the lymph capillaries with which they are continuous. Their walls ›nsist of an internal lining of endothelial cells of fusiform shape and regular ıtline, and an outer layer of fine connective tissue. They are provided with umerous valves, and when distended have a beaded appearance.

The larger lymph vessels possess three coats—(1) An internal coat (tunica ıterna), formed by a layer of endothelial cells, of fusiform shape, and of regular, but nuous, outline. (2) A middle coat (tunica media) of unstriped muscle fibres, rranged for the most part circularly, but some of them run obliquely or longiıdinally. The interspaces between the muscle fibres are filled with a fine conective tissue. (3) An outer coat (tunica externa) of mixed white fibrous and lastic tissue, which is not sharply separated from the middle coat on the inner ide or from the surrounding tissues on the outer side. It may also contain a few nstriped muscle fibres. In the largest vessels the two outer coats consist prinipally of muscle; they are, therefore, very friable.

All the large vessels are provided with numerous bicuspid valves, which are ›rmed by folds of the inner coat; and as the lumina of the vessels are enlarged ıst beyond the attachments of the valves, the vessels assume a characteristic eaded appearance when they are distended.

Lymphatic vessels anastomose freely together, and the majority form communiating channels between different groups of lymphatic glands, leaving the more istal glands as *efferent vessels* and entering the more proximal glands as *afferent essels.* Some of the lymphatic vessels, however, are afferent only; they simply ırry lymph from the periphery to the nearest glands; whilst others, which carry ymph from the last set of glands to the terminal trunks, are efferent only.

The lymphatic vessels, unlike the veins which they usually accompany, do not ıcrease greatly in calibre as they converge towards their terminations; they often ranch, and they frequently anastomose together. In certain places, particularly ıe central nervous system and the spleen, lymph capillaries or even lymphatic essels completely ensheath the smaller blood-vessels, forming perivascular ymphatic spaces.

A precise knowledge of the afferent and efferent lymph vessels, and of the several roups of glands which are interposed between them, is of the greatest practical nportance; both infective micro-organisms from injured and inflammatory areas nd detached cells from malignant tumour growths not unfrequently travel by fferent lymphatics to the nearest glands where they may be arrested, in which ıse micro-organisms may excite secondary infective inflammation, whilst cells of ıalignant growths may form secondary growths (metastatic growths) of similar ature in the glands.

It is therefore essential that the pathologist should be well acquainted with he anatomy of the pathways which convey lymph, with the glands associated vith any given area, and also with the communications between adjacent glands.

Lymphatic glands.—Lymphatic glands are globular, ovoid, flattened, or rregular bodies, and each gland presents a localised depressed area which is known s the hilum. They vary considerably in size, some being no larger than a pin's-ead, whilst others are as large as a bean. In colour they are usually grayish pink, ut the tint varies with the position, vascularity, and state of activity of the gland. he glands of the lung are generally blackened by the deposition of carbonaceous

material in their substance, and those of the liver and spleen have frequently a brownish hue. The glands of the mesentery are creamy or white whilst the chyle is rapidly passing through them, but when the absorption of food-material from the intestine ceases they become a rosy pink.

Structure of Lymphatic Glands.—Lymphatic glands consist of (1) a skeleton or framework, 2 lymph sinuses, and 3 lymph follicles and cords.

1 The **skeleton** or framework consists of a **capsule** and of **primary, secondary, and tertiary trabeculæ.**

The *capsule* is formed of white fibrous tissue interspersed with elastic fibres, and in some cases with unstriped muscular fibres.

The *primary trabeculæ* spring from the deep surface of the capsule and radiate towards the hilum, where they anastomose together and become again continuous with the capsule; they divide the interior of the gland into lobes. Where they spring from the capsule they are flattened, but as they approach the centre of the gland they become **rounded**; their structure is the same as that of the capsule, and from their surfaces the **secondary trabeculæ** are given off. The *secondary trabeculæ*, springing from the surfaces of the **primary trabeculæ**, cross the lymph sinuses and enter the lymph cords and follicles, where **they terminate** by dividing into tertiary trabeculæ. As they cross the lymph sinuses they anastomose **freely** together, forming a fine mesh-work through which the lymph passes in its course **from the afferent** to the efferent vessels. The secondary trabeculæ consist of fine strands of **fibrous tissue devoid of nuclei**, and their surfaces are covered with endothelial cells. The *tertiary trabeculæ* are finer and more delicate than the secondary trabeculæ, from the terminations of which they spring, but they have a similar structure. They anastomose together, forming a **fine network in the lymph cords** and follicles, and the spaces of the network are filled with lymph **corpuscles.**

2. The **lymph sinuses** lie beneath the capsule and around **the primary trabeculæ** which form their boundaries on one side, whilst on the other they are **limited by the lymph cords** and follicles. They are traversed by the secondary trabeculæ, **and their channels are thus** converted into a kind of sponge-work through which the lymph **stream flows. In the peripheral** or cortical parts (substantia corticalis) of the glands they form more **or less cylindrical** channels, but towards the central or medullary parts (substantia medullaris) **and near the hilum** they become moniliform. Afferent vessels (vasa afferentia) enter the sinuses **which lie immediately** beneath the capsule at various points, whilst the efferent vessels (vasa **efferentia**) emerge close together at the hilum.

(3) The **lymph follicles and cords** are interposed between the lymph **sinuses.** They consist of dense masses of lymphoid cells embedded in a stroma formed by **the tertiary trabeculæ.** The follicles and cords are quite similar in structure, but the follicles are **large masses** which intervene between the sinuses in the cortex of the gland, and the cords are **rounded** and irregular strands which lie between the moniliform sinuses of the medullary **portion of the gland.**

It is generally believed that the lymph corpuscles in the follicles **and cords are white blood** corpuscles undergoing proliferation. If this belief is well founded, **lymph glands must be looked** upon as one of the sources from which white corpuscles are derived.

The **lymph glands** are embedded in the connective tissues, **some lying superficially** in the subcutaneous tissues, but the majority more **deeply and usually** at the sides of the great blood-vessels. As a rule they are **arranged in groups** of from two to fifteen, but a few of those which lie in the **subcutaneous tissues** are solitary.

They form centres to which afferent lymphatic vessels **converge,** and from which efferent vessels pass onwards to the larger lymph **channels.**

The student should therefore acquaint himself with the **various** groups of glands, with their afferents and efferents, and with the **exact position and relations** of the large lymphatic trunks: he will then be in a position to **understand** the course which minute organisms or particles, which have gained **access to the lymph** spaces, may take as they are carried in the lymph stream, and he will **realise** that such structures may either be entangled in the glands through which the lymph passes, or, having escaped all obstructions, that they will finally **enter the veins** at the root of the neck. At the same time, if he bears in mind **the existence** of the numerous anastomoses between the lymphatic vessels, he will **have no difficulty** in appreciating that variations from any regular course **may not infrequently** occur, and his clinical experience at a later period will show that **such variations** are by no means uncommon.

THE TERMINAL LYMPH VESSELS.

The terminal lymph vessels are the **thoracic duct** and the **right lymphatic duct.**

Thoracic Duct.—The thoracic duct (ductus thoracicus) is the **larger and**

he longer of the two terminal lymph vessels. It commences in the umbilical **egion** of the abdomen as an elongated ovoid dilation—the **receptaculum chyli sisterna** chyli)—which measures 6 to 8 mm. ($\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ in.) in its broadest diameter, **nd from** 5 to 7·5 cm. (2 to 3 in.) in length. The receptaculum chyli lies between

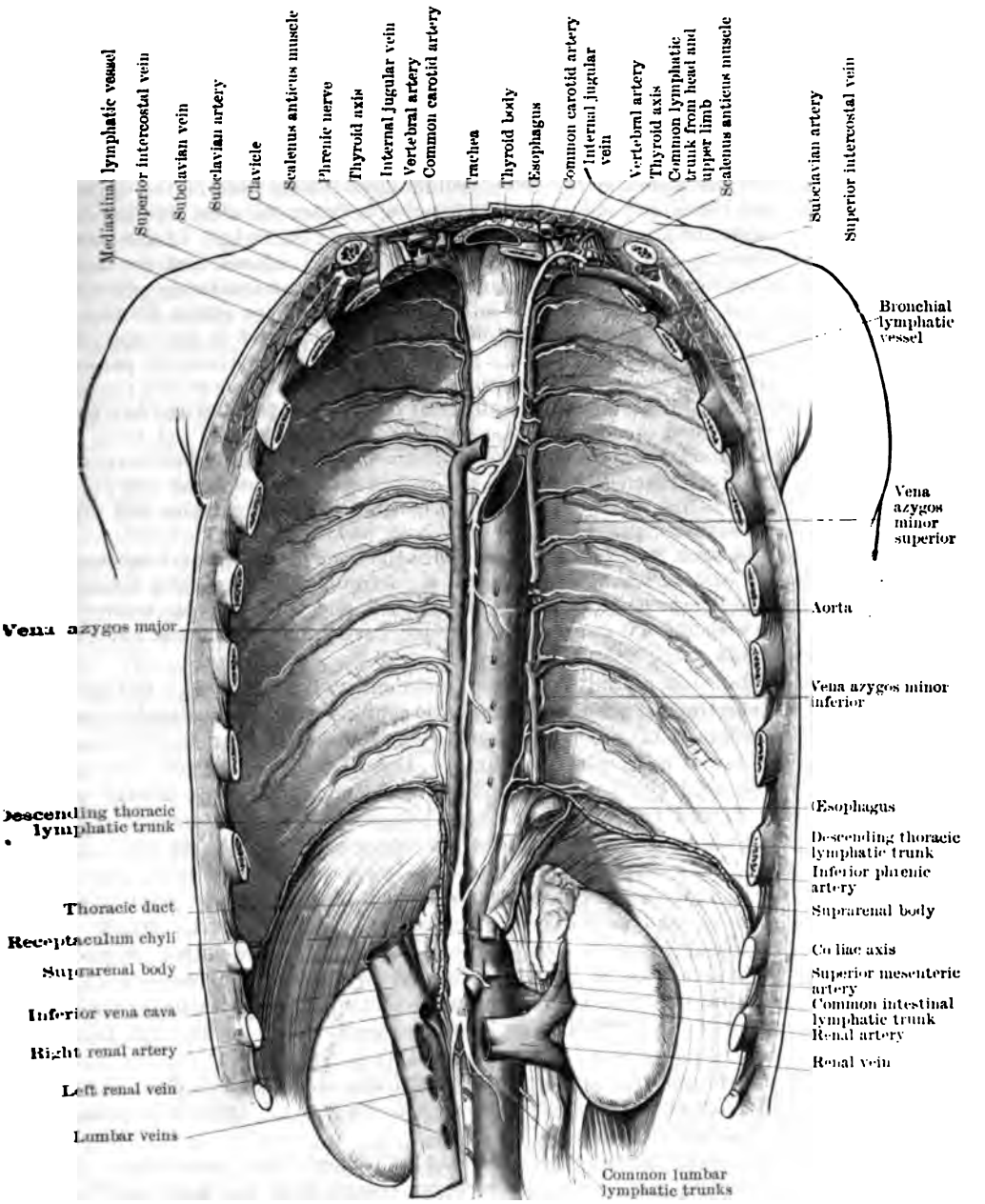


FIG. 660.—THE THORACIC DUCT AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

the aorta and the lower part of the vena azygos major, under cover of the right crus of the diaphragm, and opposite the first and second lumbar vertebræ. Passing upwards from the receptaculum, the thoracic duct traverses the aortic opening of the diaphragm and enters the posterior mediastinum, through which it ascends, lying in front of the vertebral column and to the right of the middle line, to the level of the fifth dorsal vertebra; it then crosses somewhat abruptly from the right to the left of the median plane, and ascends through the superior mediastinum to

the root of the neck, where it turns outwards, between the vertebral and common carotid arteries, to terminate at the inner border of the scalenus anticus by joining the commencement of the left innominate vein.

Length and diameter.—The total length of the duct averages about 18 inches (45 cm.). It is dilated both at its origin and termination. As a rule it is narrowest opposite the fifth dorsal vertebra, but its calibre is very variable, and sometimes the thoracic portion is broken up into a series of anastomosing channels. The widest portion of the tube is usually the receptaculum, but occasionally this dilatation is entirely absent. The duct is provided with several valves, formed by semilunar folds of the inner coat, arranged in pairs, and the most perfect of these is situated at the orifice of communication with the innominate vein.

Relations.—In the abdomen the receptaculum chyli lies in front of the upper two lumbar vertebræ and the corresponding lumbar arteries, between the aorta on the left and the vena azygos major and the right crus of the diaphragm on the right. In the posterior mediastinum the thoracic duct is separated from the vertebral column and the anterior common ligament, by the right aortic intercostal arteries and the transverse parts of the small azygos veins; it is covered in front in the lower part of its extent by the right pleural sac, and in the upper part by the œsophagus; to its right is the vena azygos major, and to its left the descending aorta. In the superior mediastinum it passes forwards from the vertebral column, and it is separated from the left longus colli muscle by a mass of fatty tissue; the œsophagus lies in front of it in this region, but the left margin of the duct projects beyond the œsophagus, and is in relation in front, and from below upwards, with the termination of the arch of the aorta, the left subclavian artery and the pleura. As the duct enters the root of the neck it passes behind the left common carotid artery, whilst to its right and somewhat in front is the œsophagus, and the left pleura is still in association with its left border.

At the root of the neck it arches outwards above the apex of the pleural sac and the first part of the left subclavian artery. It passes in front of the vertebral artery and vein, the roots of the inferior thyroid, transverse cervical, and suprascapular arteries, the inner border of the scalenus anticus and the phrenic nerve, and behind the left carotid sheath and its contents.

Tributaries.—The receptaculum chyli commonly receives six tributaries. (1) The **common intestinal** or **pre-aortic lymphatic trunk** (truncus intestinalis), which is formed by the efferent of the cœliac and upper pre-aortic glands, and conveys lymph from the lower and anterior part of the liver, the stomach, the small intestine, the spleen, and the pancreas. (2) Two **common lumbar** or **lateral aortic lymphatic trunks** (trunci lumbales), one on each side; they are formed by the efferents of the lateral aortic glands, and are sometimes joined by efferents of the retro-aortic glands; they carry lymph from the lower extremities, from the deep portions of the abdominal and pelvic walls, the large intestine and the pelvic viscera, and from the kidneys and suprarenal capsules. (3) A **retro-aortic trunk** from the retro-aortic glands (see p. 922); and (4) Two **descending lymphatic trunks**, one on each side, each of which is formed by the efferent vessels from the corresponding lower intercostal glands; these descend to the receptaculum through the aortic opening of the diaphragm. Occasionally they unite to form a single trunk.

In its course through the posterior mediastinum the thoracic duct receives efferents from the upper and back part of the liver, and from the posterior mediastinal and œsophageal glands.

In the superior mediastinum the vessels which open into it are derived from the upper left intercostal glands; it also receives lymph from the heart and lungs by efferents from the left peritracheo-bronchial glands and the intertracheo-bronchial glands, though as a rule the lymphatics of these glands unite with the internal mammary lymphatic to form a common trunk which may open either into the thoracic duct or into the innominate vein.

At the root of the neck, just before its termination, it receives the efferents from the glands of the left upper extremity, which frequently unite to form a common trunk (truncus subclavius), and the left common jugular lymphatic (truncus jugularis), which conveys the lymph from the left side of the head and neck, but either or both of these vessels may end separately in the innominate vein.

Right Lymphatic Duct.—The right lymphatic duct is not always present (ductus lymphaticus dexter, Fig. 664). It is a short trunk, from half to three-quarters of an inch (12 to 17 mm.) in length, which lies at the right side of the root of the neck along the inner border of the scalenus anticus, and it is formed by the confluence of the right common jugular lymphatic vessel and the efferent vessels from the glands of the right upper extremity; it also receives efferents from the intercostal glands of the upper intercostal spaces on the right side; the internal mammary lymphatics and the right efferents from the peritracheo-bronchial glands on the right side. It thus receives lymph from the right side of the head and neck, the right upper limb and the right side of the trunk, including the upper part of the thoracic wall, the right lung and pleura, the right half of the heart and pericardium, the right side of the diaphragm, and the upper surface of the liver. As a rule the right lymphatic duct is not present, and the right jugular lymphatic carrying the lymph from the head and neck, the right subclavian lymphatic bearing lymph from the right upper extremity, and the trunk formed by the fusion of the right internal mammary lymphatic and the right efferents from the peritracheo-bronchial glands, end separately in the upper part of the right innominate vein, but any two of the three main trunks of the right side may unite together.

THE LYMPHATIC VESSELS AND GLANDS OF THE HEAD AND NECK.

The **lymphatic vessels of the head and neck** form two groups—(1) the intracranial and (2) the extracranial.

(1) The **intracranial lymphatics** are (*a*) the cerebral and (*b*) the meningeal.

(*a*) The **cerebral lymphatic vessels** commence in the substance of the brain as perivascular spaces round the branches of the cerebral arteries; they accompany the cerebral branches of the internal carotid and the vertebral arteries, and, leaving the skull with the main arterial trunks and the internal jugular vein, terminate in the upper deep cervical glands.

(*b*) The **meningeal lymphatic vessels** commence in the substance of the dura mater; they accompany the meningeal blood-vessels, and they terminate in the internal maxillary glands and in the upper deep cervical glands.

(2) The **extra-cranial lymphatics** are either (*a*) superficial or (*b*) deep, and the two sets anastomose freely together.

(*a*) The **superficial lymphatic vessels** commence in the subcutaneous tissues and superficial muscles of the face and scalp.

(*b*) The **deep lymphatic vessels** originate in the walls of the nose and mouth, in the tongue, in the walls of the pharynx, the œsophagus, the larynx and trachea, in the contents of the orbital and other extracranial fossæ, and in the muscles, bones, and ligaments of the neck.

All the extracranial lymphatic vessels, both superficial and deep, are afferents to some of the glands of the head or neck, and their general distribution and terminations are mentioned in connexion with the glands with which they are associated.

The **lymphatic glands of the head** include the following:—

The **occipital glands** (lymphoglandulæ occipitales), two or three in number lie beneath the deep fascia of the neck upon the upper part of the trapezius muscle, or, if the trapezius is small, upon the upper part of the complexus muscle. They receive afferent vessels from the occipital region of the scalp and from the superficial parts of the upper and back portion of the neck, and their efferents terminate in the superficial and deep cervical glands. Some of the lymph vessels of the occipital region pass directly to the deep cervical glands.

The **mastoid glands** (lymphoglandulæ auriculares posteriores) lie on the upper part of the sterno-mastoid muscle and on the mastoid portion of the temporal bone, and they are bound down by a sheathing of deep cervical fascia. They receive afferent vessels from the posterior part of the parietal region of the scalp, and from the inner surface of the pinna; their efferents join the superficial and deep cervical glands.

The zygomatic or **internal maxillary glands** (lymphoglandulæ faciales profundæ)

are very variable both in number and size; they lie, in part in association with the internal maxillary artery, extending from the posterior part of the buccinator muscle, across the external pterygoid muscle, to the anterior part of the wall of the pharynx. Their afferent vessels are derived from the orbit, the temporal fossa, the zygomatic fossa, the palate, the nose, and the cerebral meninges. Their efferent vessels open into the upper deep cervical glands.

The **parotid lymphatic glands** (lymphoglandulæ auriculares anteriores), which are embedded in the substance of the parotid gland, some superficially immediately beneath the fascia on the external surface and others deeply. The *superficial* receive afferents from the frontal and the temporal regions of the scalp, from the eyebrow, the upper and lower eyelids, the upper part of the cheek, the root of the nose, and the outer surface of the pinna. Their efferents pass to the superficial and the upper deep cervical glands. The *deep parotid lymphatic glands* (lympho-glandulæ parotideæ) lie along the course of the upper part of the external carotid artery. They receive afferents from the external meatus, the tympanum, the soft palate, the posterior part of the nose, and the deeper portions of the cheek. Their efferents open into the upper deep cervical glands, and they also communicate with the glands round the external jugular vein.

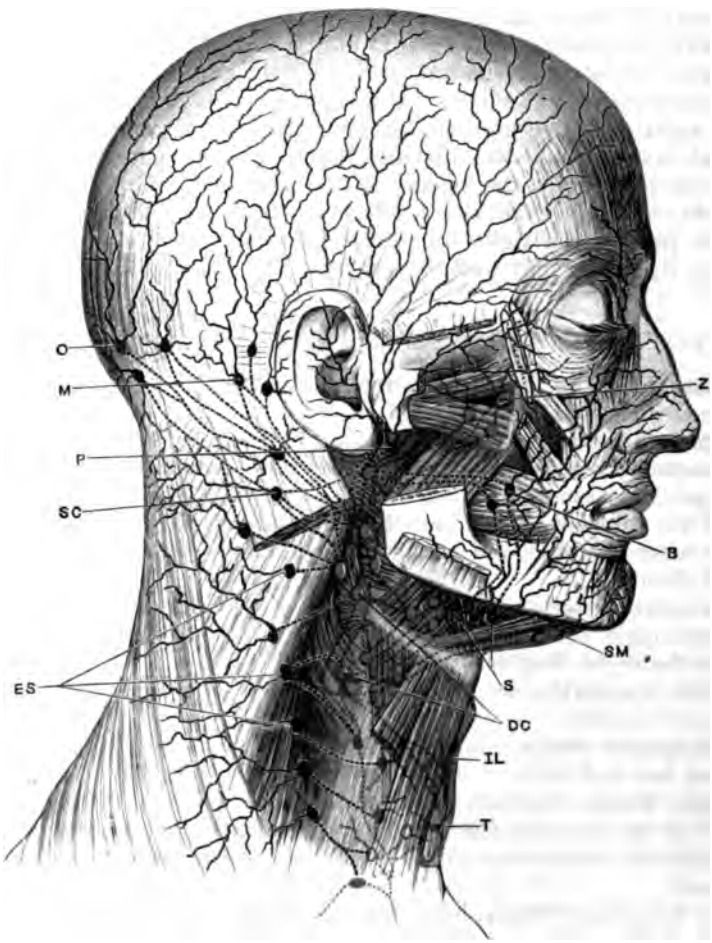


FIG. 661.—LYMPHATIC VESSELS AND GLANDS OF THE HEAD AND NECK.

The afferent vessels are shown in continuous lines; the efferent and inter-glandular vessels are represented by dotted lines.

D.C. Deep cervical glands.	P.L. Pre-laryngeal glands.
B. Buccal glands.	S. Submaxillary glands.
E.S. External sub-sterno-mastoid glands.	S.C. Superficial cervical glands.
M. Mastoid glands.	S.M. Submental glands.
O. Occipital glands.	T. Pre-tracheal glands.
P. Superficial parotid glands.	Z. Zygomatic glands.

The **Facial Glands** —Several glands or groups of glands have been found by different observers in the tissues of the face. Those most regularly present are the **mandibular glands**, which lie close to the facial artery as it crosses the mandible immediately in front of the masseter muscle. A number of **buccal glands**, irregular in number and size, are met with on the outer surface of the fascia covering the buccinator muscle, some near its anterior part and others near the point where the buccinator is pierced by Stensen's duct. A *lateral nasal gland* is sometimes present in the angle between the ala of the nose and the cheek, and an *infraorbital* and a *malar gland* are described. These glands receive lymph from the tissues in their im-

mediate neighbourhood, and their efferents pass to the submaxillary or parotid glands.

The **lingual glands** (lymphoglandulæ inguales) lie between the genio-hyo-glossi muscles and, on the outer surfaces of the hyo-glossi and genio-hyo-glossi muscles, under cover of the mylo-hyoid muscles; they are simply small lymphatic nodules interposed in the course of the lymphatics which are passing from the tongue and the floor of the mouth to the deep cervical glands.

The **lymphatic glands of the neck** include—

The **superficial cervical lymphatic glands** (lymphoglandulæ cervicales superficiales). These lie on or are embedded in the deep fascia along the course of the external jugular vein, superficial to the sterno-mastoid. They receive afferent vessels from the superficial tissues of the neck, the mastoid, the superficial parotid, and the submaxillary lymphatic glands. Their efferent vessels terminate in the upper deep cervical glands and the supra-clavicular glands.

The **submaxillary lymphatic glands** (lymphoglandulæ submaxillares) vary in number from three to six. They lie under cover of the deep fascia of the neck in the angle between the lower border of the mandible and the submaxillary gland, and the largest of the series is usually situated near the point where the facial artery turns round the lower border of the mandible. Occasionally some smaller gland nodules are found on the deep surface of the submaxillary gland, but these are comparatively rare. The afferent vessels of the submaxillary lymphatic glands carry lymph from the side of the nose, the upper lip, the outer part of the lower lip, the anterior third of the border of the tongue, the gums, the submaxillary and sublingual glands, and the adjacent parts of the floor of the mouth. The efferents descend over the superficial surface of the submaxillary gland, and terminate in the upper deep cervical glands, more particularly in those in the immediate neighbourhood of the termination of the common carotid artery.

The **supra-hyoid** or **submental glands** lie immediately beneath the chin superficial to the mylo-hyoid muscles and between the two anterior bellies of the digastric muscles. They are apt to become enlarged in diseased conditions of the middle part of the lower lip, the adjacent part of the gums, the anterior part of the floor of the mouth, the tip of the tongue, and the skin beneath the chin, for their afferent vessels drain those parts. The efferents from this group of glands pass partly to the submaxillary lymphatic glands, and partly to a deep cervical gland situated on the superficial surface of the internal jugular vein at the level of the cricoid cartilage.

The **post-pharyngeal glands** lie behind the pharynx and in front of the upper two cervical vertebrae. Their afferents are derived from the nasal cavities and the air sinuses communicating with them, the naso-pharynx, the Eustachian tube and tympanic cavity, and the adjacent muscles, ligaments, and bones. Thus they receive the lymph outflow from a large area much subject to inflammatory conditions, and on this account they not uncommonly become infected and form the foci of post-pharyngeal abscesses.

Their efferents terminate in the upper deep cervical glands.

The **anterior jugular glands** are of small size; they are very variable and of little importance. When they are present they lie along the course of the anterior jugular vein.

The **pre-laryngeal glands** are also very variable. When present they lie in the crico-thyroid space between the anterior borders of the crico-thyroid muscles. Their afferents are derived from the lower and middle parts of the larynx, the upper part of the trachea, and the thyroid body. Their efferents as a rule terminate in the lower deep cervical glands, but they also anastomose with the afferents of the pre-tracheal glands, and occasionally they ascend, and, uniting with the lymphatics from the region of the upper part of the larynx, they terminate in the upper deep cervical glands in the region of the posterior belly of the digastric muscle.

The **pre-tracheal glands** are generally present, but are small. They lie upon the surface of the trachea, receiving afferents from the trachea, the lower part of the thyroid body, and occasionally from the pre-laryngeal glands. Their efferents join the lower deep cervical glands.

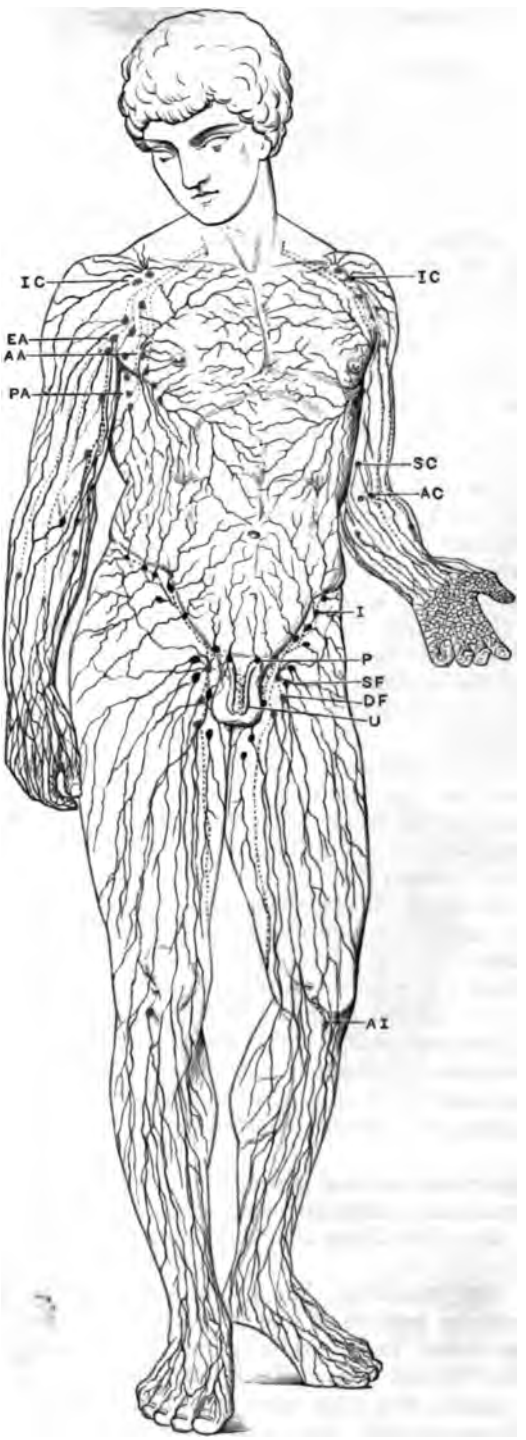


FIG. 662.—SUPERFICIAL LYMPHATIC VESSELS OF THE TRUNK, AND THE LYMPHATIC GLANDS AND VESSELS—SUPERFICIAL AND DEEP—OF THE LIMBS (diagrammatic). All superficial lymphatics are printed black; the deep lymphatics throughout are coloured red. Afferent vessels are represented by continuous lines; efferent and interglandular vessels by dotted lines.

A.A. Anterior axillary glands
A.C. Ante-cubital glands.
A.I. Anterior tibial glands
D.F. Deep femoral glands.
E.A. External axillary glands.
I. Inguinal glands.
I.C. Infra-clavicular or subclavian glands.
P. Pubic glands.
P.A. Posterior axillary glands.
S.C. Supra-trochlear glands.
S.F. Superficial femoral glands.
U. Urethral lymphatics.

The **deep cervical glands** lie under cover of the sterno-mastoid and in the posterior triangle of the neck. The former are designated sub-sterno-mastoid and the latter supra-clavicular. They form in reality a continuous sheet of glandular nodules connected together by vessels, but it is usual to separate them, on account of their positions, into those which are sub-sterno-mastoid and those which lie in the posterior triangle and are therefore supra-clavicular.

The **sub-sterno-mastoid glands** are separable into external and internal chains.

The *external chain* of sub-sterno-mastoid glands lies behind the internal jugular vein under cover of the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid muscle and on the roots of the cervical plexus of nerves. The glands of this chain receive afferents from the occipital, mastoid, and external jugular glands, from the pinna, the posterior part of the scalp and the adjacent muscles, and the bones and skin of the neck. The group is continuous below with the supra-clavicular glands, and its efferents terminate either in those glands or in the glands of the internal sub-sterno-mastoid chain. When they become enlarged the external sub-sterno-mastoid glands can be felt and even seen projecting from under cover of the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid.

The *internal chain* of sub-sterno-mastoid glands extends along the internal jugular vein from the base of the cranium to the clavicle, and it is not uncommonly spoken of as consisting of two groups of glands which are called the upper and lower deep cervical glands, the former lying above and the latter below the level of the thyroid cartilage. There is, however, no distinct separation between the two groups, and the division is made use of merely for convenience in indicating the higher or lower terminations of the afferent vessels.

The upper group (lymphoglandulæ cervicales profundæ superiores) extends from the base of the skull to the bifurcation of the common carotid artery at the level of the upper border of the thyroid cartilage. Its constituent glands vary considerably in size, and one of the largest, which lies under cover of the posterior belly of the digastric muscle, receives the majority of the lymphatics from the tongue, and is therefore of great clinical importance. The glands of this group are connected with many important regions, and are therefore liable to become enlarged as a result of diseased conditions in many of the upper parts of the head and neck. Their afferents are derived from the interior of the cranium, the nose, the pharynx, the palate, the tonsils, the upper part of the larynx, the whole of the tongue, except its tip and the anterior third of each lateral border, and the thyroid body. They also receive as afferents the efferent vessels from the buccal, the internal maxillary, the retro-pharyngeal, the sub-parotid, and the deep parotid glands, and from some of the glands of the external sub-sterno-mastoid chain. They occasionally receive the efferents from the pre-laryngeal glands carrying lymph from the lower part of the larynx.

The lower glands of the internal sub-sterno-mastoid chain or the lower deep cervical glands (lymphoglandulæ cervicales profundæ inferiores) lie along the lower part of the internal jugular vein. They receive the efferents from the external chain of sub-sterno-mastoid glands, from the pre-laryngeal glands, and from a group of small glands which lie in the groove between the trachea and œsophagus, along the course of the recurrent laryngeal nerve. These glands receive lymph from the trachea, œsophagus, and the lower part of the thyroid body.

The efferents of both the upper and lower deep cervical glands unite together at the lower part of the neck to form a common jugular lymphatic trunk which terminates on the right side either by uniting with the subclavian lymphatic from the upper limb to form the right lymphatic duct, or separately in the commencement of the innominate vein. On the left side the jugular lymphatic trunk generally ends in the thoracic duct, but it may end either in the internal jugular, the subclavian, or innominate veins.

The **supra-clavicular glands** lie in the anterior part of the posterior triangle of the neck amidst the descending branches of the cervical plexus and on the roots of the brachial plexus. The uppermost part of this group is continuous with the external sub-sterno-mastoid glands, and the lowermost is situated in the region of the termination of the external jugular vein. The afferent vessels are derived from the neck and the posterior part of the scalp; from the upper extremity, many of the efferents of the external axillary glands terminating in the supra-clavicular glands, whilst occasionally the lymphatics which accompany the cephalic vein cross the clavicle, instead of dipping into the subclavian glands, and terminate in the supra-clavicular glands. In addition, some of the lymphatics on the pectoral region, amongst which may be included some occasional vessels from the mammary gland, also end in the supra-clavicular glands.

It is well known that the supra-clavicular glands sometimes become enlarged subsequent to the appearance of malignant conditions in the abdomen and the mediastinum, and more particularly subsequent to affections of the œsophageal portion of the stomach. The course along which the infective material travels in these cases is not yet known, for as yet no afferent vessels have been traced to the supra-clavicular glands from the mediastinum.

The efferents of the supra-clavicular glands usually terminate in the jugular lymphatic trunk.

LYMPHATIC GLANDS AND VESSELS OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The **lymphatic glands of the upper extremity** are divisible into (1) superficial and (2) deep sets.

(1) The **superficial glands** lie in the subcutaneous tissue, and form two groups, a lower and an upper. The *lower* or *ante-cubital group* is frequently absent; when present it includes two or three glands which lie in front of the elbow; they receive afferent vessels from the front of the forearm and from the median part of

the palm, and occasionally become enlarged subsequent to infective inflammations of those areas. They give off efferent vessels which pass upwards and inwards along the antero-internal aspect of the arm. At varying levels these efferents pierce the deep fascia and terminate in the external axillary glands. The *upper* or *supra-trochlear group* lies a short distance above the internal condyle; as a rule it includes two glands only, but the number may be increased to four; they lie close to the commencement of the basilic vein, and their afferent vessels are derived from the inner two or three digits, the inner side of the forearm, and the inner side of the palm. Their efferents pass upwards along the basilic vein, which they accompany through the opening in the deep fascia; they then join the deep lymphatics, which are ascending along the brachial artery, and accompany them to the external axillary glands.

(2) The **deep glands** lie along the vessels in the axilla and, just below the clavicle, in the groove between the pectoralis major and the deltoid muscles. They are accordingly divisible into (*a*) the axillary and (*b*) the infra-clavicular or subclavian glands.

One or two small glands are occasionally found with the arteries of the forearm and a few with the brachial artery; they receive deep afferent lymphatics from the adjacent muscles, ligaments, and the bones, and they give off efferent vessels which terminate in the external axillary glands.

(*a*) The **axillary glands** are arranged in four groups—external, anterior, posterior, and central.

(i.) The **external group** (lymphoglandulæ axillares) consists of from six or more glands which form a chain along the antero-internal aspect of the axillary vessels, extending from the lower border of the pectoralis major to the outer border of the first rib. They receive afferent vessels, both superficial and deep, from the whole of the upper extremity; many of these pass directly to the glands from the tissues, the remainder include the efferents of the superficial and deep glands of the forearm and arm, and some of the efferents of the anterior and posterior axillary glands. The efferents of the external axillary glands pass along the subclavian vein, and the majority either terminate in the subclavian glands or unite with their efferents to form a common subclavian trunk, which terminate on the right side in the right lymphatic duct or in the innominate vein, and on the left side in the thoracic duct; but some of the efferents end in the supra-clavicular glands, and others in the central glands.

(ii.) The **anterior axillary** or **pectoral glands** (lymphoglandulæ pectorales), four or five in number, lie at the anterior part of the axilla, in the angle between the pectoral muscles and the serratus magnus. They receive afferent vessels from the superficial parts of the anterior and lateral walls of the body above the umbilicus, and from the outer two-thirds of the mammary gland. Some of their efferents pass to the external axillary glands, some to the subclavian glands, and others end in the glands of the central group.

(iii.) The **posterior** or **subscapular set** of axillary glands (lymphoglandulæ subscapulares), four or five in number, lie along the sides of the subscapular artery on the posterior wall of the axilla. Their afferents are the superficial lymphatics of the lateral and posterior parts of the body-wall above the umbilicus, and the superficial lymphatics of the lower and back part of the neck. Their efferents generally join the external and central axillary glands, but some may end in the subclavian glands.

(iv.) The **central group** lies at the base of the axilla resting on the axillary fascia between the other groups. It consists of from three to five glands which receive afferents from the external, posterior, and anterior groups of glands, and its efferents pass to the subclavian glands.

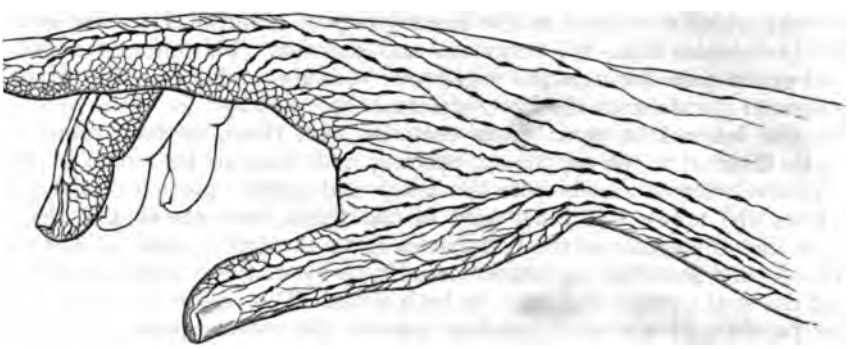
(*b*) The **infra-clavicular** or **subclavian glands** lie in relation with the upper part of the axillary vein, and appear to be the upward extension of the external and anterior axillary glands. They receive efferents from all four groups of axillary glands, a deep lymphatic from the mamma which pierces the pectoralis major, and also the lymphatics which accompany the cephalic vein and carry lymph from the outer side of the hand, forearm, and arm. In the course of

atter vessels a few small glands are sometimes interpolated in the groove n the deltoid and pectoralis major muscles.

› **lymphatic vessels of the upper extremity** are, like the glands, arranged sets, (1) the superficial and (2) the deep.

› **superficial lymphatic vessels** commence in cutaneous plexuses which est and most dense on the palmar aspects of the fingers and hand. The :s from the palmar digital plexuses, in each digit, converge to four trunks, lie two on each side in the subcutaneous tissue on the lateral margins of rsal aspects of the digits. They accompany the dorsal digital veins, and, roots of the digits, they pass to the dorsum of the hand, where they nose together. The plexus in the palm of the hand is extremely fine, and ts pass from it not only upwards, but also downwards and laterally. The ›fferents, three or four in number, accompany the median vein, and terminate in the superficial glands at the bend of the elbow or in the supra-trochlear

The lower efferents pass to the interdigital spaces, and turn backwards dorsum to join the digital trunks. The lateral efferents turn round the ı of the hand, those on the inner side join the efferents from the little and those on the outer side the efferents from the thumb. Occasionally f the efferents which pass towards the outer side fuse to form a fairly large



663.—Superficial Lymphatics of the Digits and of the Dorsal Aspect of the Hand.

the so-called *central lymphatic*, which turns round the outer side of the metacarpal bone and unites with the lymphatic vessels of the thumb and inger.

› superficial lymphatic vessels of the forearm, including those which ascend ıe dorsum and the palm of the hand, are grouped, for the main part, along lial, median, and ulnar veins, the lateral vessels being joined at intervals by ries from the dorsum of the limb.

› lymphatic trunks which accompany the ulnar veins terminate in the supra-ar glands, and those which accompany the median vein in the glands at the f the elbow, the ante-cubital glands, or, if these are not present, in the ırochlear glands.

› efferent vessels of the ante-cubital and supra-trochlear glands have already escribed (p. 914).

ew of the lymphatics of the outer side of the forearm and some of those of per arm accompany the cephalic vein and carry lymph to the infra-clavicular or to some small glands which lie in the groove between the deltoid and ılis major muscles whose efferents join the infra-clavicular glands.

the remaining superficial vessels of the upper arm and forearm pass towards illa. They pierce the deep fascia, and terminate in the external set of y glands.

› **deep lymphatics of the upper extremity** commence in the bones, eum, ligaments, muscles, and intermuscular connective tissue; they ›any the main vessels, and some of them terminate in the deep glands forearm and arm, but the majority ascend to the external set of axillary

THE LYMPHATIC GLANDS AND VESSELS OF THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

Lymphatic Glands of the Lower Extremity.—Like those of the upper extremity, these glands are arranged in two sets, (1) superficial and (2) deep.

(1) **Superficial Glands.**—The superficial glands all lie in the region of the groin, and form three groups—the superior, the inferior, and the internal, which are all closely associated together by numerous inter-communicating channels.

(*a*) The **superior** or **inguinal group** includes from four to seven flattened ovoid glands which lie parallel with and just below Poupart's ligament. They receive afferent vessels from the back and outer part of the thigh and the buttock, and the superficial lymphatics from the body-wall below the level of the umbilicus, except those from the lower and anterior part which pass to the internal group of glands. Their efferents pass through the deep fascia, and terminate in either the deep femoral or the lower external iliac glands.

(*b*) The **inferior** or **superficial femoral group** is formed by from three to six oval glands which are disposed vertically along the upper part of the internal or long saphenous vein. They receive all the superficial lymphatics of the foot and leg, except a few which accompany the external saphenous vein to the popliteal glands; all the superficial lymphatics of the thigh, except those from the upper and outer part, which terminate in the superior set of glands, and a few from the upper and inner part which terminate in the inner group of glands. They also occasionally receive lymphatics from the perineum and scrotum. The efferent vessels of the femoral group pass through the saphenous opening, and terminate either in the deep femoral glands or in the lower external iliac glands.

(*c*) The **internal** or **pubic group** includes two, three, or four rounded glands which lie internal to the saphenous opening and close to the spine of the pubis. They receive afferent vessels from the lower and middle portion of the abdominal wall, from the upper and inner part of the thigh, from the skin of the external genitals, including some of the lymphatics from the lower third of the vagina in the female, and from the perineum, including some of the lymphatics of the lowest part of the anal passage and anus, in both sexes. The vessels from the lower third of the vagina and the corresponding part of the rectum communicate not only with the inguinal glands but also with the sacral glands. The efferent vessels of the pubic glands communicate with the efferents of the superior and inferior groups, and, after passing through the saphenous opening, they terminate either in the deep femoral or the lower external iliac glands. Although the general arrangement of the afferent vessels of the superficial inguinal glands is that above indicated, it must be understood that it is not constant, and that lymphatics which frequently terminate in one group may in some cases end in an adjacent group, a fact which must be kept in mind in the investigation of diseased conditions.

(2) **Deep Glands.**—The deep lymphatic glands of the lower extremity are found on the upper part of the interosseous membrane of the leg, in the popliteal space, and in Scarpa's triangle.

The **anterior tibial gland** (lymphoglandula tibialis anterior) is situated near the anterior tibial artery on the upper part of the front of the interosseous membrane. It receives afferent vessels from the deep parts of the sole and the dorsum of the foot, and from the deep parts of the front of the leg. It gives off two efferent vessels which pass backwards along the anterior tibial artery and terminate in the popliteal glands.

The **popliteal glands** (lymphoglandulæ popliteæ) are four or five in number; they lie in the popliteal space, generally round the popliteal artery, but occasionally there is one immediately beneath the deep fascia near the entrance of the external saphenous vein. They receive afferent vessels from the sole of the foot and the back of the leg, from the anterior tibial gland and the knee-joint; they also receive the superficial lymphatics which accompany the external saphenous vein. The majority of the efferent vessels join the deep femoral glands, but some become superficial and end in the inferior superficial femoral glands, and it is stated that others accompany the sciatic nerve and end in the lateral pelvic glands.

The **deep femoral glands**, three or four in number, lie on the inner side of the

femoral vein, and the largest of the group, known as the *gland of Cloquet* or Rosenmüller, is embedded in the crural canal. Their afferent vessels are the efferents of the popliteal glands, some of the efferents from the superficial glands of the groin, the lymphatics from the glans penis and some of the lymph vessels from the penile portion of the urethra, and the deep lymphatic vessels from the front and outer side of the thigh and knee. Their efferents pass to the external iliac glands.

Lymphatic Vessels of the Lower Extremity.—There are two sets of these vessels, (1) the superficial and (2) the deep.

(1) **Superficial Vessels.**—The superficial lymphatics lie in the subcutaneous tissues. They commence in plexuses which are best marked on the plantar aspects of the toes and foot. The lymphatic vessels which emerge from the plantar plexus in each toe terminate in four digital vessels which are arranged in pairs along the dorso-lateral border of the digit, and these end posteriorly in a plexus on the dorsum of the foot.

Some of the vessels which drain the plexus in the sole of the foot turn round the outer and inner borders of the foot and join the dorsal plexus, whilst others pass up the leg with the efferent vessels from the dorsal plexus.

The efferent vessels from the dorsal lymphatic plexus of the foot form two groups, an inner and an outer. The inner vessels are the more numerous, and they are joined by additional vessels from the inner part of the sole and heel. Some of them pass upwards in front of and others behind the internal malleolus; in the leg they accompany the internal saphenous vein, and they terminate in the lower or femoral set of superficial glands. The outer group of vessels is reinforced by tributaries from the outer side of the sole and heel; most of the vessels of this group pass upwards in front of the external malleolus, but some go behind that prominence of bone; they gradually turn inwards as they ascend, and, passing across the front of the leg, they join the internal group, being first reinforced by numerous additional vessels from the front and outer side of the leg, and they terminate, with the vessels of the inner group, in the superficial femoral glands.

A few vessels of the outer group, and one or two large vessels which rise from the back of the heel and the lower part of the leg, ascend along the external saphenous vein, pierce the popliteal fascia, and terminate in the popliteal glands.

The superficial lymphatic vessels from the front, the lower and outer, lower and inner, and the back parts of the thigh and knee, terminate in the superficial femoral glands. The vessels from the upper and outer parts of the thigh and from the buttock end in the superficial inguinal glands, and those from the upper portions of the inner and back parts of the thigh in the superficial pubic glands.

(2) **Deep Vessels.**—The deep lymphatics of the lower extremity commence in the bones, periosteum, ligaments, muscles, and deep connective tissue. They follow the main arteries, and they terminate in the anterior tibial, popliteal, and deep femoral glands.

The vessels which terminate in the anterior tibial gland have already been mentioned (p. 916).

The majority of the deep vessels from the sole accompany the plantar arteries; they ascend in the leg along the posterior tibial vessels, and are joined by the deep lymphatics of the back of the leg which accompany the peroneal and posterior tibial arteries. At the lower border of the popliteus the deep vessels of the back of the leg meet the efferent vessels from the anterior tibial gland and ascend with them to the popliteal glands.

The deep lymphatics of the front of the thigh and the efferents of the popliteal glands end in the deep femoral glands; those of the upper part of the back of the thigh and buttock accompany the sciatic and gluteal vessels, and terminate in the lateral pelvic glands; the deep vessels which originate amidst the upper portions of the adductor muscles and their surroundings accompany the obturator vessels, and terminate in the obturator or in the lateral pelvic glands.

THE LYMPHATIC GLANDS AND VESSELS OF THE ABDOMEN AND PELVIS.

The **superficial lymphatics** of the abdominal wall have already been sufficiently referred to as afferent vessels of the axillary glands and of the superficial glands of the groin (pp. 914 and 916).

Deep Lymphatic Glands and Vessels.—The lymphatic glands of the abdomen and pelvis are arranged in two main groups, (1) the visceral glands and (2) the parietal glands. The visceral glands lie in close relation with the walls of the viscera or in the folds of peritoneum, by which the viscera are either connected together or attached to the walls of the abdomen or pelvis; they receive the majority of the lymphatic vessels from the viscera with which they are associated. The parietal glands lie between the peritoneum and the walls of the abdomen and pelvis; they receive deep vessels from the abdominal and pelvic parietes, and from the deep parts of the thigh and buttock. They also receive efferent lymphatics from the glands of the lower extremities, as well as some of the efferent vessels from the visceral glands, and a few vessels which pass directly to them from the walls of the viscera.

(1) The **visceral glands** include the following:—

Gastric Glands.—The gastric glands are separable into the coronary, the sub-pyloric, and the retro-pyloric groups.

The coronary glands (lymphoglandulæ gastricæ superiores) are situated in relation with the upper part of the small curvature of the stomach between the layers of the gastro-hepatic omentum, and in the left pancreatico-gastric fold immediately behind and to the right of the cardiac orifice. They receive afferents from the small curvature, except at the pyloric end, and from a little more than the right halves of the anterior and posterior walls of the vertical portion of the stomach. They also receive afferents from the left and posterior part of the upper surface of the liver. Their efferents terminate in the cœliac group of pre-aortic glands.

The **sub-pyloric glands** lie in the gastro-colic omentum near the pyloric end of the stomach. Their afferents are derived from the lower part of the great curvature and from the immediately adjacent parts of the anterior and posterior surfaces of the stomach. Their efferents end in the retro-pyloric glands.

The **retro-pyloric glands** are very variable. They are situated directly behind the pyloric end of the stomach and the first part of the duodenum, in close association with the gastro-duodenal artery and in the right pancreatico-gastric fold. They receive as afferents the efferents of the sub-pyloric glands, and also afferent vessels from the right part of the small curvature and from the posterior surface of the pyloric portion of the stomach. Their efferents pass to the cœliac group of pre-aortic glands.

In certain cases of disease of the gastric glands, more particularly of the coronary group, metastatic deposits occur in the supra-clavicular glands, but no direct connexion between the two groups of glands has hitherto been discovered.

The lymphatics from the anterior and posterior walls of the left half of the vertical portion of the stomach pass to the splenic glands.

The **splenic glands** lie near the hilum of the spleen in relation with the tail of the pancreas, and in the lieno-renal ligament; they receive the lymph vessels from the left half of the vertical portion of the stomach, from the capsule and the substance of the spleen, and from the pancreas. Their efferent vessels, accompanied by some of the lymphatics from the left part of the great curvature of the stomach, pass inwards in the lieno-renal ligament and terminate in the cœliac glands.

The **hepatic glands** lie in the hilum of the liver and in the small omentum beneath it. Many lie along the left side of the vertical portion of the portal vein, and others along the common, the hepatic, and the cystic bile ducts. The highest of the latter, which lies close to the neck of the gall bladder, is known as the cystic gland; it constitutes, however, but one of the hepatic glands. The cystic gland receives afferents from the lateral and under surface of the right lobe to the right of the gall bladder, and the remaining hepatic glands receive afferents from the

anterior surface, from the Spigelian and the quadrate lobes, and from the lower and anterior portion of the deep substance of the liver. The efferents of the hepatic glands pass to the cœliac group of pre-aortic glands.

The **pancreatic glands** (lymphoglandulæ pancreaticæ), which are sometimes included in the splenic group, lie along the upper border of the pancreas behind the small sac of the peritoneum; they receive the lymphatics which issue from the pancreas, and efferents from the splenic and from the diaphragmatic glands. Their efferent vessels terminate in the cœliac glands.

The **superior mesenteric glands** (lymphoglandulæ mesentericæ) are numerous (100 to 200); they are scattered between the layers of the mesentery and in the transverse mesocolon, and they are most numerous in that portion of the mesentery which is connected with the jejunum. They vary in size, but the largest are rarely larger than an almond; the smaller glands lie near the intestine, and the larger near the attached border of the mesentery. They receive afferent vessels from the walls of the jejunum and ileum, and from the ascending colon, the cæcum, and the transverse colon. Their efferents terminate in the pre-aortic glands.

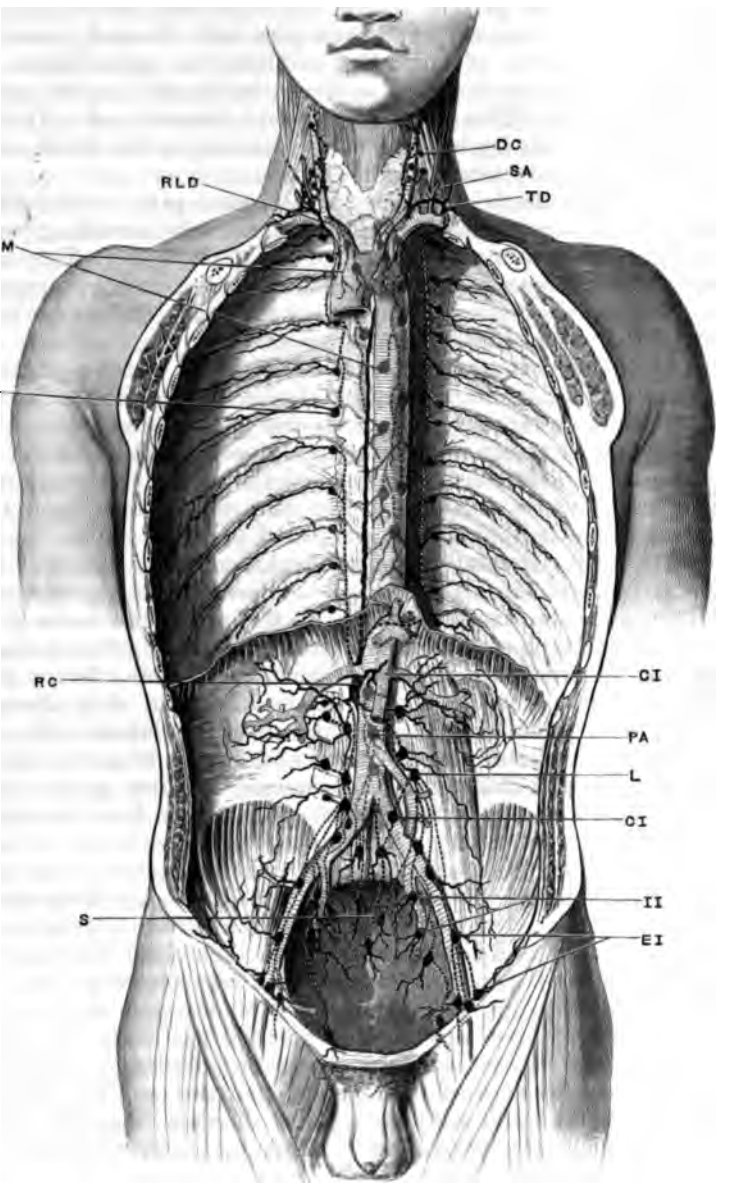


FIG. 664.—DEEP LYMPHATIC GLANDS AND VESSELS OF THE THORAX AND ABDOMEN (diagrammatic).

Lateral lymphatics are coloured black, and mesial red. Afferent vessels are represented by continuous lines, and efferent and interglandular vessels by dotted lines.

C.	Common iliac glands.	M.	Mediastinal glands and vessels.
C.I.	Common intestinal trunk.	P.A.	Pre-aortic glands and vessels.
D.C.	Deep cervical glands.	R.C.	Receptaculum chylii.
E.I.	External iliac glands.	R.L.D.	Right lymphatic duct.
I.	Intercostal glands and vessels.	S.	Sacral glands.
I.I.	Internal iliac glands.	S.A.	Scalenus anticus muscle.
L.	Lateral aortic glands.	T.D.	Thoracic duct.

The **ileo-cæcal glands**, four or five in number, are a subsidiary group of the mesenteric glands, and are situated in the lowest part of the mesentery near the angle between the ileum and the ascending colon. They receive afferent vessels from the lowest part of the ileum, from the cæcum, and from the vermiform appendix, and their efferent vessels pass, with those of the other mesenteric glands, into the pre-aortic glands. One of them, the *appendicular gland*, is occasionally separated from the rest, and is placed in the base of the mesentery of the vermiform appendix. This gland is of special interest, not only because it receives the lymphatics of the appendix, but also because in the female some of the lymphatics of the right ovary terminate in it.

The **colic glands** are also, for the main part, a subsidiary group of superior mesenteric glands; they lie in relation with the ascending portion of the colon and in the transverse mesocolic fold of the peritoneum. They receive the lymphatic vessels which issue from the portion of the gut in their immediate neighbourhood and their efferent vessels terminate in the juxta- and pre-aortic glands and in glands round the root of the superior mesenteric artery.

The **inferior mesenteric glands** are situated in the course of the inferior mesenteric artery and its branches; they receive lymph from the ileo-pelvic and descending colon and transmit it to the juxta- and pre-aortic glands.

The **rectal glands** are a few small glands which lie in the meso-rectum and the areolar tissue between the rectum and the sacrum; they are small, and they receive lymphatic vessels from the upper part of the rectum. Their efferent vessels terminate in the juxta-aortic and sacral glands.

The **cœliac glands** (lymphoglandulæ cœliacæ) surround the cœliac axis, and lie in front of the abdominal aorta above the origin of the superior mesenteric artery, and are simply a group of the upper pre-aortic glands. They vary in number, and are of large size; they receive the efferent vessels from the gastric, splenic, pancreatic, and hepatic glands, and their efferent trunks unite with the efferents from the pre-aortic glands, and form with them a single trunk, the common intestinal lymphatic trunk, which terminates in the receptaculum chyli.

(2) The **parietal glands of the abdomen and pelvis** are as follows:—

The **external iliac glands** are arranged in three groups, an outer, a middle, and an inner, placed respectively to the outer side, in front of, and to the inner side of the external iliac artery. The *inner group* is situated in the cavity of the pelvis between the external iliac vein and the obturator nerve, but inasmuch as it is directly associated with the efferent vessels from the deep crural glands it must be ascribed to the external iliac group. Each group forms a chain consisting of three or more glands, and the lowest gland of each chain, which is situated immediately above Poupart's ligament, is known as a *retro-crural gland*. The internal chain of external iliac glands receives afferents from the deep and superficial inguinal glands, from the deeper portions of the abdominal wall from the region of the umbilicus downwards, from the adductor group of muscles along the obturator nerve and artery, from the neck of the bladder, from the prostate, from the membranous and bulbous parts of the urethra, and also afferents from the glans penis or the glans clitoris which have passed along the crural canal. Its efferents pass to either the common or internal iliac glands.

The *middle chain* is connected by anastomosing vessels both with the internal and external chains, and it also receives afferent vessels from the neck of the uterus and the upper part of the vagina in the female, from the prostate in the male, and from the bladder in both sexes. Its efferents pass to the common iliac glands.

The afferents of the external chain convey lymph from the superficial and deep inguinal glands from the deeper parts of the lateral and anterior portions of the abdominal wall, and a certain amount of lymph from the glans penis or clitoris which passes along vessels which traverse the inguinal canal.

If the student bears in mind what has already been said with regard to the inguinal and external iliac glands, it will be obvious to him that whilst the lymphatics of the scrotum and the skin of the penis terminate entirely, or almost entirely, in the superficial inguinal glands, those of the glans pass to the deep crural and the retro-crural glands, and it is worth noting that some of those which end in

the retro-crural glands pass to their terminations along the crural and others along the inguinal canal. It is also a matter of clinical importance to remember that the lymphatics from the urethra also end partly in the deep inguinal glands, partly in the external iliac glands, and partly in the internal iliac glands: those which terminate in the latter glands including some which carry lymph from the prostatic, membranous, and bulbar parts of the canal.

The efferents of the external iliac glands terminate in the common iliac glands.

The **obturator gland** is situated in the pelvis at the upper end of the obturator canal below and behind the obturator nerve. It is not constant, but when it is present it receives lymph from the deeper parts of the inner portion of the thigh, and its efferent vessels end in the inner chain of external iliac glands.

The deep glands of the anterior wall of the abdomen.—These glands are irregular both in number and occurrence, and they are small in size. When they are present they lie along the deep circumflex iliac and the deep epigastric arteries, and are known as the circumflex iliac and epigastric glands. In addition, however, there are, at least in the child, one or two small glands lying in relation with the posterior surface of the sheath of the rectus abdominis above the umbilicus, the supra-umbilical glands, and there is frequently a single infra-umbilical gland situated to one or the other side of the middle line below the umbilicus. The *circumflex iliac* and *epigastric glands* receive afferents from the adjacent parts of the abdominal walls, and their efferents end in the external iliac glands. The *supra-* and *infra-umbilical glands* are connected with the rich lymphatic plexuses of the umbilical region. It is probable that the supra-umbilical glands are also associated with the lymphatics of the anterior part of the upper surface of the liver; and the infra-umbilical gland with the lymphatics of the upper and anterior part of the bladder. At all events it seems certain that the lymphatics of the bladder are connected with those of the umbilical plexuses, and it is almost certain that in some cases at least they are either directly or indirectly associated with the infra-umbilical gland.

The **internal iliac glands** are not in all cases to be clearly defined from the inner set of external iliac glands, but if it be accepted that all glands on the side wall of the pelvis above and in front of the obturator nerve be looked upon as external iliac glands,—and this is a reasonable view inasmuch as they are in direct association with the deep crural glands,—then all other glands which lie in relation with the side wall of the pelvis may be considered as internal iliac glands. As a general rule it may be said that the larger glands of the internal iliac group are situated in the regions of the origins of the branches of the internal iliac artery, extending in an irregular row from the root of the obliterated hypogastric artery in front to the origin of the gluteal artery behind. They receive afferents from the upper part of the anal passage, and from the lower part of the rectum; from the middle part of the vagina and the lower part of the uterus; some lymphatics from the lower and posterior part of the bladder; from the prostate, the prostatic and membranous parts of the urethra; and from the deeper parts of the back of the thigh and the buttock which are supplied by the sciatic and gluteal arteries. The efferent vessels pass to the posterior group of the common iliac glands.

The **lateral sacral glands** may be considered as associates of the internal iliac group of glands. They lie along the front of the sacrum to the inner sides of the anterior sacral foramina. They receive afferents from the adjacent bones and ligaments and from the neck of the uterus, the lower part of the vagina, and in the male from the prostate; their efferents end either in the internal or in the common iliac glands.

The **common iliac glands** lie along the common iliac artery, some to its outer side, some posterior to it, and some to its inner side. The latter are naturally close to their fellows of the opposite side, and the two groups of opposite sides are sometimes spoken of collectively as the *glands of the promontory*. The number of glands in each set varies from two to four. The external and posterior glands receive as afferents the efferents from the external and internal iliac glands, and possibly a few lymphatics from the adjacent muscles and bones. The internal group receives afferents from the base of the bladder in both sexes, from the upper

and posterior part of the prostate in the male, and from the neck of the uterus and the lower part of the vagina in the female. The efferents of the common iliac glands terminate in the lateral aortic glands.

The **lumbar glands** are of small size, and they are very irregular in occurrence and in number. When they are present they lie close to the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ behind the psoas muscle, and correspond, therefore, in position with the posterior intercostal glands of the thorax. They receive afferent vessels which accompany the lumbar arteries from the deeper parts of the abdominal walls. Their efferent vessels end either in the lateral aortic glands, or they unite with the efferents of those glands to form the lateral aortic efferents, or common lumbar trunks.

The **aortic glands** are situated in front of, at the sides of, and behind the abdominal part of the aorta, and are therefore known as the pre-aortic, the lateral aortic, and the retro-aortic glands. The lateral aortic glands have usually been known as the mesial lumbar glands, but during the last few years it has been becoming more customary to speak of them as lateral aortic on account of their close association with that great blood-vessel.

The *pre-aortic glands* lie along the anterior aspect of the abdominal aorta, either forming a continuous chain or arranged in three groups which are situated respectively in the regions of the origins of the inferior and superior mesenteric arteries and round the root of the cœliac axis, and the latter group constitutes so distinct an entity that it is most commonly spoken of as the cœliac group. The afferent vessels of the pre-aortic glands are derived from the superior mesenteric, the inferior mesenteric, and the colic glands. The cœliac group also receives afferents from the hepatic, the sub-pyloric, the retro-pyloric, and the coronary, and the pancreatic and splenic glands. Numerous communications pass between the pre- and the lateral aortic glands, but speaking broadly it may be said that the pre-aortic glands receive the greater part of the lymph from the abdominal portion of the alimentary canal and from the associated glands. The afferent vessels from the lower glands of the group either terminate in the cœliac glands or join with their efferents to a large common intestinal lymphatic trunk which is one of the six tributaries of the receptaculum chyli.

The lateral aortic glands lie at the sides of the abdominal aorta, those of the right side being situated both in front of and behind the inferior vena cava. They receive afferents from the lumbar glands, or if the latter are absent, vessels which pass directly from the abdominal parietes along the lumbar arteries. They also receive the lymphatics of the kidneys, the testicles or ovaries, the suprarenal bodies, and from the upper part of the uterus. In addition they receive the efferents of the common iliac glands. They are connected by anastomoses with the pre- and retro-aortic glands, and their efferents unite on each side into a common lumbar or lateral aortic trunk which joins the receptaculum chyli.

The *retro-aortic glands* lie behind the aorta, in front of the third and fourth lumbar vertebræ. They receive a few lymphatics from the adjacent muscles, bones, and ligaments, and numerous efferents from the lateral and pre-aortic glands. Their efferents unite to form a vessel of fair size which ends in the receptaculum chyli.

It follows from what has been already said that the lymph from the pelvis and the lower extremities, and that from the pelvic viscera, passes to the receptaculum through the common iliac and the lateral aortic glands, but on account of the vessels which unite the lateral aortic with the pre- and retro-aortic glands it is obviously possible that infective material passing either from the lower extremities or from the pelvic viscera which is not intercepted by the lateral glands may pass through them and set up new foci of disease either in the pre- or retro-aortic glands, and although the lateral aortic glands are the natural terminations of the lymphatic vessels from the kidneys, testicles, ovaries, and suprarenal bodies, nevertheless infective material from any of those organs may pass through the lateral into the pre- or retro-aortic glands.

The deep lymphatic vessels of the abdomen and pelvis have been mentioned so frequently in association with the gland groups in which they terminate that no

however, but little practical importance. When they are present they lie near the origins of the lateral branches of the intercostal arteries.

The **internal mammary** or **sternal glands** (lymphoglandulæ sternales), which lie along the side of the internal mammary artery, one or two, as a rule, being placed opposite the anterior end of each intercostal space. Their afferents are derived from the deeper parts of the anterior portion of the thoracic wall, from the deep part of the front of the abdominal wall by vessels which ascend along the superior epigastric artery, from the inner portion of the mammary gland, and from the anterior part of the diaphragm and the anterior diaphragmatic glands. Some of their efferents pass to the anterior mediastinal glands, but the majority ascend to the root of the neck, where they terminate either directly in the corresponding innominate vein, or, according to the side on which they lie, they end in the thoracic duct, or the right lymphatic duct if it is present.

The **diaphragmatic glands** are arranged in three groups—the anterior, middle, and posterior.

The anterior group lies behind the ensiform process and the anterior ends of the seventh costal cartilages. It receives lymph from the anterior part of the diaphragm, and from the anterior part of the upper surface of the liver. Its efferents pass to the internal mammary glands.

The middle group consists of two lateral portions which lie at the sides of the pericardium near the phrenic nerves. On the right side these glands are closely associated with the upper part of the inferior vena cava, and some of them lie on the anterior wall of that vessel internal to the fibrous sac of the pericardium. The afferents of the middle diaphragmatic glands are derived from the middle part of the diaphragm and from the upper surface of the liver. Their efferents join the posterior mediastinal glands.

The posterior group has very little importance, and practically constitutes a lower section of the posterior mediastinal glands. It lies between the pillars of the diaphragm and the posterior wall of the thorax, and receives lymph from the immediately adjacent parts. Its efferents end in the higher posterior mediastinal glands.

2. **Visceral Thoracic Glands.**—Of these there are:—

The **anterior mediastinal glands** (lymphoglandulæ mediastinales anteriores) are embedded in the loose tissue of the anterior mediastinal region. They receive afferents from the middle part of the upper portion of the liver which ascend through the falciform ligament, from the anterior part of the diaphragm, and from the lower sternal glands. Their efferents pass upwards to the superior mediastinum, where some of them enter the superior mediastinal glands, whilst others, continuing upwards, terminate on the right side in the right lymphatic duct, and on the left side in the thoracic duct.

The **superior mediastinal glands** (lymphoglandulæ mediastinales superiores) are grouped round the innominate veins, along the upper part of the aortic arch, and in front of the thoracic portion of the trachea. They receive afferents from the heart, the pericardium, the thymus, and the anterior mediastinal glands. Their efferents terminate at the root of the neck in the right lymphatic and thoracic ducts.

The **middle mediastinal glands** are situated round the primary bronchi and the lower end of the trachea, and they are separable into the following groups:—

The *bronchial glands*, which lie principally on the anterior aspects of the primary bronchi and along their upper borders. They receive lymph from the lungs which has previously passed through a series of inter-bronchial or pulmonary glands, which lie in the angles of division of the bronchi in the hilum and in the substance of the lungs. Their efferents unite with the efferents of the superior mediastinal and internal mammary glands to form a common broncho-mediastinal trunk on each side. This vessel when it is present ends on the left in the thoracic duct or the innominate vein, and on the right in the right lymphatic duct or in one of the large veins at the root of the neck.

The *inter-tracheo-bronchial glands*, which lie between the primary bronchi and beneath the end of the trachea. They receive afferents from the heart and from

area is converted into the posterior end of the reversed area, and it forms the anterior limit of the umbilical orifice. In brief, the relative positions of its several parts are reversed, and at this period the pericardial cavity which, like the area, is semilunar in shape, extends from side to side beneath the foregut, and its cornua are continuous at the sides of the foregut with the general body cavity of the embryo. Subsequently this continuity is obliterated, and the pericardial cavity is separated from the pleuro-peritoneal part of the general body cavity or cœlom.

The mesoderm at the posterior end of the reversed pericardial region, where the somatic and splanchnic layers are continuous, *i.e.* just in front of the umbilicus, increases in thickness and forms a semilunar mass, the **septum transversum**, in which the liver and the ventral part of the diaphragm are formed. The latter extends mesially from the anterior wall of the body to the foregut, immediately in front of the gastric dilatation, whilst laterally it forms two falciform projections which encroach from without upon the portions of the cœlom which lie at the sides of the foregut. Ultimately the lateral portions of the diaphragm pass inwards, and, fusing with the mesentery of the foregut, they separate the pleuro-peritoneal portion of the cœlom into three parts—two anterior, one on each side of the foregut, *the pleural sacs*, and a posterior, *the peritoneal cavity*.

When the pericardial region is completely reversed the two vessels developed in its splanchnic layer lie side by side in what is now its dorsal wall. Posteriorly they are continued through the septum transversum to the wall of the yolk sac. Anteriorly they are continued, as the first cephalic aortic arches, through the mandibular arches which have developed at the sides of the bucco-pharyngeal membrane, to the dorsal wall of the gut, where they pass backwards beneath the paraxial mesoderm to the posterior end of the body, whence they are continued, in the human subject, along the body stalk to the placental portion of the chorion, giving off branches to the walls of the alimentary canal and yolk sac.

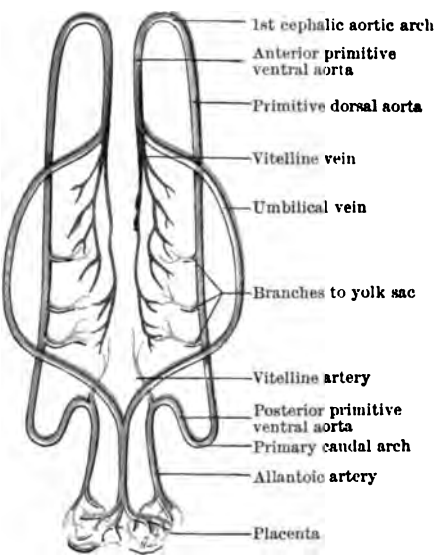


FIG. 665.—DIAGRAM OF THE PRIMITIVE VASCULAR SYSTEM BEFORE THE FORMATION OF THE HEART.

These two primitive embryonic vessels are the **primitive aortæ**. After the formation of the cephalic and caudal folds, each primitive aorta may be looked upon as consisting of three parts united by two arches:—an anterior ventral part, the **anterior ventral aorta**, situated partly in the septum transversum and partly in the dorsal wall of the pericardium and the root of the neck; a dorsal part, the **primitive dorsal aorta**, which extends beneath the paraxial mesoderm from the dorsal end of the mandibular arch to the tail fold; a posterior ventral part, the **posterior ventral aorta**, which passes to the yolk sac; the anterior part of the posterior ventral aorta soon atrophies, and the remainder of the vessel is then prolonged from the posterior part of the ventral wall of the body to the placenta by a new branch. The two arches which unite the three main portions of each primitive aorta together are an anterior, the **first cephalic aortic arch**, which lies in the mandibular arch and passes from the anterior ventral aorta to the anterior end of the primitive dorsal aorta, and a posterior, the **primary caudal aortic arch**, which passes in the tail fold and at the side of the hind gut, from the primitive dorsal aorta to the posterior portion of the primitive ventral aorta.

As development proceeds a series of transformations occurs in the various sections of the primitive aortæ. These transformations are, with few exceptions, alike on the two sides, but the transformations which occur in one section are entirely different from those met with in the other sections; therefore each part must, to a certain extent, be considered separately.

Each anterior ventral aorta is divisible into three parts. The posterior part lies in the septum transversum. Posteriorly it forms the terminal portion of the **vitelline vein**, and carries the blood from the wall of the yolk sac. For a long time each vitelline vein remains separate from its fellow of the opposite side, but afterwards the two veins unite to form a common stem, which terminates at first in the posterior part of the heart, and subsequently in the liver. The anterior section of the posterior part of the **anterior ventral aorta**

enlarges and unites with its fellow of the opposite side to form the **sinus venosus**
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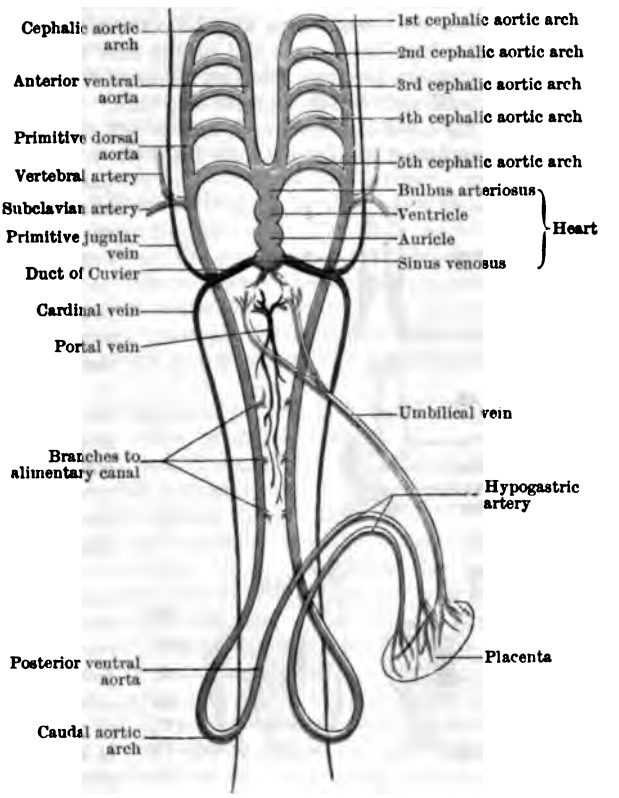
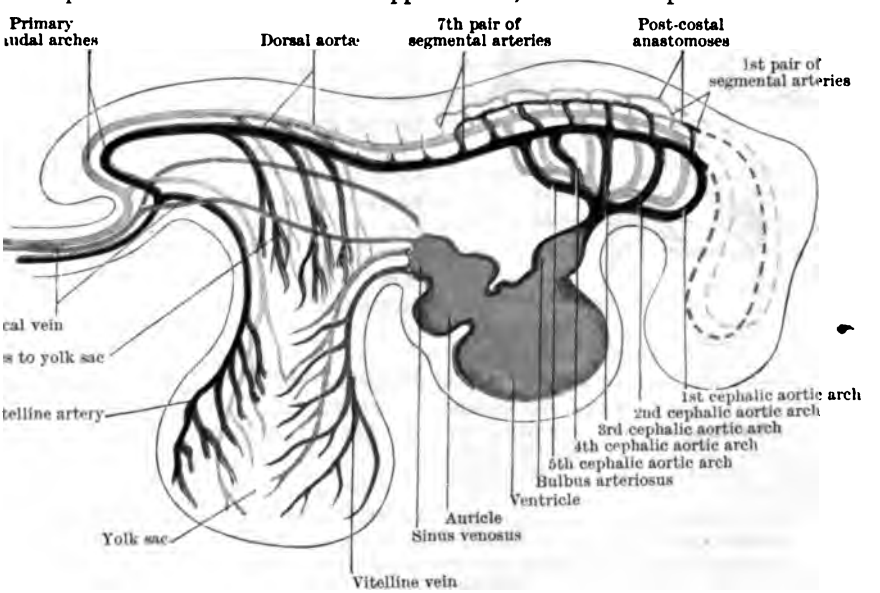


FIG. 666.—DIAGRAM OF THE PRIMITIVE BLOOD-VESSELS AFTER THE FORMATION OF THE HEART.

ins separate from its fellow of the opposite side, and it takes part in the formation



667.—DIAGRAM OF THE PRIMITIVE BLOOD-VESSELS AFTER THE FORMATION OF THE HEART, BUT BEFORE ITS SUBDIVISION BY SEPTA INTO AURICLES AND VENTRICLES.

great vessels of the head and neck. Posteriorly, however, it unites with its fellow opposite side to form the apex of the bulbus arteriosus. After the completion of

the cephalic aortic arches the portions of the anterior ventral aorta which lie between their lower extremities are known as the **ventral roots** of the cephalic aortic arches.

The primitive dorsal aorta may be conveniently divided into two parts. The anterior part extends from the dorsal end of the first cephalic aortic arch to the root of the fore-limb. It remains separate from its fellow of the opposite side, and forms the **dorsal roots** of the cephalic aortic arches of its own side. It takes part in the formation of the great vessels of the head and neck and, on the left side, of part of the aorta of the adult.

The remaining portion extends from the root of the fore-limb to the pelvic region; it passes inwards, and unites with its fellow of the opposite side beneath the vertebral column to form the greater part of the permanent systemic aorta.

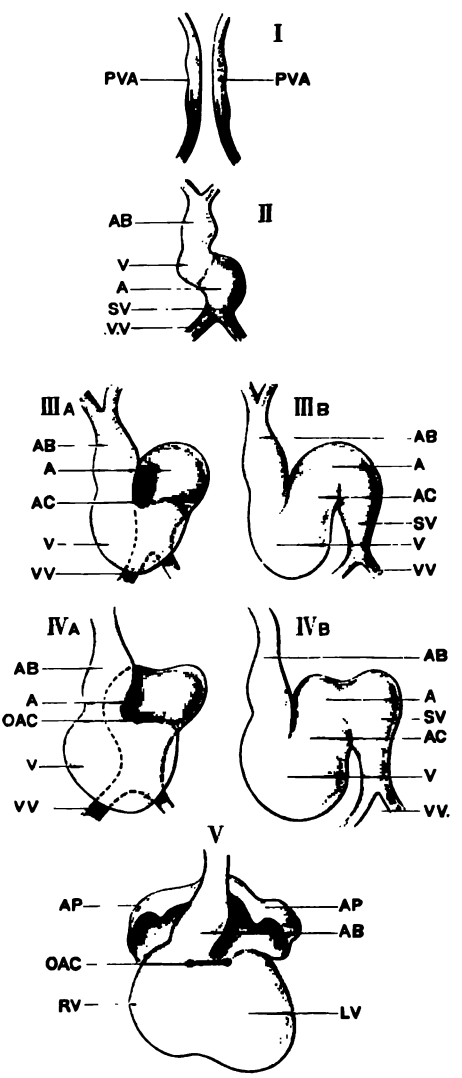


FIG. 668.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE HEART.

Diagram showing the changes of form and external appearances at different stages. Modified from His's models. III.B and IV.B are side views; the other figures represent the heart as seen from the front.

A, Auricle; A.B, Aortic bulb; A.C, Auricular canal; A.P, Auricular appendix; L.V, Left ventricle; O.A.C, Opening of auricular canal; P.V.A, Primitive ventral aorta; R.V, Right ventricle; S.V, Sinus venosus; V, Ventricle; V.V, Vitelline veins.

The primary caudal arch connects the primitive dorsal with the posterior ventral aorta. As it passes ventrally it lies on the inner side of the Wolffian duct. After a time it is replaced by a **secondary caudal arch** which lies at the outer side of the Wolffian duct, and this subsequently becomes the common and internal iliac arteries and the root of the hypogastric artery, the external iliac being merely an offset from it to the hind-limb.

The greater part of the primitive posterior ventral aorta disappears early, and its secondary continuation to the placenta becomes the remainder of the hypogastric artery, which passes from the internal iliac artery, by the side of the bladder and along the ventral wall of the abdomen, to the umbilicus, whence it is continued along the umbilical cord to the placenta.

Having considered thus briefly the main parts of the primitive aortic vessels, and having noted, shortly, the fate of each portion in the subsequent phases of development, we may now turn to a more detailed consideration of the metamorphoses which occur in those parts of primitive vessels, viz. the anterior ventral aortæ, the cephalic aortic arches, and the anterior parts of the primitive dorsal aortæ, where most striking and most complicated transformations result in the formation of the heart, the aorta in part, the pulmonary artery and its primary branches, the chief arterial trunks of the head and neck, and the first part of the main artery of the right upper extremity.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE HEART, OF THE FIRST PART OF THE AORTA, AND OF THE PULMONARY ARTERY.

Of the three parts into which each anterior ventral aorta is divisible the middle is situated in the splanchnic mesoderm of the dorsal wall of the pericardium. As development proceeds the middle parts of both anterior ventral aortæ enlarge and project into the cavity of the pericardium, whilst at the same time they grow inwards, their inner walls come in contact, fuse together, and disappear, and so a simple single median tube is formed. This is the **primitive heart**, which is completed in front

and behind the pericardium by the fusion of the adjacent ends of the anterior and posterior parts of the anterior ventral aortæ.

The simple tubular heart, at first straight and of fairly uniform calibre, soon alters in form and in the relative position of its different parts. It becomes irregularly enlarged, and a series of four dilatations, with intervening constrictions, can be distinguished. The dilatations, from behind forwards, are as follows:—(1) the **sinus venosus** or **saccus reuniens**, (2) the **auricle** or **atrium**, (3) the **ventricle**, and (4) the **aortic bulb** or **bulbus arteriosus**. The short constriction between the auricle and ventricle is known as the **auricular canal**, and the less pronounced constriction which intervenes between the ventricle and the aortic bulb is termed the **fretum Halleri**. In addition to this alteration in form, the tubular heart elongates, much more so than the pericardium in which it lies, whilst at the same time the anterior extremity of the aortic bulb and the sinus venosus are withdrawn, from the root of the neck and the septum transversum respectively, into the pericardium. Of necessity, therefore, the single heart is bent upon itself, and it projects more and more into the pericardium, pushing forwards the visceral layer of the serous lining of this cavity, and carrying with it a mesentery of splanchnic mesoderm which is known as the mesocardium.

The bending of the heart results in the formation of a U-shaped loop, the posterior or venous limb of the loop lying to the left and below, with the body in the erect posture, the anterior or arterial limb being to the right and above, whilst the intervening stem of the loop runs from the left and below upwards, forwards, and to the right. The apex of the aortic bulb is bent a little to the left and reaches the middle line.

Subsequently the auricle ascends behind the ventricle, and the ventricular opening of the auricular canal, the short communicating passage between the auricle and ventricle, is seen as a transverse slit at the upper part of the left or posterior end of the ventricle. As the ventricular chamber enlarges its upper end passes towards the middle line, and the ventricle is no longer so obliquely directed from left to right but lies more in the mesial plane. As the result of these changes of position, and the coincident modifications in size of the different parts, the aortic bulb is eventually placed immediately in front of the auricle, and the opening of the auricular canal is nearer the middle of the upper part of the posterior wall of the ventricular chamber. During its further growth the ventricle enlarges principally at its anterior or ventral part; the dorsal part is not materially altered in position, and consequently the openings of the auricular canal and the aortic bulb remain relatively close together. The auricle increases in size by lateral expansion and by forward extension of its lateral angles; the forward extensions embrace the sides of the aortic bulb, and constitute the rudimentary auricular appendages. In the meantime the mesocardium disappears and the heart lies free in the pericardium except at its extremities.

Division of the Heart into its different Chambers, and Division of the Aortic Bulb.

Whilst the changes in form, position, and size of the different sections of the primitive heart, which have just been described, are taking place, the division of the heart cavity into its four permanent chambers, and of the aortic bulb into its aortic and pulmonary portions commences. These divisions are brought about by the growth of **septa** in the ventricle, auricle, and aortic bulb, and by the thickening and fusion of the middle portions of the upper and lower walls of the auricular canal.

The thickenings of the walls of the auricular canal are called **endocardial cushions**; they meet and fuse together mesially to form the **septum intermedium** by which the central portion of the canal is obliterated, whilst the lateral portions are left patent as small triangular channels which still connect the auricular and ventricular chambers.

The separation of the ventricular part of the heart into right and left chambers is indicated, externally, at a very early period, by a groove, well marked in front and below, but less distinct behind where it runs upwards to the auricular canal; whilst internally, in a corresponding position, a **ventricular septum** (s. inferius) grows upwards from the inferior part of the ventricular wall. The posterior part of the upper border of this septum unites with the lower end of the fused endocardial cushions of the auricular canal; the anterior part of its upper border terminates a short distance below the orifice of the aortic bulb, where it unites with the septum of the aortic bulb which, at a later period, descends to meet it.

The division of the aortic bulb commences at its distal end between the orifices of the fourth and fifth cephalic aortic arches. It is due to the ingrowth of two endocardial

thickenings which meet and fuse together from their distal to their proximal ends, forming a septum which divides the interior of the aortic bulb into two parts, and then projects downwards into the ventricular chamber till it meets and fuses with the anterior part of the upper border of the ventricular septum. The upper or distal part of the **septum of the aortic bulb** commences from the dorsal wall of the cavity between the fourth and fifth cephalic arches, and it is placed transversely, but its lower end lies more antero-posteriorly, therefore it twists spirally as it descends, and as a result the right part of the ventricle is thrown into continuity with the fifth cephalic aortic arches, whilst the left part of the ventricle retains continuity with the remaining cephalic aortic arches.

After the septum of the aortic bulb is completed, grooves appear along its margins on the surface of the bulb; the grooves deepen until they divide the septum and consequently the bulb into two parts; the part in connexion with the right ventricle and the fifth aortic arch becomes the **pulmonary artery**, and the part in connexion with the left ventricle and the remaining arches becomes the **ascending aorta**.

The separation of the primitive auricle into right and left portions is indicated externally by the appearance of a groove on the upper and posterior wall; opposite this

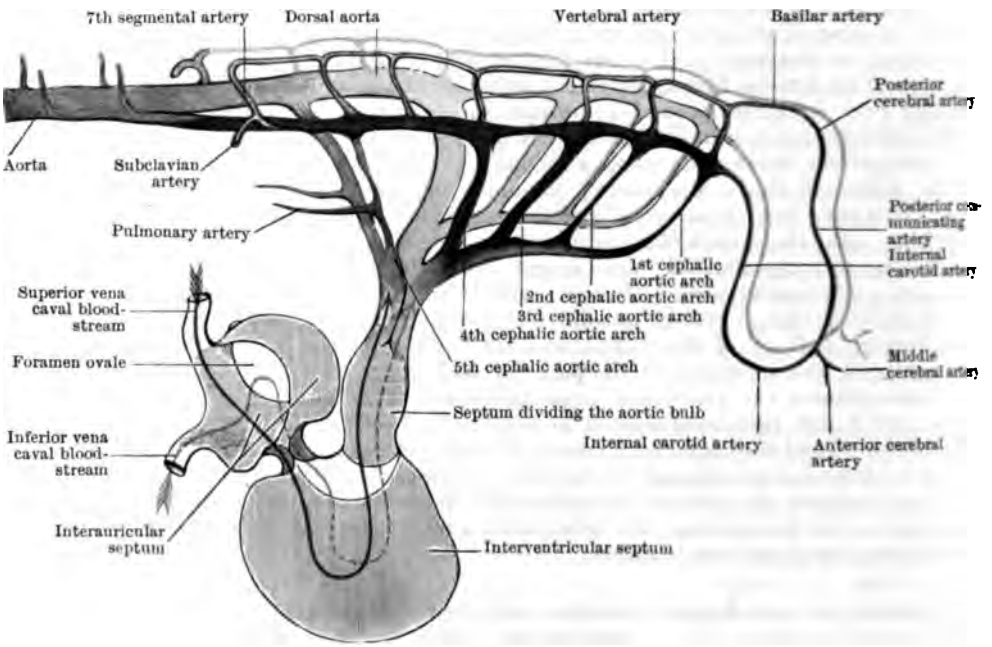


FIG. 669.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE HEART AND THE MAIN ARTERIES.
Diagram of the heart, showing the formation of its septa, and of the cephalic portion of the arterial system.

groove an **auricular septum** grows downwards in the interior of the auricle. Its lower border gradually approaches the endocardial cushion in the auricular canal, and for a time a small opening is left between the upper ends of the fused endocardial cushions and the lower edge of the septum. This is the **ostium primum**; it is closed by the fusion of the septum with the endocardial cushions, but before its closure is completed an aperture appears in the upper part of the septum; this latter aperture, the **ostium secundum**, becomes the **foramen ovale**. A second auricular septum, the *septum secundum*, grows downwards to the right of the first septum; its lower margin passes the foramen in the septum primum which is called the foramen ovale, but stops some distance from the posterior wall of the auricle, and this margin constitutes the **limbus Vieussenii**. The limbus Vieussenii forms the upper and anterior boundary of a depression in the auricular septum which is called the fossa ovalis. The floor of the fossa is formed by the *primary septum*, and the foramen ovale which lies at the upper part of the fossa is closed after birth by the fusion of the primary and secondary septa.

The **sinus venosus**, which in the early stages receives the vitelline veins from the yolk sac, the allantoic or umbilical veins from the placenta, and the ducts of Cuvier which return the blood from the Wolffian bodies and the body of the embryo, is also divided into two parts by the formation of a ledge-like projection from its posterior wall and the lower end of the septum secundum of the auricle crosses the ledge between the

two parts and becomes continuous with the Eustachian valve along the anterior margin of the inferior vena cava. The sinus venosus lies at first below and behind the auricle, with which it communicates freely. It is gradually divided into a large right and a small left cornu, and its orifice of communication with the auricle is constricted, and ultimately it is transformed into a cleft which opens from the right end of the sinus into the back of

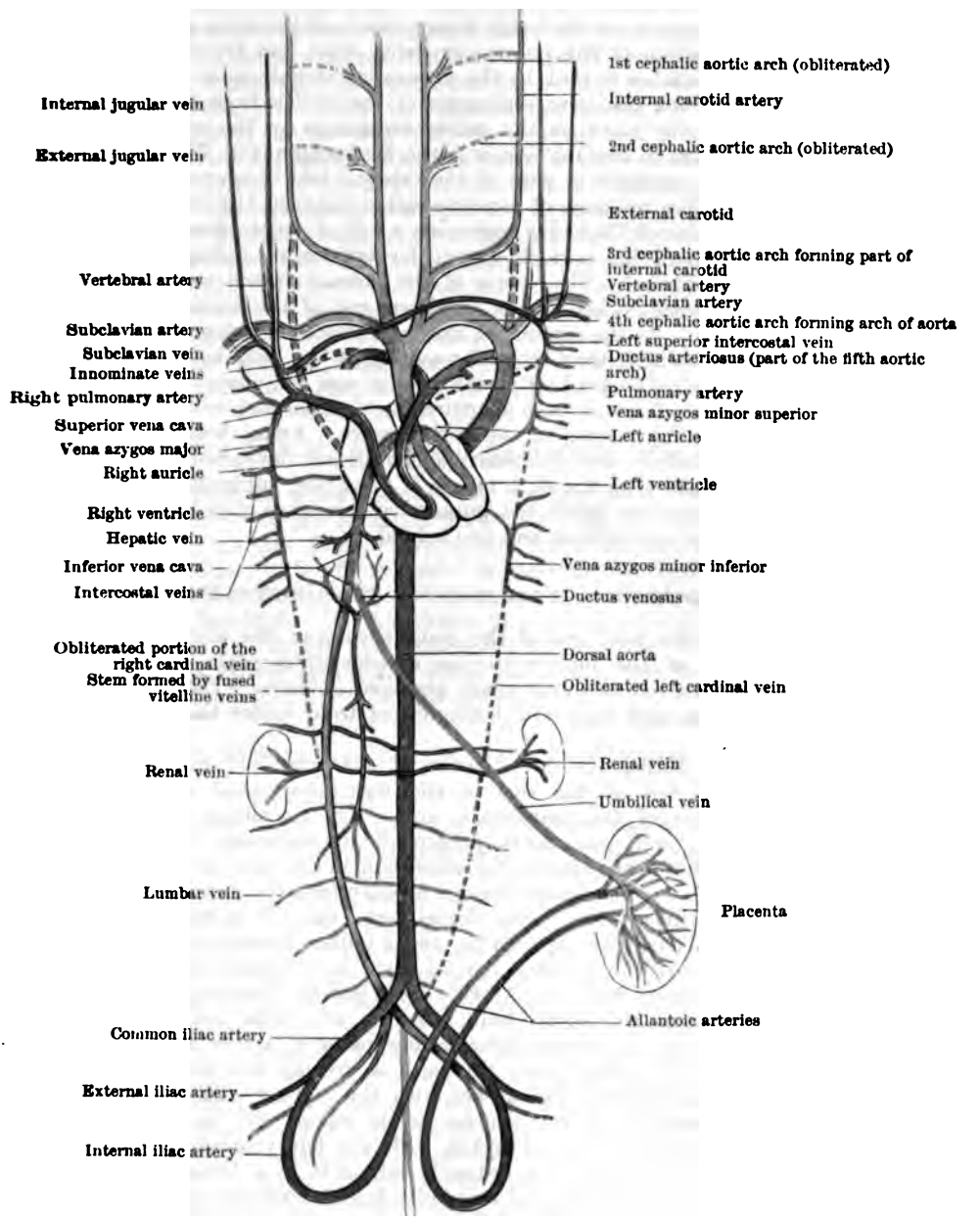


FIG. 670.—DIAGRAM OF THE COURSE OF THE FŒTAL CIRCULATION.

the right part of the auricular chamber; the cleft is guarded by two lateral valve-like folds of endocardium, the **right** and **left venous valves**, which become continuous above with a transitory downward projection from the roof of the auricle, known as the **septum spurium**. The orifice of communication is divided into two parts as the right part of the cavity is absorbed into the auricle. The left part of the orifice becomes the opening of the coronary sinus and the right is opened out as the right part of the sinus is absorbed into the auricular cavity.

In the early stages the veins of the two sides opened into the corresponding sections

thickenings which meet and fuse together from their distal to their proximal ends, forming a septum which divides the interior of the aortic bulb into two parts, and then projects downwards into the ventricular chamber till it meets and fuses with the anterior part of the upper border of the ventricular septum. The upper or distal part of the **septum of the aortic bulb** commences from the dorsal wall of the cavity between the fourth and fifth cephalic arches, and it is placed transversely, but its lower end lies more antero-posteriorly, therefore it twists spirally as it descends, and as a result the right part of the ventricle is thrown into continuity with the fifth cephalic aortic arches, whilst the left part of the ventricle retains continuity with the remaining cephalic aortic arches.

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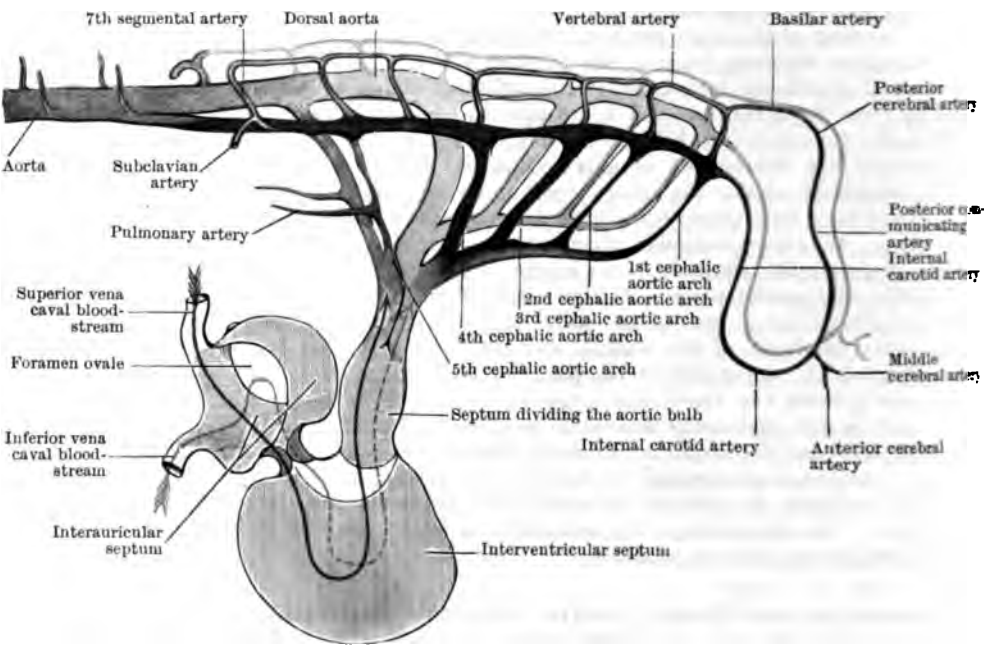

FIG. 669.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE HEART AND THE MAIN ARTERIES.
Diagram of the heart, showing the formation of its septa, and of the cephalic portion of the arterial system.

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of the sinus venosus, but numerous transformations, which are described in the account of the development of the veins, occur, and finally all the veins, except the left duct of Cuvier, open into the right end of the sinus, and ultimately into the auricle as the right part of the sinus is absorbed into it; the left part of the sinus becomes a mere appendage of the right, and is transformed into the **coronary sinus** which receives the blood from the walls of the adult heart.

Thus, when the development of the heart is completed, all the large veins which reach the heart, with the exception of the pulmonary veins, open into the right auricle, and into that part of the chamber formed by the absorption of the right end of the sinus venosus. Indications of the primitive separation of the auricle from the sinus venosus are still recognisable in the adult, as the **sulcus terminalis** on the exterior, the corresponding **crista terminalis** in the interior, and the **Eustachian** and **Thebesian valves**; the Eustachian valve is a remnant of part of the valvular fold which was situated at the right margin of the slit-like aperture of communication between the sinus venosus and the auricle, whilst the valve of Thebesius represents a fold of endocardium.

The **valves** which guard the auriculo-ventricular orifices are downgrowths from the lower end of the auricular canal. The valves of the pulmonary and aortic apertures are preceded by four endocardial thickenings at the lower end of the aortic bulb—anterior, posterior, and two lateral. As the septum of the bulb descends it fuses with the middle parts of the lateral thickenings; thus, when the septum of the bulb has descended below the lower orifice of the bulb, dividing it into aortic and pulmonary apertures, three endocardial thickenings are found in each aperture, one anterior and two posterior in the pulmonary aperture, and the reverse in the aortic orifice. From these thickenings the semilunar valves of the aortic and pulmonary apertures are developed, and they retain their original positions until after the sixth month of fœtal life; ultimately, however, they are twisted round, so that in the adult the pulmonary valves are placed two in front and one behind, and the aortic one in front and two behind.

The Aortic Arches—Formation of the Chief Arteries.

The aortic arches at the head end of the embryo connect the aortic bulb and the ventral aortæ in front of the bulb with the corresponding parts of the primitive dorsal aortæ. The arches, ten in number, are arranged in pairs. There are, therefore, five arches on each side, and they are distinguished from before backwards by their numerical designation.[1]

The first is formed during the development of the head fold by the bending of the primitive aorta; it lies at the side of the bucco-pharyngeal area, and subsequently in the substance of the mandibular arch. The remaining aortic arches are formed quite differently, and grow dorsally through the substance of the remaining visceral arches, as these are formed in regular succession in the side wall of the pharyngeal portion of the foregut. The second springs directly from the anterior ventral aorta, and passes through the hyoid arch to the dorsal aorta, but the third, fourth, and fifth spring by a common trunk from the apex of the aortic bulb. Subsequently, however, and as the neck grows forwards, the anterior ventral aorta is elongated, and the third and fourth arches arise separately from it. At this later period, therefore, four vessels, two on each side, spring from the aortic bulb, viz. the two fifth arches and the two anterior ventral aortæ from which the anterior four pairs of arches arise. When the septum of the aortic bulb is developed, the bulb is divided into two parts, one (the pulmonary artery) connecting the fifth arches with the right ventricle, and the other (the ascending aorta) connecting the ventral aortic stems, and through them the first, second, third, and fourth pairs of arches, with the left ventricle. Each cephalic aortic arch is connected with the arch immediately behind it by a dorsal root, and in the cases of the first three arches by a ventral root also; but the ventral root of the fourth arch connects it with the aortic bulb. The dorsal and ventral roots of the arches are simply portions of the primitive ventral and dorsal aortæ, which are so named merely for descriptive purposes. From the dorsal roots a series of **segmental branches** are given off, which pass dorsally, between the rudiments of the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ, to supply the spinal cord and its membranes and the muscles and fasciæ of the back.

The five pairs of arches do not all persist in their entirety, but remains of each are

[1] In some of the lower forms six aortic arches have been recognised, and it is possible that what we know as the fifth in the human subject corresponds with the sixth, the fifth not being formed, or possessing only a very transitory and rudimentary existence.

from the corresponding seventh somatic segmental branch of the primitive aorta, from its ventral branch, and from the lateral offset of the latter. It is indeed the lateral offset of the ventral branch, growing outwards into the developing limb, which forms the prolongation of the stem.

The root of the right stem vessel, constituted by the right subclavian artery from its origin almost as far as the point at which the right vertebral artery arises, is formed by the fourth right aortic arch; on the left side the fourth arch takes no part in the formation of the subclavian artery.

In the lower limbs the primary main arterial stem, on each side, is represented by the sciatic, the popliteal, and the peroneal arteries. The sciatic artery arises from the caudal arch, and it, together with its prolongation through the popliteal space and leg, is probably formed from a somatic segmental vessel, but to which parts of this it corresponds is not clear. The external iliac artery, prolonged into the limb as the femoral artery, is developed at a later period than the sciatic artery. It arises from the caudal aortic arch above the origin of the sciatic artery, and, like the latter trunk, is probably a modified somatic segmental vessel. The femoral artery soon after its formation unites with the primary main stem, at the upper part of the popliteal space; the sciatic artery then atrophies and loses its connexion with the popliteal artery, and ultimately a permanent chief stem vessel is formed, which includes the external iliac, the femoral, the popliteal, and the peroneal arteries, and obviously it represents the two somatic segmental vessels by which it is formed. Both in the upper and in the lower limb, branches which attain a large size are given off from the main stem artery a short distance beyond the joint between the upper and middle sections of the limb, *i.e.* below the elbow in the upper limb and below the knee in the lower limb, and on account of the relatively great enlargement of these branches the continuity of the original stem is obscured. Thus it is that, in the adult, the brachial artery, the direct continuation of the stem which is divided into subclavian, axillary, and brachial sections, appears to terminate by dividing into the radial and ulnar arteries, whilst originally it was continued through what, in the adult, is the upper part of the ulnar artery to the anterior interosseous artery: the posterior interosseous, the radial, and the ulnar arteries being merely branches from the main stem.

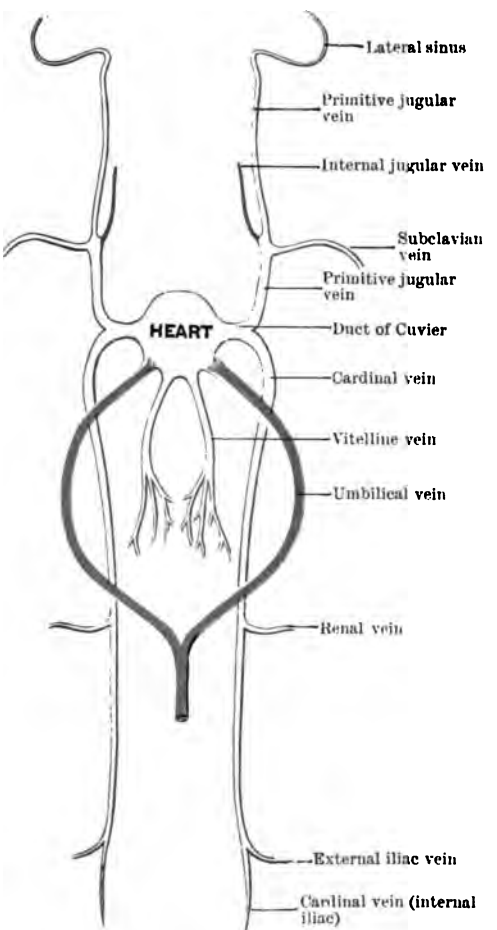

FIG. 671.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE VENOUS SYSTEM (Diagrammatic).

Stage I.—The ducts of Cuvier, the vitelline veins, and the umbilical veins open directly into the heart.

Similarly, in the lower extremity the popliteal artery, which is the continuation of the original stem artery, appears to terminate in the adult by dividing into the anterior and posterior tibial arteries, both of which in reality are branches from the sides of the main stem which was continued to the foot as the peroneal artery.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE VEINS.

Simultaneously with the formation of the arteries by which the blood is distributed to the embryo and to the rest of the ovum, and in a similar manner, a series of vessels is developed by means of which the blood is returned to the heart. These vessels are the veins, of which there are two main groups. One group returns blood from the abdominal viscera and the annexa (the yolk-sac and allantois); the other group includes the vessels which return blood from the Wolffian bodies, the body wall, the head and neck, and the limbs of the embryo. The first group consists of the vitelline, allantoic, and portal

The primitive jugular and cardinal veins, and the ducts of Cuvier, which constitute the main veins of the Wolffian body, and of the body wall, head, neck, and limbs of the embryo, are represented in the adult by the external jugular veins, the whole of the right and part of the left innominate veins, the superior vena cava, the azygos veins, the left superior intercostal vein, part of the inferior vena cava, the right common iliac vein, a small part of the left common iliac vein, and both right and left internal iliac veins.

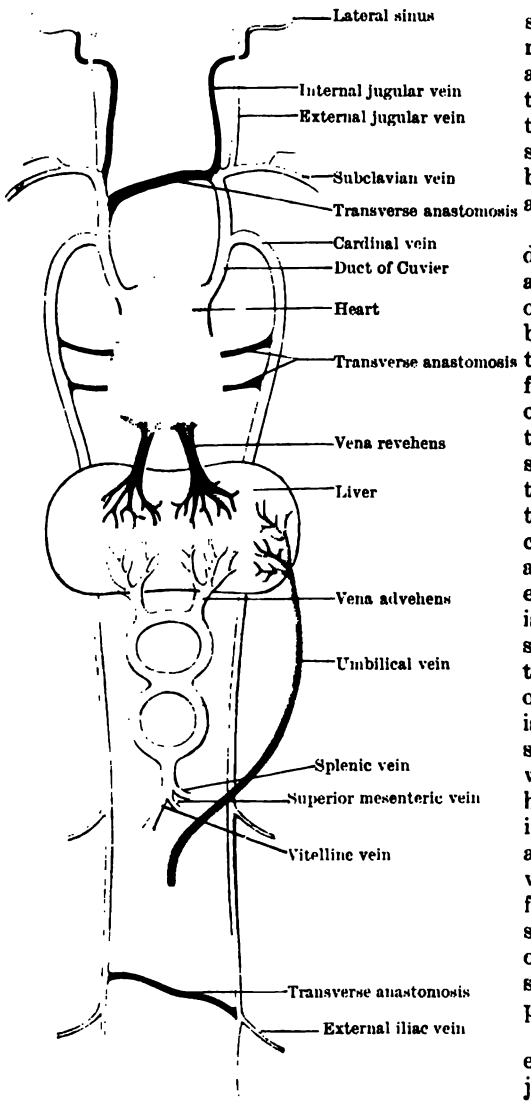

FIG. 673.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE VENOUS SYSTEM (Diagrammatic).

Stage III.—The right umbilical vein has disappeared, and the superior mesenteric and splenic veins have joined the fused vitelline veins.

The primitive jugular vein of each side returns blood from the head and neck, and corresponding upper extremity, and it terminates below by fusing with the cardinal vein to form a common trunk, the duct of Cuvier, which opens into the sinus venosus. Each cardinal vein returns blood from the body wall, the Wolffian body, and the lower extremity of its own side.

Numerous transverse anastomoses are developed between the primitive jugular and cardinal veins of opposite sides, and of these four are specially important, one between the primitive jugular veins and three between the cardinal veins; the former becomes the left innominate vein; of the latter, the upper two become the transverse parts of the upper and lower smaller azygos veins, and the third forms the left common iliac vein. As these transverse channels develop further changes occur in the primitive jugular and cardinal trunks. At first the upper extremity of the primitive jugular vein is in direct continuity with the venous sinuses of the cranium through an aperture, the post-condyloid foramen, in front of the external ear; but this continuity is destroyed, and the aperture in the skull closes as soon as a new vessel, which becomes the internal jugular vein, has grown upwards from a point on the inner side of the primitive jugular trunk and has established a communication with the lateral sinus through the jugular foramen. This vessel rises behind the sterno-clavicular joint, just opposite to, or slightly below, the entrance of the subclavian vein into the outer side of the primitive jugular vein.

With the exception of its upper extremity, the whole of the primitive jugular vein remains on both sides in the adult. On the right side, above the transverse anastomosis between the two primitive jugular veins which becomes the left innominate vein, it forms the external jugular vein, and that portion of the right subclavian vein which intervenes between the external jugular and internal jugular veins, and also the right innominate vein; below the anastomosis it forms the upper part of the superior vena cava, the lower part of the latter vessel from the entrance of the vena azygos major downwards representing the right duct of Cuvier, which, though it is placed transversely in the early stages, becomes more vertical as the heart descends in the thoracic cavity. On the left side above the transverse anastomosis it forms the external jugular vein, the innermost part of the subclavian vein, and a small part of the left innominate vein; the main part of the latter vessel being formed, as before stated, from the transverse anastomosis. The

portion of the left primitive jugular vein which lies below the anastomosis is represented in the adult by the upper part of the left superior intercostal vein.[1]

The portions of the cardinal veins lying below the transverse anastomosis which becomes the left common iliac vein remain; that on the right forms the right internal and common iliac veins, but the left forms only the left internal iliac vein and a small part of the left common iliac vein, for the transverse anastomosis commences on the left side almost opposite the point of entrance of the external iliac vein, whilst it terminates on the right side at a higher level.

From the left common iliac vein to the renal vein the cardinal vein of the left side disappears; that on the right side becomes the lower part of the inferior vena cava, to which the blood passes from the left side of the abdominal wall by means of small transverse anastomosing channels which existed between the cardinal veins, and which persist as the terminal portions of the left lumbar veins.

Above the renal veins part of the right cardinal vein persists as the vena azygos major, and the left forms the upper and lower minor azygos veins and the lower part of the left superior intercostal vein. The azygos minor veins open into the azygos major by the two transverse anastomosing channels which form between the upper parts of the cardinal veins.

The upper part of the **inferior vena cava** is developed as an outgrowth from the common trunk formed by the fusion of the ductus venosus with the right hepatic vein. It grows downwards, behind the liver and along the right side of the vertebral column, to the interval between the kidneys, where it divides into two branches, of which the right anastomoses with the right cardinal vein

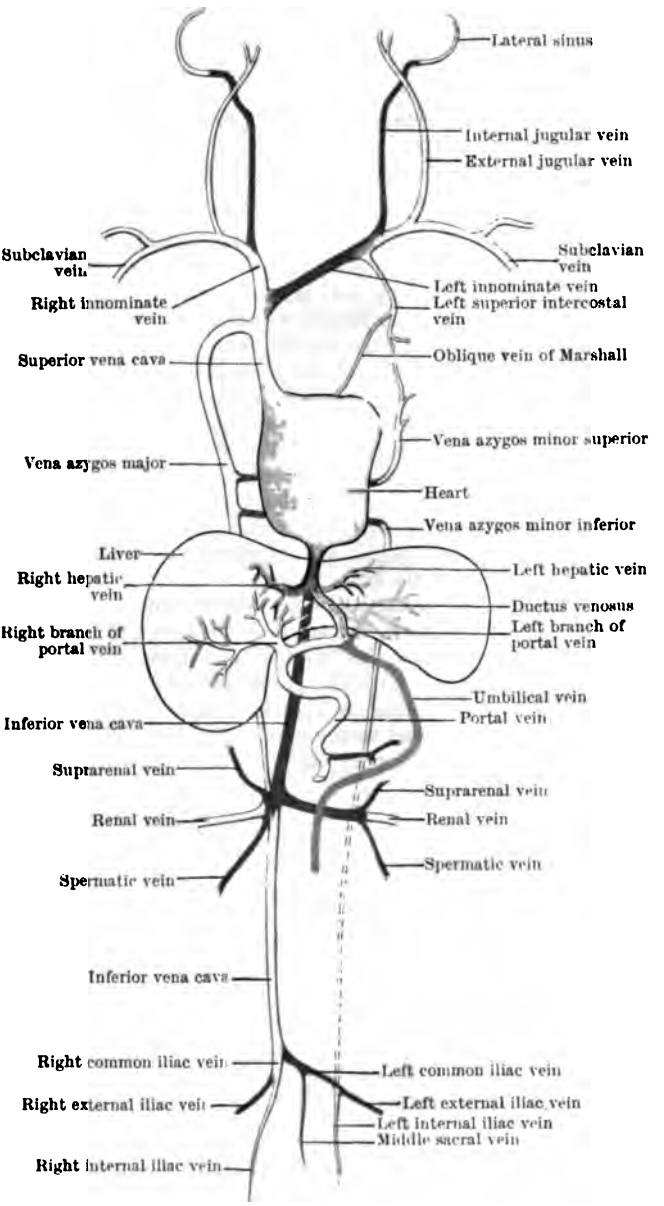

FIG. 674.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE VENOUS SYSTEM (Diagrammatic).
Stage IV.—The left umbilical has joined the upper part of the left vitelline vein; the ductus venosus and the upper part of the inferior vena cava have appeared, and portions of the primitive jugular and cardinal veins have atrophied.

[1] The account which has been given of the primitive jugular veins is that which has been generally accepted for many years, but in 1895 Salza's observations on the guinea-pig led him to dispute the correctness of the description, and Mall's recent investigations on human embryos confirm Salza's work. From the results of the investigations of these observers it appears that the external jugular vein is a secondary vein, and the internal jugular is part of the primitive jugular which originally extended forwards to the anterior end of the superior longitudinal sinus. Its connection with the sinus is soon lost, and the only intracranial remainder of the primitive vein is the cavernous sinus.

at the level of the renal vein; it receives the suprarenal vein, and it terminates in a tapering extremity which is said to become the spermatic vein of the right side. The left branch passes across the front of the aorta below the superior mesenteric artery, and unites with the left cardinal vein at the point of the entrance of the renal vein. It gives off an upper branch which becomes the left suprarenal vein, and a lower which becomes the left spermatic vein. As before pointed out, the left cardinal vein disappears between the renal vein and the left common iliac vein, whilst the right remains as the lower part of the inferior vena cava. The left division of the upper part of the inferior vena cava, which crosses the aorta below the superior mesenteric artery, remains as the inner portion of the left renal vein, which therefore receives the left spermatic and left suprarenal veins as tributaries.

The Veins of the Limbs.

Two sets of veins are developed in each limb, the **superficial** and the **deep**; the former are the primary vessels, and as a rule they are quite apart from the limb arteries; the deep veins are secondary, and they accompany the arteries of the limb.

At the peripheral extremity of each limb a venous arch is developed, which is subsequently connected with the digital veins. In the upper extremity the arch terminates on the ulnar (post-axial) side of the limb in a trunk which afterwards becomes the posterior ulnar, basilic, axillary, and subclavian veins. At a latter period additional superficial vessels are formed, and of these a median vein which drains the palm, and a radial which commences on the radial side of the dorsum of the hand, are the most important. The radial passes up the preaxial border of the limb, becomes the cephalic, and for a time terminates in the primitive jugular vein;[1] this connexion is usually lost,[2] and a new communication is formed with the axillary vein. The median vein ends in an anastomosing vessel between the basilic and cephalic veins at the elbow, and through which it also communicates with the deep veins.

In the lower extremity the peripheral venous arch terminates in a fibular or post-axial trunk, which remains in the adult as the external saphenous vein; its connexion with the sciatic vein, which was its original continuation upwards, is soon lost, and a new communication is formed with the popliteal vein.

The internal saphenous vein is a later development which appears on the pre-axial border of the limb, and terminates in the femoral vein.

The deep veins appear as a series of anastomosing channels at the sides of the arteries.

The Pulmonary Veins.

The pulmonary veins develop simultaneously with the lungs, and at first the veins from both lungs unite to form a single trunk, which enters the left auricle posteriorly, close to the auricular septum; subsequently the single trunk is absorbed, and two veins, one from each lung, enter the left auricle, and eventually, as the result of further absorption, two veins from each lung terminate in that cavity.

The Lymphatic Vessels.—The lymph vessels commence as outgrowths from the large veins at the root of the neck and gradually extend throughout the body by a process of budding, at least this appears to be the case in the pig. The growth therefore is from the centre to the periphery, and the communications with the large serous cavities must be formed secondarily.

MORPHOLOGY OF THE VASCULAR SYSTEM.

In conformity with the general plan of the vertebrate body, the vascular system is essentially segmental in character. This is obvious, even in the adult, in the intercostal and lumbar vessels. It is distinguishable, though less obvious, in the vessels of the head and neck and of the pelvis.

The segmental arteries and veins form a series of bilaterally symmetrical vessels, each of which is united to the vessels of adjacent segments by intersegmental channels, which anastomose with one another, through the portions of the segmental vessels which they connect together, and thus form longitudinal trunks. The longitudinal trunks are mainly, though not exclusively, intersegmental. From them the main stem vessels of the individual are formed, and from or to these latter the segmental vessels appear to proceed as branches or tributaries.

In the course of development the longitudinal trunks become the most important trunks in the individual, and they are formed before the segmental vessels make their appearance.

[1] See note on page 937.

[2] In certain cases it remains, and then the cephalic vein crosses the front of the clavicle and terminates in the external jugular vein.

The Segmental Arteries and their Anastomoses.

The main longitudinal trunks are the primitive aortæ. The descending aorta is formed, in

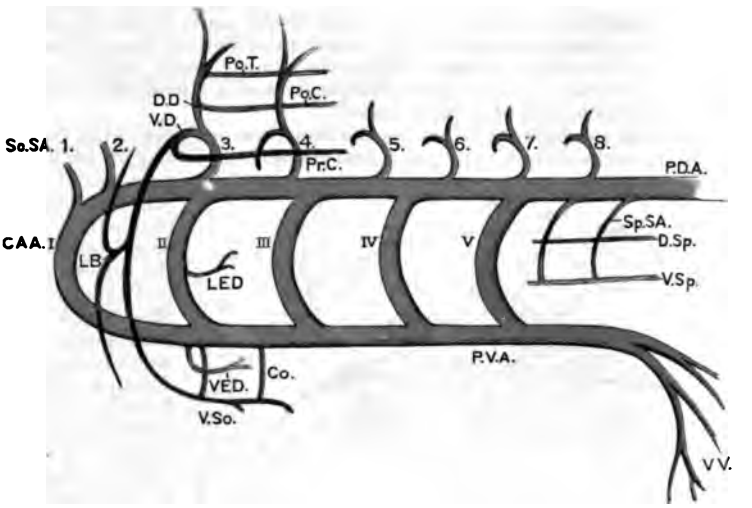

Fig. 675.—Diagram of the Cephalic Aortic Arches, and of the Segmental and Intersegmental Arteries in the Region in Front of the Umbilicus.

C.A.A. I, II, III, IV, V. The cephalic aortic arches.
Co. Anastomosing vessel between the primitive ventral aorta and the ventral somatic anastomosis.
D.D. Dorsal division of a somatic segmental artery.
D.Sp. Dorsal splanchnic anastomosis.
L.B. Lateral branch of ventral division of somatic segmental artery.
L.E.D. Branch to lateral enteric diverticulum.
P.D.A. Primitive dorsal aorta.
Po.C. Post-costal anastomosis.
Po.T. Post-transverse anastomosis.
Pr.C. Pre-costal anastomosis.
P.V.A. Primitive ventral aorta.
So.S.A. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8. Somatic segmental arteries.
Sp.S.A. Splanchnic segmental arteries.
V.D. Ventral division of a somatic segmental artery.
V.E.D. Branch to ventral enteric diverticulum.
V.V. Vitelline vessels.
V.So. Ventral somatic anastomosis.
V.Sp. Ventral splanchnic anastomosis.

the greater part of its extent, by the fusion of the dorsal parts of the primitive aortæ, and from it the segmental arteries arise in pairs.

In a typical segment of the body of the embryo there are three segmental arteries on each side. One rises from the dorsal surface of the primitive dorsal aorta, *i.e.* from the dorsal longitudinal trunk, and runs outwards in the tissues developed from the somatic mesoderm; it is distributed to the body wall, including the spinal column and its contents, and is termed a **somatic segmental artery**. A second vessel rises from the side of the primitive dorsal aorta; it is distributed to the structures developed from the intermediate cell mass, viz. the suprarenal body, the kidney, and the ovary or testicle, and it is accordingly termed the **intermediate visceral artery**. The third artery, which is known as the **splanchnic segmental artery**, springs from the ventral surface of the descending aorta. It runs in the tissues developed from the splanchnic mesoderm, and supplies the wall of the alimentary canal.

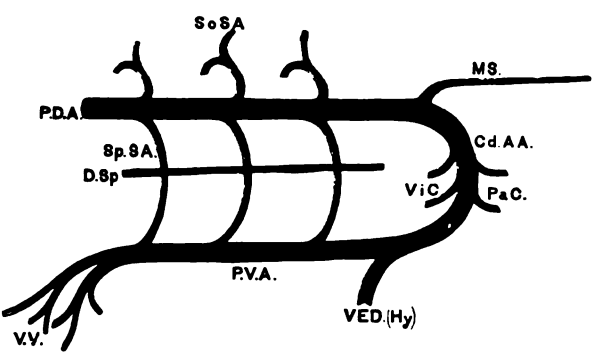

Fig. 676.—Diagram of the Caudal Aortic Arch, and of the Segmental and Intersegmental Arteries in the Region behind the Umbilicus.

Cd.A.A. Caudal aortic arch.
D.Sp. Dorsal splanchnic anastomosis.
M.S. Middle sacral artery.
Pa.C. Parietal branch from caudal arch.
P.D.A. Primitive dorsal aorta.
P.V.A. Primitive ventral aorta.
So.S.A. Somatic segmental arteries.
Sp.S.A. Splanchnic segmental arteries.
V.E.D. (Hy). Branch to a ventral enteric diverticulum.
Vi.C. Visceral branch from the caudal arch.
V.V. Vitelline vessels.

The **somatic segmental arteries** form in the early embryo a regular series of paired vessels throughout the cervical, dorsal, lumbar, and sacral regions. It is, however, only in the dorsal and lumbar regions that their original characters are retained. The paired vessels pass backwards

by the sides of the vertebræ, and divide into dorsal and ventral branches which accompany the corresponding anterior and posterior primary divisions of the spinal nerves.

The **ventral branches** run outwards between the ribs in the dorsal region, and in corresponding positions in the lumbar region. They are connected together, near their commencements, by a series of precostal anastomoses which pass in front of the necks of the ribs, and they are also connected together near their terminations by ventral anastomosing channels which run in the thoracic region behind the costal cartilages, and in the lumbar region behind or in the substance of the rectus abdominis muscle. Each ventral branch gives off a lateral offset which is distributed like the lateral cutaneous branch of a spinal nerve.

The **dorsal branches** run backwards between the transverse processes of the vertebræ; they are connected behind the necks of the ribs by post-costal anastomoses, and again behind the transverse processes of the vertebræ by post-transverse anastomosing channels. Moreover, each dorsal branch, as it passes by the corresponding intervertebral foramen, gives off a spinal offset which enters the spinal canal along the corresponding nerve-root, and divides into a dorsal, a ventral, and a neural branch. The dorsal branches of these spinal arteries are connected together along the ventral surfaces of the lamina by pre-laminar anastomoses, and the ventral branches are united on the dorsal surfaces of the vertebral centra with their fellows above and below by post-central anastomoses: they are also united with their fellows of the opposite side by transverse communicating channels. The neural branches of the spinal arteries divide similarly into dorsal and ventral branches: the dorsal branches of each side are connected together by post-neural anastomoses, and the ventral branches unite in the middle line both with their fellows above and below and with those of the opposite side, forming a single longitudinal pre-neural trunk.

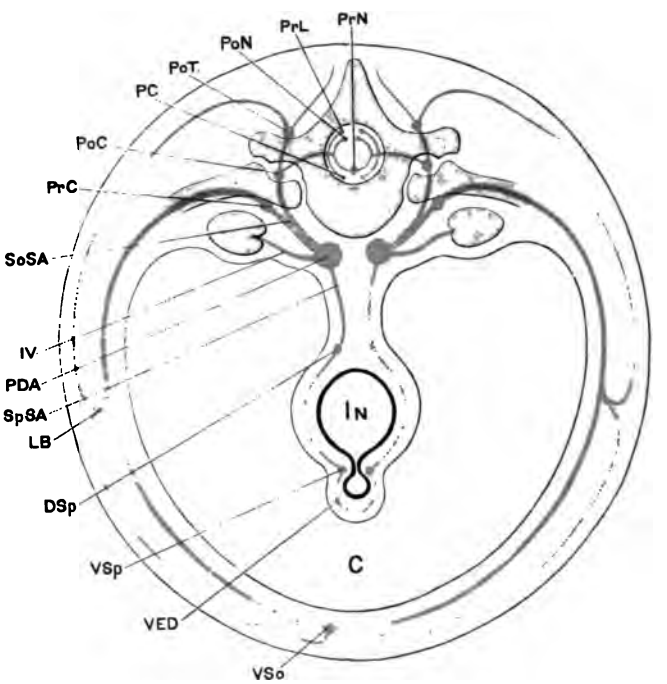

FIG. 677. DIAGRAM SHOWING THE ARRANGEMENT AND COMMUNICATIONS OF THE SEGMENTAL AND INTERSEGMENTAL ARTERIES AT AN EARLY STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT.

C, Cœlom; D.Sp, Dorsal splanchnic anastomosis; IN, Intestine; I.V, Intermediate visceral artery; L.B, Lateral branch of the ventral division of a somatic segmental artery; P.C, Post-central anastomosis; P.D.A, Primitive dorsal aorta; Po.C, Post-costal anastomosis; Po.N, Post-neural anastomosis; Po.T, Post-transverse anastomosis; Pr.C, Pre-costal anastomosis; Pr.L, Pre-laminar anastomosis; Pr.N, Pre-neural anastomosis; So.S.A, Somatic segmental artery; Sp.S.A, Splanchnic segmental artery; V.E.D, Branch to a ventral enteric diverticulum; V.So, Ventral somatic anastomosis; V.Sp, Ventral splanchnic anastomosis.

In the dorsal and lumbar regions of the body the somatic segmental arteries persist and form the intercostal and lumbar arteries. These vessels spring from the dorsal aspect of the descending aorta, usually in pairs. The corresponding vessels of opposite sides, however, occasionally fuse together at their origins, simultaneously with the fusion of the dorsal longitudinal trunks to form the descending aorta, and then they arise by common stems.

The precostal anastomoses between the ventral branches of the somatic segmental arteries are only represented in the dorsal region by the superior intercostal arteries; in the lumbar region they disappear entirely. The anastomoses between the anterior ends of the ventral branches of the somatic segmental arteries persist as the internal mammary and deep epigastric arteries.

The lateral offsets of the ventral branches are represented by the cutaneous arteries which accompany the lateral cutaneous branches of the spinal nerves.

The post-costal and post-transverse anastomoses usually disappear in the dorsal and lumbar regions, but the post-costal anastomoses occasionally persist in the upper dorsal region, and take part in the formation of the vertebral artery, which in such cases arises from the first or second intercostal artery. In some carnivores the post-costal longitudinal vessels persist in the upper dorsal region, and form, on each side, a trunk which is connected with the first aortic intercostal, and which supplies the five anterior intercostal spaces.

The pre-laminar, the post-central, and the pre- and post-neural anastomoses persist, the two

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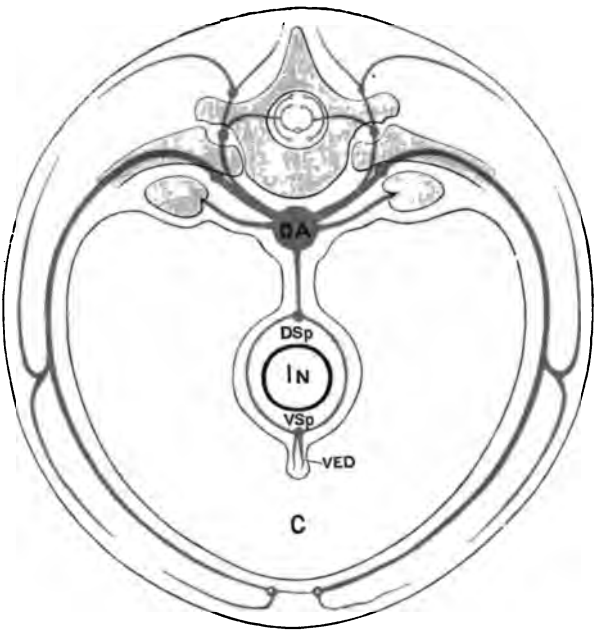

FIG. 678.—DIAGRAM OF THE SEGMENTAL AND INTERSEGMENTAL ARTERIES AT A LATER PERIOD OF DEVELOPMENT THAN IN FIG. 677.

C, Cœlom; D.A, Dorsal aorta; D.Sp, Dorsal splanchnic anastomosis; IN, Intestine; V.E.D, Branch to ventral enteric diverticulum; V.Sp, Ventral splanchnic anastomosis.

tent and enlarged lateral offset of the ventral branch of the seventh somatic segmental
hich is continued outwards into the upper limb behind, or postaxial to the shoulder girdle.
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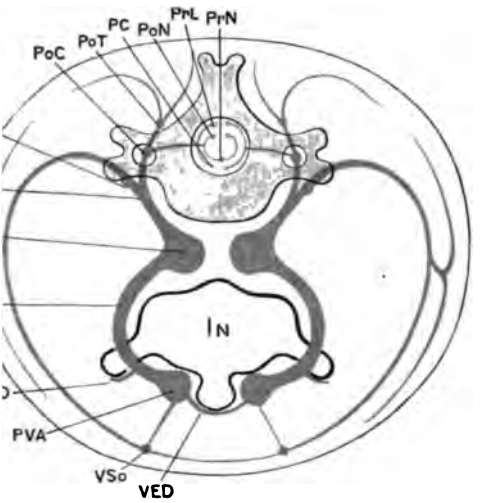


—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE ARRANGEMENT AND COM-CATIONS OF THE SEGMENTAL ARTERIES IN THE ON OF THE CEPHALIC AORTIC ARCHES.

phalic aortic arch; IN, Intestine; L.B, Lateral branch somatic segmental artery; L.E.D, Branch to a lateral c diverticulum; P.C, Post-central anastomosis; P.D.A, tive dorsal aorta; Po.C, Post-costal anastomosis; Po.N, neural anastomosis; Po.T, Post-transverse anastomosis; Pre-costal anastomosis; Pr.L, Pre-laminar anastomosis; Pre-neural anastomosis; P.V.A, Primitive ventral aorta; L, Somatic segmental artery; V.E.D, Branch to a ventral c diverticulum; V.So, Ventral somatic anastomosis.

persistent pre-costal anastomoses, and the ascending cervical artery belongs to the same series of vessels. The vertebral artery, which appears as a branch of the subclavian in the adult, is morphologically somewhat complex. The first part represents the dorsal branch of the seventh somatic segmental artery; the second part, that passing through the cervical transverse processes, consists of the persistent post-costal anastomoses between the first seven segmental arteries; a third part, that lying on the arch of the atlas, is the spinal branch of the first somatic segmental artery and its neural continuation; whilst finally the upper part of the vertebral artery, that in the cranial cavity, appears to represent a prolongation of the preneural anastomoses, which still farther upwards are probably represented by the basilar artery. As already stated, the post-costal anastomoses below the seventh segmental artery occasionally persist, and in such cases the vertebral may lose its connexion with the subclavian, and spring from one or other of the dorsal branches of the upper intercostal arteries.

The profunda cervicis artery is to be regarded as a remnant of the post-transverse longitudinal anastomoses.

The origin of the seventh somatic segmental artery from the dorsal longitudinal trunk is at first some distance

behind the fifth aortic arch, but, simultaneously with the elongation of the neck and the retraction of the heart into the thoracic region, it is shifted forward until it is opposite the dorsal end of the fourth aortic arch.

The middle sacral artery is formed by the fusion of two vessels, each of which springs from the primitive aorta in exactly the same manner as a somatic segmental artery; it may therefore be looked upon as consisting of fused somatic segmental vessels which have been prolonged backward for the supply of the caudal appendage. It is, however, commonly regarded as the direct continuation of the descending aorta, and consequently as being mainly intersegmental. Its mode of origin and general nature do not lend much support to the latter view.

The **intermediate visceral arteries** supply the organs derived from the intermediate cell mass. They form a somewhat irregular series of vessels in the adult, but presumably in the primitive condition there was a pair in each segment of the body; many of these disappear, however, and the series is only represented in the adult by the suprarenal, the renal, and the spermatic or ovarian arteries—possibly, also, by some of the branches of the internal iliac arteries.

The **splanchnic segmental arteries** arise in the embryo from the ventral aspects of the primitive dorsal aortæ, and are distributed to the walls of the alimentary canal. They anastomose with their fellows in front and behind in the dorsal wall of the gut; those in front of the umbilicus also communicate together on the ventral wall of the gut, whilst those behind the umbilicus terminate ventrally in the posterior sections of the ventral aortæ.

After the fusion of the dorsal longitudinal trunks to form the descending aorta, the origins of the splanchnic arteries in each segment fuse into a common stem, or either the right or left artery altogether disappears, whilst at a later period the majority of the splanchnic segmental arteries lose their direct connexion with the descending aorta; those which retain their connexion are the left bronchial arteries, the œsophageal branches of the aorta, the cœliac axis, and the superior and inferior mesenteric arteries, the three latter vessels greatly increasing in size.

The coronary or gastric branch of the cœliac axis, as it passes from its origin to the small curvature of the stomach, represents a right splanchnic artery; the remainder of the coronary artery and the pyloric branch of the hepatic are remnants of the ventral anastomoses between the splanchnic arteries in front of the umbilicus.

The splenic artery is a branch given off from a splanchnic artery to an organ developed in the gastric mesentery, and the hepatic is a branch from the ventral splanchnic anastomoses to the hepatic diverticulum from the wall of the duodenal portion of the fore-gut.

The superior and inferior mesenteric arteries represent at their origins splanchnic branches, and in the remainder of their extent the dorsal anastomoses on the gut wall.

The Aorta, Pulmonary Artery, and other Chief Stem Vessels.

The heart and the majority of the great arterial trunks of the body, including the aorta, the innominate, part of the right subclavian, the common, external, and greater parts of the internal carotids, the common and internal iliacs, and the pulmonary arteries, are all modified portions either of the primitive aortæ or of the aortic arches. The developmental changes, which result in the formation of the vessels named, are described in the preceding chapter, and the morphology of these vessels is obviously the same as that of the trunks from which they are derived.

It will be sufficient, therefore, to point out that the primitive aortæ are to be regarded as the greatly enlarged pre-central or pre-vertebral longitudinal anastomoses between the successive segmental arteries of each side; obviously, therefore, each primitive aorta, like the rest of the longitudinal anastomoses, consists chiefly of intersegmental elements. The origins of the segmental vessels only enter into its formation in so far as they connect the intersegmental vessels together, and so complete the longitudinal anastomoses.

The first cephalic aortic arches and the primary caudal arches are simply portions of the primitive aortæ. The other aortic arches have possibly a different morphological significance, but their exact nature is not definitely settled.

The second, third, fourth, and fifth cephalic aortic arches of each side are developed in the undivided mesoderm of the head region behind the first arch. They spring from the anterior part of the primitive aorta which, after the head fold is formed, lies on the ventral aspect of the fore-gut, and they extend at the side of the pharyngeal part of the fore-gut to the dorsal aorta. Thus in some respects they resemble segmental vessels. Behind the umbilicus some of the segmental splanchnic arteries pass from the dorsal to the ventral aorta in the splanchnic mesoderm on the wall of the alimentary canal. In addition to the vessels already mentioned, there are given off from the ventral aortæ and the aortic arches a series of branches which supply ventral and lateral diverticula from the alimentary canal; these are represented in the adult by the superior thyroid, the thyroidea ima, and the terminal branches of the hypogastric arteries.

Iliac Arteries and their Branches.—The common iliac arteries are undoubtedly formed from the primitive aortic longitudinal vessels; they are simply those portions of the right and left primitive aortæ respectively which lie immediately beyond or caudal to the permanent descending aorta. The direct continuation of each is the primary caudal arch, which forms the origin of the superior vesical artery, and is prolonged as the hypogastric artery; these continuous channels are for the most part made up of intersegmental vessels. So also are the permanent vessels into which they are transformed. Reference has already been made to the fact that the primary caudal arch almost entirely disappears, and that a secondary caudal arch is developed in lieu of it (p. 928).

The internal iliac arteries are almost entirely formed from the secondary caudal arches. The

ary caudal arch, beyond doubt, is not a segmental vessel; the secondary arch may be, but is still unproved. The branches of the internal iliac artery which represent offsets of the dal arch" portion of the primitive aortæ are arranged in two groups—(1) a visceral set h supplies the walls of the hind-gut and the genital organs, and (2) a parietal set which is ibuted to the body wall and to the hind-limbs. The branches distributed to the gut prob- represent the segmental splanchnic vessels given off from the dorsal longitudinal vessels; : to the genital organs appear to correspond with the intermediate visceral branches, for they listributed to organs derived from the intermediate cell mass.

'he parietal set are to be regarded as modified somatic segmental branches of the dorsal itudinal trunks. The lateral sacral arteries which belong to this group represent, in the ter parts of their extent at least, the pre-costal anastomoses.

The Limb Arteries.

n all probability the vessels of both the anterior and the posterior extremities are derived ı several somatic segmental arteries, the majority of which, however, in the course of phylo- tic development, have atrophied. The upper limb is supplied in man by the lateral offset ı the ventral branch of the seventh somatic segmental artery. It passes out into the emity behind the shoulder girdle, courses through the upper arm, enters the antecubital , and is continued through the forearm, in the early stages, as the anterior interosseous ry, to the deep part of the palm, where it terminates in the deep palmar arch. At a later od a median artery is given off from the parent stem, and it terminates in a superficial ıar arch; still later the radial and ulnar branches are given off. The latter grow dly, soon exceeding in size the parent stem, and they terminate in the superficial and palmar arches. The interosseous and median arteries decrease, and generally lose their ct connexions with the palmar arches. The posterior interosseous artery is also a ıdary branch from the parent stem, and the digital arteries are offsets from the palmar rial arches.

The chief arteries of the lower extremities spring directly from the caudal arches, and may be ed upon as being essentially segmental; whether they represent the whole or only parts of cal somatic segmental arteries, however, is not clear.

The arteries of the hind-limbs certainly show no very obvious indications of division into al and ventral branches, though such indications are not entirely wanting. In their com- tive absence it is supposed that the dorsal branches have been either suppressed or incor- ted with the common stems; that similarly the ventral branches and their lateral offsets ndistinguishably fused, and that probably both are represented in a limb artery.

The original stem vessel of the lower limb is the sciatic artery, which is continued down- ls behind the pelvic girdle into the popliteal and peroneal arteries, and so to the plantar . Subsequently the external iliac artery is given off from the caudal arch above the origin he sciatic, and, passing into the limb in front of the pelvic girdle, it becomes the femoral ry. This vessel ultimately unites with the upper part of the popliteal artery, and after this munication is established the lower part of the sciatic atrophies and loses its connexion ı the popliteal, which henceforth appears to be the direct continuation of the femoral trunk; efore, whilst the main artery of the upper limb is formed by the prolongation of the lateral ıch of one segmental artery, the corresponding vessel of the lower extremity is developed ı representatives of two somatic segmental arteries, the external iliac and femoral trunks g the representatives of one, whilst the popliteal and its continuation, the peroneal, are s of another.

The first main artery of the leg is the peroneal, which is continued into the plantar arch; : a time, however, the posterior and anterior tibial branches are given off from the stem, which, as a rule, they soon preponderate in size, and they terminate in the plantar arch, lst the parent trunk diminishes and loses its direct connexion with the arch.

The peroneal artery corresponds in position and development with the interosseous trunk the anterior interosseous artery in the forearm. The posterior tibial apparently corre- ıds with the median artery; it develops in a similar way, and has similar relations to ologous nerves, the posterior tibial nerve representing the combined median and ulnar 'es of the upper extremity.

The anterior tibial artery represents the posterior interosseous, whilst the radial and ulnar ries of the upper extremity are not represented in the lower limb.

MORPHOLOGY OF THE VEINS.

Two dorsal longitudinal vessels, one on each side, connect the successive segmental veins ther. They do not, however, in any part of their course, fuse together to form a single el comparable to the descending aorta.

Of these dorsal longitudinal vessels, that on the right side greatly enlarges, and from it the n stem vessels which return blood from the body walls, the head and neck, and the limbs, are ost entirely formed. The left dorsal longitudinal vessel remains relatively small—in parts, ed, it altogether disappears—and the blood conveyed to it by the corresponding segmental s is transmitted across the middle line to the chief functional stem by later developed and radded transverse communicating channels, which are formed between the more primitive itudinal anastomoses.

The primitive dorsal longitudinal anastomosing channels include on each side (1) the primitive jugular vein, (2) the primitive cardinal vein, and (3) the duct of Cuvier; the last-named vessel, however, is not so much a longitudinal anastomosis as a communicating channel between the longitudinal anastomoses and the heart, for it is formed by the junction of the primitive jugular and cardinal veins, and opens into the sinus venosus of the primitive heart.

From these vessels, and from the transverse communications which are established between the primitive jugular and cardinal veins of opposite sides, the chief veins of the head and neck and the body are formed; there are in addition, however, three later-formed vessels from which some, or portions of some, of the main stem vessels of the body are evolved. These later-formed vessels are the two internal jugular veins,[1] and the upper part of the inferior vena cava, whilst from the latter of these portions of the renal veins, the suprarenal veins and the spermatic or ovarian veins are possibly developed as offsets; moreover, it must not be forgotten that the veins of the extremities are, like the extremities themselves, secondary structures, and that they are developed at a later period than the veins of the trunk, with which, however, they ultimately communicate.

In the light of these facts the morphology of the chief veins of the trunk and limbs may now be considered.

The external jugular vein is obviously a portion of an intersegmental anastomosis, for it is part of the primitive jugular vein, which originally extended from the internal occipital protuberance to the post-condyloid foramen, and thence to the duct of Cuvier. During the course of development the intracranial part of the primitive jugular, on each side, is converted into the horizontal portion of the lateral sinus and the occasionally persistent squamo-petrosal sinus; outside the cranium the trunk of the temporo-maxillary vein, the whole of the external jugular vein, and that portion of the subclavian vein which intervenes between the external and internal jugular veins, are formed from the primitive jugular. On the right side the right innominate vein and the upper part of the superior vena cava are also formed from the primitive jugular vein, whilst on the left side the lower portion of the vessel becomes the upper part of the left superior intercostal vein.[2]

After the formation of the limbs the primitive jugular receives the pre-axial and post-axial veins of the fore-limb of the same side, which pass respectively along the radial and ulnar borders of the limb; both join the primitive jugular vein, the former above and the latter below the clavicle.[3] Subsequently, however, the pre-axial vein of the fore-limb loses its connexion with the primitive jugular vein, and opens below the clavicle into the post-axial vein, and the upper part of that vessel becomes the outer part of the subclavian vein, *i.e.* that portion of the subclavian vein which extends from the outer border of the first rib to the entrance of the external jugular vein, the remainder of the subclavian being formed by the portion of the primitive jugular vein which intervenes between the entrance of the pre-axial vein and the junction with the internal jugular vein.

The internal jugular vein is a newly formed anastomosing vessel which commences from the primitive jugular vein at the root of the neck and grows upwards to the base of the skull, where it passes through the jugular foramen, and ascends along the inner surface of the mastoid portion of the temporal bone to join the lateral sinus, of which it becomes the sigmoid portion. It probably represents a dorsal splanchnic intersegmental venous anastomosis.[1]

The innominate vein of the left side is an enlarged transverse anastomosis between the two primitive jugular veins, and the corresponding vessel on the right side is the portion of the right primitive jugular vein which lies between the origin of the right internal jugular vein and the transverse anastomosis between the two primitive jugular veins.

The superior vena cava is also formed from the primitive longitudinal anastomosis on the right side; the upper portion, which lies above the entrance of the azygos vein, being the lower part of the right primitive jugular vein, and the lower portion, which is enclosed within the pericardium, is the persistent right duct of Cuvier.

The only other vein formed from the jugular portion of the dorsal longitudinal anastomosis is the upper part of the left superior intercostal vein, which represents the part of the left primitive jugular vein lying below the transverse anastomosis which becomes the left innominate vein; occasionally this part of the left primitive jugular vein becomes enlarged, and forms a vertical left innominate vein which terminates in a left superior vena cava, the latter being formed from the left duct of Cuvier. This arrangement is the regular and normal condition in many mammals.

The internal iliac veins, the right common iliac vein, the lower part of the inferior vena cava, the vena azygos major, and the vertical portions of the upper and lower left azygos veins, and part of the left superior intercostal vein, are all parts of the primitive cardinal veins. They represent, therefore, portions of the dorsal longitudinal intersegmental anastomoses.

The internal iliac veins are the persistent lower sections of the cardinal veins, and their visceral and parietal tributaries probably represent more or less modified splanchnic and somatic segmental veins.

The left common iliac vein may, in the lower part of its extent, represent the part of the left cardinal vein immediately above the junction of the pre-axial hind-limb vein with the latter vessel, but the greater part of it is an enlarged transverse anastomosis between the cardinal veins at the level of the pelvic brim. The right common iliac vein, on the other hand, is the portion

[1] See note on p. 937. [2] *Ibid.*

[3] If the observations recorded on p. 937 are correct, then the external jugular vein is not the primitive *jugular* vein but a newly-formed vessel into which the pre-axial vein opens.

of the right cardinal vein which lies between the entrance of the limb vein and the transverse anastomosis which becomes the left common iliac vein. The inferior vena cava, from its commencement to the entrance of the renal veins, is a portion of the right cardinal vein, and the right lumbar veins which terminate in it are the somatic segmental veins of the right side of the lumbar region; whilst the left lumbar tributaries are the left lumbar segmental veins, which have been transmitted across the middle line by transverse anastomosing channels which connected the lumbar sections of the cardinal veins together.

The upper part of the inferior vena cava is a new anastomosing channel formed between the upper end of the right hepatic vein and the right cardinal vein. This section of the inferior vena cava grows downwards from the right hepatic vein.

The right and left renal veins originally terminated in the corresponding cardinal veins, and are therefore probably intermediate visceral segmental veins, but that part of the left renal vein which crosses the middle line is either an enlarged transverse anastomosis between the cardinal veins, or an outgrowth from the lower end of the upper part of the inferior vena cava; apparently the latter, for as the upper section of the inferior vena cava grows downwards from the right hepatic vein it divides into two branches, right and left, each of which joins the corresponding cardinal vein close to the termination of the renal vein. Before it fuses with the cardinal vein of its own side, each of the terminal branches of the upper section of the inferior vena cava gives off branches which ultimately become the suprarenal and spermatic veins; there can be no doubt, however, that both the suprarenal and spermatic veins are intermediate visceral segmental veins, and in all probability they originally terminated in the corresponding cardinal veins, their development from the upper section of the inferior vena cava being due to the production in the embryo of a condition which has been secondarily acquired during the development of the species. If this is the case, it is extremely probable that the left spermatic vein represents not only an elongated intermediate visceral segmental vein, but also a portion of the left cardinal into which it opened.

The vena azygos major is the persistent upper portion of the left cardinal vein, a fact which is emphasised by its frequent connexion with the inferior vena cava at the level of the right renal vein. The right intercostal veins which open into the vena azygos major are somatic segmental veins, the upper three or four of which have united together by pre-costal anastomoses to form a right superior intercostal vein.

The vertical portions of the left azygos veins are remnants of the left primitive cardinal vein, and their transverse portions are enlarged transverse anastomoses comparable to the left innominate and left common iliac veins. The left, like the right intercostal veins, are segmental somatic veins; but whilst the right superior intercostal vein is formed by pre-costal anastomoses between the upper three or four dorsal somatic segmental veins, the left superior intercostal vein (Fig. 674) represents the upper part of the left cardinal vein and the part of the left primitive jugular vein below the transverse anastomosis, which becomes the left innominate vein; moreover, the left superior intercostal vein frequently retains in the adult a connexion with the oblique vein of Marshall, which represents the left duct of Cuvier, by means of which both the left primitive jugular and the left cardinal veins originally communicated with the heart.

Visceral Veins.—The portal vein represents portions of the ventral longitudinal anastomosing vessels, being derived from the vitelline veins.

The pyloric vein is a splanchnic intersegmental ventral longitudinal anastomosing vein. The coronary vein is partly a ventral and partly a dorsal splanchnic intersegmental longitudinal anastomosis, and the superior and inferior mesenteric veins are dorsal splanchnic longitudinal intersegmental venous anastomoses, the splenic vein being merely a tributary from a lymphoid organ developed in the dorsal mesentery.

The facial vein is a combination of somatic and splanchnic veins of several segments, and the internal maxillary vein is probably of similar nature. The thyroid and bronchial veins return blood from organs developed from diverticula from the walls of the alimentary canal; they are, therefore, more or less modified segmental splanchnic veins; so also apparently are the vesical and the middle and inferior hæmorrhoidal veins.

The cardiac veins are simply "vasa vasorum," and they belong therefore to the splanchnic group of vessels, but it is impossible to say whether they are segmental or intersegmental. The coronary sinus into which they open is a portion of the sinus venosus of the heart, and therefore of an originally intersegmental vessel.

The hepatic and pulmonary veins are new vessels which return blood to the heart after the liver and lungs have been interposed in the vascular system.

It is noteworthy that some parts of the splanchnic venous system, *i.e.* the portal vein and the coronary sinus, are portions of the most primitive vascular system, and that others, *i.e.* the thyroid, bronchial, mesenteric, vesical, and hæmorrhoidal veins, appear to belong to a somewhat secondary group of splanchnic veins of combined segmental and intersegmental character; moreover, some of the secondary group of veins open into the primary splanchnic veins, *e.g.* the superior and inferior mesenteric into the portal vein; some open into the dorsal longitudinal anastomosing veins, *e.g.* the vesical and hæmorrhoidal veins open into the cardinal veins, which are intersegmental anastomoses; others again open into an entirely new vein, viz. the internal jugular,[1] which is developed along the dorso-lateral border of the fore-gut, and which is therefore comparable to the dorsal venous splanchnic intersegmental anastomosis, which in the abdominal region becomes converted, after fusion of the vessels of opposite sides, into the greater parts of the superior and inferior mesenteric veins; the latter, however, open into a ventral longitudinal

[1] See note on p. 937.

anastomosing vessel, the portal vein, whilst the former joins a dorsal longitudinal anastomosing trunk.

Veins of the Limbs.—The veins of the limbs, like the arteries, were probably at one time segmental in character, but we have no absolute proof that this was the case. Looked at from an embryological standpoint, the most primitive limb veins are a superficial distal arch and a post-axial trunk vein in each extremity; at a later period digital veins are connected with the distal arch, and a pre-axial trunk is formed. In the upper extremity the distal arch and its tributaries remain as the dorsal venous arch and the digital veins, and the post-axial vein becomes the posterior ulnar, the basalic and axillary veins, and also that part of the subclavian vein which lies external to the termination of the external jugular vein, the remainder of the subclavian vein being formed from the primitive jugular vein itself. The pre-axial vein of the upper extremity is represented in the adult by the radial and cephalic veins; the latter vessel originally terminated in the external jugular vein above the clavicle, the union with the axillary portion of the post-axial vessel being a secondary condition; the primary condition is, however, frequently retained in man, and is constant in many monkeys. The anastomosis between the pre-axial and post-axial veins in the region of the elbow, and the connexion of the anastomosing channels, is brought about by newly-formed vessels of secondary character.

The distal arch in the lower extremity and the tributaries connected with it remain in the adult as the dorsal venous arch of the foot and the digital veins. The post-axial vein becomes the external saphenous vein, which was originally continued upwards as the sciatic vein to the internal iliac portion of the cardinal vein; its connexion with the popliteal vein, and its more occasional connexion with the internal saphenous vein, being brought about by the formation of secondary anastomoses.

The pre-axial vein of the lower limb becomes the long saphenous vein, which is continued upwards to the cardinal portion of the left common iliac vein as the upper part of the femoral and the external iliac veins.

The venæ comites of the arteries in both the upper and lower extremities are secondarily developed vessels which become connected with the upper portions of the pre-axial venous trunks.

ABNORMALITIES OR VARIATIONS OF THE VASCULAR SYSTEM.

Abnormalities are of special interest to the anatomist because of their morphological significance, and the vascular system is, perhaps more than any other, rich in such abnormalities, many of which are of great practical importance.

With the exception of those irregularities which are directly due to the effect of morbid conditions and external influences, all abnormalities are the result of modifications of normal developmental processes. The exceptions referred to are, however, very numerous; thus disease and external influences may lead to the obliteration of vessels, a condition which is invariably associated with the enlargement of collateral vessels, and it will be obvious that abnormalities so produced may occur in almost any situation.

Abnormalities which are determined by, or are dependent upon, modifications of the usual developmental processes are of greater interest. In the human subject they are generally due either to the retention of conditions which normally are only transitory, or to the acquirement of conditions which, though not as a rule present at any time in man, occur normally in other animals.

There are in addition other variations from the normal, such as the division of the axillary artery into radial and ulnar branches; the higher or lower division of the brachial artery; the formation of "vasa aberrantia," *e.g.* of long slender vessels connecting the axillary or brachial to the radial, ulnar, or interosseous arteries; the altered position of certain vessels, as *e.g.* the transference of the subclavian artery to the front of the scalenus anticus, or of the ulnar artery to the front of the superficial flexor muscles; all of which, though undoubtedly due to alterations of ordinary developmental processes, still do not represent conditions met with, either temporarily or permanently, in man or in other animals. Their occurrence cannot at present be adequately explained, and their retention is entirely dependent upon their utility.

To the first and last of these different groups of abnormalities it is not necessary to refer further, whilst with regard to the rest it will be sufficient to indicate those of greatest importance. They can only, however, be fully understood and explained on the basis of a comprehensive knowledge of the development and morphology of the vascular system, to the chapters on which the reader is referred.

ABNORMALITIES OF THE HEART.

The heart may be transposed from the left to the right side of the body, a condition which is usually associated with general transposition of the viscera, and with the presence of a right instead of a left aortic arch.

The external form of the heart does not as a rule vary much, but occasionally the apex is *slightly* bifid, a character it normally possesses at an early stage of its development, and which is

retained in the adult in many cetaceans and sirenians. The internal conformation of the heart deviates from the normal much more frequently; more particularly is this the case with regard to the septa which separate the right from the left chambers. The interauricular septum may be entirely absent, as in fishes; it may be fenestrated and incomplete, as in some amphibians; or the foramen ovale may remain patent, as in amphibians and reptiles.

The interventricular septum may be absent, as in fishes and amphibians, or incomplete, as in reptiles; when incomplete, it is usually the "pars membranacea septi" which is deficient.

ABNORMALITIES OF ARTERIES.

The **pulmonary artery** and the **aorta** may arise by a common stem, as in fishes and some amphibians, and the common stem may spring either from the right or the left ventricle, or from both. In these cases the aortic bulb has remained undivided, and the normal position of the interventricular septum in relation to the lower orifice of the aortic bulb has been altered.

Again, owing to malposition of the aortic septum, the pulmonary artery may spring from the left ventricle and the aorta from the right ventricle. In some cases the root of the pulmonary artery is obliterated, and the blood passes to the lungs along the patent ductus arteriosus.

Occasionally the arch of the aorta is on the right side instead of the left, a condition which is normal in birds. More rarely there are two permanent aortic arches, right and left, as in reptiles; the œsophagus and trachea in these cases are enclosed in a vascular collar, the two arches unite dorsally, and the beginning of the descending aorta is double. Quite independent of this condition, however, the two primitive dorsal aortæ sometimes fail, either altogether or partially, to unite together, and the descending aorta is accordingly represented, to a corresponding extent, by two tubes. A more common, though still rare, form of double aorta is that due to the persistence, in whole or in part, of the septum formed by the fused walls of the primitive dorsal aortæ from which the descending aorta is developed.

The length of the descending aorta is determined largely by the extent to which fusion of the two primitive aortæ takes place. Accordingly, when this deviates from the normal, the termination of the descending aorta is at a correspondingly higher or lower level than usual, and resulting from this the lengths of the common iliac arteries are almost invariably proportionately modified. The bifurcation[1] of the aorta may be as low as the fifth lumbar vertebra, less frequently it is higher than usual; it is rare, however, to find it higher than the third or second lumbar vertebra.

The aorta, instead of bifurcating into two common iliac arteries, may terminate in a common iliac artery on one side and an internal iliac artery on the opposite side, the external iliac artery on the irregular side arising, at a higher level, as a branch of the aortic stem. This arrangement approaches the condition met with in carnivores and many other mammals, in which the aorta bifurcates into two internal iliac arteries, the external iliacs arising from the aorta at a higher level as lateral branches; it is due either to a more extensive fusion than usual of the primitive dorsal aortæ, or to the origin of the external iliac arteries from the primitive dorsal aortæ being at a higher level than is ordinarily the case; if the condition is due to the latter cause, it may be that the external iliac arteries in carnivores, and the external iliac arteries which occasionally rise from the aorta in man, are somatic segmental arteries of a higher segment than the normal external iliac arteries of the human subject.

The Branches of the Aorta.

The **coronary or cardiac arteries** may arise by a single stem. When arising separately both may spring from the same sinus of Valsalva; or again, their interventricular and transverse branches may all arise as distinct vessels from a single sinus of Valsalva. This variability is not so remarkable, seeing that the arteries in question are merely enlarged "vasa vasorum" raised to a position of special importance by the development of the heart.

The **branches of the arch of the aorta** are sometimes increased and sometimes decreased in number.

The highest number recorded is six, viz., right subclavian, right vertebral, right common carotid, left common carotid, left vertebral, and left subclavian. Apparently this condition is the result of the absorption of the innominate artery and of the roots of the subclavian arteries, to points beyond the origins of the vertebrals, into the arch. By variations of this process of absorption other combinations may be produced; thus, instead of the roots of the subclavian arteries being absorbed, the right common carotid and innominate arteries may alone be absorbed, in which case the five following branches spring separately from the arch of the aorta: right subclavian, right external carotid, right internal carotid, left common carotid, and left subclavian. The trunk most commonly absorbed is the initial part of the left subclavian; the number of branches then arising from the arch of the aorta is four, the additional vessel being the left vertebral, which arises between the left common carotid and the left subclavian. Occasionally the usual three branches from the arch are increased to four by the formation of a new vessel, the "thyroidea ima." This may be placed between the innominate and left carotid trunks, in which case it represents a persistent ventral visceral branch from the ventral root of the fourth left aortic arch; in other cases the thyroidea ima springs from the innominate artery and

[1] It is to be observed that the exact point of bifurcation of the aorta, in relation to the vertebral column, is not entirely determined by the length of the descending aorta.

represents a ventral visceral branch of the ventral root of the fourth ***right arch.*** Very rarely the right vertebral artery arises separately, and forms a fourth branch of the arch of the aorta, the rest of the branches being normal. This condition cannot be accounted for by any modification of the ordinary developmental processes. It may possibly be due to the persistence of an irregular or unimportant anastomosis between the ventral root of an aortic arch and the several somatic segmental artery.

Decrease in the number of branches from the arch of the aorta is most frequently due to fusion of the ventral roots of the fourth aortic arches, the result being that a stem is formed common to the right subclavian and the right and left common carotid arteries; whilst the left subclavian, arising separately, is the only other branch which springs from the arch of the aorta.

If the fusion of the ventral roots proceeds further and includes those of the third arches, the result as regards the branches given off from the arch of the aorta is the same, viz. there is a common stem for the right subclavian and both carotids, and a separate left subclavian trunk; but the common stem now gives off the right subclavian artery, and then continues as a single vessel for some distance before it divides into the two common carotids, of which the left crosses in front of the trachea. This arrangement is common in many quadrumana and in some other mammals.

It is only very occasionally when the number of branches from the arch of the aorta is reduced to two, that these consist of a right subclavian artery and of a single stem common to the two carotids and the left subclavian arteries. In such cases, however, the right common carotid crosses in front of the trachea, and the variation is one of practical importance. It does not appear to exist as a normal condition in any mammal. Probably it is due to fusion of the ventral roots of the fourth aortic arches, with absorption of the left fourth arch and the left subclavian into the stem so formed, whilst the right subclavian is relatively displaced. The two common carotids may arise by a common stem, and the left subclavian arise separately from the arch of the aorta, whilst the right subclavian springs from the descending aorta. This arrangement probably results from the disappearance of the fourth right arch and the fusion of the ventral roots of the fourth arches of opposite sides.

Sometimes two innominate arteries, right and left, replace the three usual branches of the arch of the aorta. This is the normal arrangement in bats, moles, and hedgehogs. It is obviously the result of the disappearance of that portion of the arch which intervenes between the left carotid and left subclavian arteries, and the consequent fusion of these two vessels.

In a similar way may be explained the rarer condition in which the three ordinary branches of the arch arise by one single stem, which divides into right and left innominate arteries. In most ruminants, in the horse and in the tapir, this arrangement is constant.

It will be evident that other combinations and modifications may be met with in the branches of the arch of the aorta as the result of fusions and absorption.

The **bronchial arteries** obviously correspond to splanchnic segmental arteries and their continuations to diverticula from the walls of the gut, therefore the usual origin of the right bronchial artery from the first right aortic intercostal artery must result from the persistence of an anastomosis between a splanchnic segmental artery and the first part of a somatic segmental artery; the origin of the right from the upper left bronchial artery, which sometimes occurs, is due to the fusion of the roots of two splanchnic segmental arteries. The occasional origin of a bronchial vessel from an internal mammary artery can only result from the persistence and enlargement of an anastomosis between a splanchnic segmental artery and the ventral branch of a somatic segmental artery. The origin of a bronchial branch from a subclavian artery may have the same or a different significance on opposite sides of the body. A bronchial artery arising from the left subclavian artery corresponds with the origin of the right bronchial artery from the first aortic intercostal artery; it is due to the persistence of an anastomosis between a splanchnic segmental artery and the root of a somatic segmental artery, and the origin of a bronchial artery from a right subclavian artery may be due to a similar cause. It may, on the other hand, be due to the enlargement of an anastomosis between a splanchnic branch of the descending aorta and a splanchnic branch of the fourth right aortic arch. When, as occasionally happens, the bronchial artery arises from the inferior thyroid, it is due to the persistence and enlargement of an anastomosis between splanchnic arteries.

Intercostal Arteries.—Variations of the intercostal arteries are not very common, but they are significant and interesting. Corresponding vessels of opposite sides may arise from a common stem which has been formed by the fusion of the roots of two somatic segmental arteries after or simultaneously with the fusion of the primitive dorsal aortæ. The number of intercostal arteries may be reduced, one artery supplying two or more intercostal spaces; in these cases the roots of origin of some of the somatic segmental arteries in the dorsal region have disappeared, and the precostal anastomoses between their ventral branches have persisted.

Occasionally the number of the aortic intercostal arteries is increased, an additional artery being given to the second intercostal space, which is usually supplied by the superior intercostal artery; this is brought about by the persistence of the root of the tenth somatic segmental artery and the disappearance of the precostal anastomosis between the ventral branches of the ninth and tenth somatic segmental arteries. Very rarely the first aortic intercostal artery sends a branch upwards between the necks of the ribs and the transverse processes of the upper dorsal region; this branch supplies the upper intercostal spaces, the superior intercostal artery being small or absent, and it terminates by becoming the profunda cervicis artery. It is due to the persistence of the postcostal anastomoses in the upper dorsal region, and is a repetition of a condition regularly present in some carnivores.

There are no very important variations of the œsophageal, pericardial, and mediastinal arteries.

Lumbar Arteries.—Variations of the lumbar arteries are very similar to those of the intercostal arteries, and they are due to similar causes. The lumbar arteries of opposite sides may arise by common stems from the back of the aorta; and the last pair of lumbar arteries may arise in common with the middle sacral artery. Further, a lumbar artery may have its area of distribution increased to the adjacent segment.

The **inferior phrenic arteries** are very variable; they may arise by a common trunk either from the cœliac axis or from the aorta; they may arise separately either from the aorta or from the cœliac axis, and more commonly from the latter vessel; or again, one may spring from the aorta or cœliac axis, and the other from the coronary, renal, or even from the superior mesenteric artery.

The **middle sacral artery** usually springs from the back of the aorta above its bifurcation; it may be considerably above, or more rarely it may spring directly from the bifurcation. Not infrequently it arises from the last lumbar artery or from a stem common to the two last lumbar arteries, and occasionally it arises from a common or internal iliac artery. Sometimes it apparently gives off the last pair of lumbar arteries, and very occasionally an accessory, renal, or a hæmorrhoidal branch arises from it. The vessel is not always present, it may be double, entirely or in part, and it may bifurcate at its termination.

The **renal arteries** frequently deviate from the normal arrangement. The arteries of opposite sides may spring from a common stem, or there may be two or more renal arteries on one or both sides. The accessory arteries are more common on the left than on the right side, and an accessory artery rising below the ordinary vessel is more common than one rising above it.

Accessory renal arteries may be derived not only from the aorta, but also from the common or internal iliac arteries; they have also been described as arising from the inferior phrenic, spermatic, lumbar, or middle sacral arteries, and even from the external iliac artery. As the kidney is developed in the region of the first sacral vertebra, and afterwards ascends to its permanent position, it is not surprising that it occasionally receives arteries from the main stem of more than one of the segments of the body through which it has passed, and it is usually found that the lower the position of the kidney in the abdomen the more likely it is to receive its arteries from the lower part of the aorta or from the common iliac arteries. The accessory renal arteries which spring from the inferior phrenic, the spermatic, and lumbar arteries can only be the result of the persistence and enlargement of anastomosing channels between the renal and either another intermediate visceral, or a somatic artery.

The **spermatic or ovarian arteries** may be double on one or both sides; the arteries of opposite sides may spring from a common trunk, or they may rise from the renal or suprarenal arteries. The right artery may pass behind instead of in front of the inferior vena cava. The spermatic and ovarian arteries arise from the upper lumbar portion of the aorta, because the testicles and ovaries are developed in and obtain their arterial supply in that region, and the vessels are elongated as the testicles and ovaries descend to their permanent positions. The occurrence of two spermatic arteries on one side is probably an indication that the testicle was developed in at least two segments of the body, and the origin of a spermatic artery from a renal or suprarenal artery is due to the obliteration of the root of the original vessel and the enlargement of an anastomosis between the intermediate visceral arteries of adjacent segments.

The **cœliac axis** may be absent, its branches arising separately from the aorta or from some other source. Sometimes it gives off only two branches, usually the coronary and splenic, and occasionally it gives four branches, the additional branch being either a second coronary artery or a separate gastro-duodenal artery.

The **hepatic artery** may spring directly from the aorta or from the superior mesenteric artery, and the left hepatic artery occasionally arises from the coronary artery. Accessory hepatic arteries are not uncommon, and they originate either from the coronary, superior mesenteric, renal, or inferior mesenteric artery.

The **coronary artery** is occasionally double; it may spring directly from the aorta, and it may give off the left hepatic or an accessory hepatic artery.

The **splenic artery** may arise from the middle colic, from the left hepatic, or from the inferior mesenteric artery.

The **superior mesenteric artery** may be double, and it may supply the whole of the alimentary canal from the second part of the duodenum to the end of the rectum, the inferior mesenteric artery being absent. In addition to its ordinary branches it may give off a hepatic, a splenic, a pancreatic, a gastric, a gastro-epiploic or a gastro-duodenal branch. Very rarely it gives off an omphalo-mesenteric branch, which passes to the region of the umbilicus and becomes connected with capillary vessels in the falciform ligament of the liver.

The **inferior mesenteric artery** may give hepatic, renal, or middle colic branches; occasionally it is absent, being replaced by branches of the superior mesenteric, and sometimes, as in ruminants and some rodents, its left colic branch does not anastomose with the middle colic artery.

All these variations of the unpaired visceral branches of the abdominal aorta are merely due to modifications of the usual processes by which these vessels are developed.

The origin of the branches which usually rise from the cœliac axis, from the trunk of the aorta is the result of the retention of a greater number of the splanchnic segmental arteries than usual. A double superior mesenteric artery results from the persistence of both the right

and left splanchnic vessels from which the superior mesenteric artery is formed, these remaining separate instead of fusing together. All the other variations are the results of the obliteration of the usual channels, combined with the enlargement of anastomoses which exist both between the splanchnic arteries of adjacent segments and the splanchnic and intermediate visceral arteries.

The Arteries of the Head and Neck.

Innominate Artery.—From what has already been said with reference to the branches of the arch of the aorta, it will be seen that the innominate artery may be absent. On the other hand there may be two innominate arteries, a right and a left, each ending in corresponding common carotid and subclavian trunks, and the two vessels may themselves arise by a common stem.

The branches given off by the innominate artery may be increased in number, or the innominate may only vary from the normal as regards length. As a consequence of such modifications in length, the origins of the right common carotid and right subclavian arteries may be situated at a higher or lower level than usual, whilst, in the absence of the innominate artery, both these branches may arise directly from the aorta.

Common Carotid Arteries.—When the right common carotid artery arises separately from the arch of the aorta, it may be the first, or much more rarely the second branch. In the former case the fourth right aortic arch has been obliterated, and the right subclavian artery springs from the descending aorta; in the latter case either the innominate stem has been absorbed into the arch of the aorta, or the ventral root of the fourth right aortic arch has fused with part of an elongated fourth left arch.

Whether arising as the first or second branch, the origin may be to the left of the mesial plane, and the trunk may pass in front of the trachea, or behind the œsophagus, before it ascends in the neck.

The left common carotid artery varies as regards its origin much more frequently than the right vessel; not uncommonly, and apparently because of the fusion of the ventral roots of the fourth aortic arches, it arises from a stem common to it and to the right common carotid and right subclavian arteries.

Both common carotids may vary as regards their termination. They may divide at a higher or lower level than usual, the former more commonly than the latter; whilst in a few exceptional cases the common carotid does not divide, but is continued directly into the internal carotid, and from this the branches usually given off by the external carotid are derived.

This arrangement is probably due to obliteration of the ventral roots of the first and second aortic arches, the arches persisting and being divided into the branches which generally arise from their ventral extremities.

Usually the common carotids give off no branches, but not infrequently one or more of the branches of the external carotids arise from them.

The **external carotid artery** may be absent, or it may, in rare cases, arise directly from the arch of the aorta. The number of its branches may be diminished either by fusion of their roots or by transference to the internal or common carotid arteries. On the other hand, the number of its branches may be increased; thus the sterno-mastoid artery, the hyoid branch usually given off by the superior thyroid artery, or the ascending palatine branch of the facial, may arise from it. Sometimes the branches may arise in the usual way, but may deviate from the course generally taken; more particularly is this the case with the internal maxillary artery, which may pass either between the heads or entirely external or internal to both heads of the external pterygoid muscle.

The **internal carotid artery** is rarely absent. Occasionally it springs from the arch of the aorta, and in its course through the neck it may vary somewhat in length and in tortuosity. One or more of the branches usually derived from the external carotid artery may arise from it, and it sometimes gives off a large meningeal branch to the posterior fossa of the skull. Its posterior communicating branch may replace the posterior cerebral artery; on the other hand, the upper part of the internal carotid may be absent, and the posterior communicating artery may become the middle cerebral artery. The anterior cerebral branch of the internal carotid may be absent, or rather it may arise from the corresponding artery of the opposite side; or there may be three anterior cerebral arteries, the third arising from the anterior communicating artery which connects the two anterior cerebrals together. The ophthalmic artery, as it traverses the orbit, may pass either over or under the optic nerve. It is occasionally replaced by a branch of the middle meningeal artery.

The **vertebral artery** may have a double origin—one from the subclavian, and one from the inferior thyroid artery or from the aorta.

The right vertebral may arise from the common carotid or from the arch of the aorta. Occasionally it springs from the descending aorta, an arrangement associated with the persistence of the dorsal roots of the fourth and fifth right arches.

The left vertebral artery not infrequently springs from the arch of the aorta, arising between the left common carotid and left subclavian arteries; this is evidently due to the absorption of the stem of the seventh segmental artery into the aortic arch. Very exceptionally the left vertebral is a branch of an intercostal artery.

In its course upwards either vertebral artery may enter the vertebrarterial foramen of any of the lower six cervical vertebræ.

The cases in which it does not enter one of the lowest of these are apparently associated with its formation in part from the precostal instead of from the postcostal anastomosing channels.

The artery may enter the spinal canal with the second instead of with the first cervical nerve, or, after leaving the foramen in the transverse process of the third vertebra, it may divide into two branches, one of which accompanies the second and the other the first cervical nerve; the two branches unite together again in the spinal canal to form a single trunk.

Sometimes, though rarely, it gives off superior intercostal and inferior thyroid branches. The upper end of one of the vertebrals is sometimes very small, or it may be entirely wanting; in the latter case the basilar artery is formed by the direct continuation of the opposite vertebral.

The **basilar artery** may be double in part or the whole of its extent, or its cavity may be divided by a more or less complete septum. It may terminate in one instead of two posterior cerebral arteries, the missing vessel being supplied by the enlargement of the posterior communicating branch of the internal carotid.

The Arteries of the Upper Limb.

Subclavian Arteries.—The variations, so far as regards the origins of the subclavian arteries, have already been mentioned (p. 947). Other interesting modifications are met with in respect of its position and branches.

The subclavian artery may reach as high as one or even one-and-a-half inches above the clavicle, though as a rule it does not reach higher than three-quarters of an inch above that bone. On the other hand, it may not rise even to the level of the upper border of the clavicle. These differences appear to be associated with the descent of the clavicle and sternum, which occurs as age increases.

The artery may pass in front of or through the scalenus anticus instead of behind it, or the vein may accompany it behind the muscle.

The branches of the subclavian artery may be modified with reference to their points of origin; thus those of the first part may be further in or out than usual, the suprascapular or some other branch of the thyroid axis may arise separately from the third part of the artery, and not uncommonly the posterior scapular artery is a branch of this part. The abnormalities of the vertebral branch have already been described; those of the thyroid axis and its branches are numerous but not important.

The **internal mammary artery**, usually a branch of the first part of the subclavian, is very variable as regards its origin. It may arise from the second or third parts, or from the thyroid axis, or it may spring from the aorta, or from the innominate or axillary arteries. All these variations are due to obliteration of the normal origin and the opening up of anastomoses. The internal mammary artery sometimes descends in front of the cartilages of one or more of the lower true ribs, and occasionally it gives off a large lateral branch (a. mammaria lateralis) which descends on the inner side of the chest wall nearly in the mid-axillary line, a point of importance in paracentesis.

A few cases have also been noticed in which a bronchial artery has arisen from the internal mammary.

The **superior intercostal branch** of the subclavian may be absent. In any case its deep cervical branch may rise directly from the subclavian trunk. The superior intercostal is sometimes formed from a postcostal instead of a precostal primitive channel, and in this case it passes between the necks of the ribs and the transverse processes of the vertebræ instead of, as usual, in front of the necks of the ribs.

The **axillary artery** does not vary much as regards its origin or course. Its relations may be modified by the existence of a muscular or tendinous "axillary arch," which, passing from the latissimus dorsi to the pectoralis major, crosses the lower part of the artery superficially; and a further interesting modification is associated with an anomalous arrangement of its branches. Occasionally the sub-scapular, circumflex, and superior and inferior profunda arteries arise from the axillary by a common stem. In these cases the chief branches of the brachial plexus are grouped round the common stem instead of round the main trunk, and it is suggested that the common stem in question was originally the trunk artery of the upper limb, the lower part of which has been obliterated, the circulation being carried on by a vas aberrans which anastomoses below either with the brachial artery or with one of the arteries of the forearm. It is also said that a rudiment of this artery exists in a muscular branch which passes between the heads of the median nerve.

Sometimes the axillary artery divides into the radial and ulnar arteries, and more rarely the interosseous artery may spring from it.

Obviously when the radial and ulnar arteries are formed by the division of the axillary, there is no brachial artery; its place is taken by the two abnormal vessels which, as a rule, are separated by the median nerve as they run through the upper arm; the radial is usually more superficial than the ulnar, and crosses outwards in front of it at the bend of the elbow.

The **brachial artery** is rarely prolonged beyond its usual point of bifurcation, not uncommonly, however, it bifurcates at a higher level. Of the two terminal branches of the brachial, one may divide into radial and interosseous, the other forming the ulnar; or one may divide into radial and ulnar, whilst the other is the interosseous artery. Occasionally the brachial artery terminates by dividing into three branches—viz. the radial, the ulnar, and the interosseous. In any case, the branch which gives origin to or becomes the interosseous was in all probability the original trunk.

Division of the brachial artery at a higher level than usual occurs most commonly in the upper third of the arm, and least commonly in the lower third; the resulting trunks are often united near the bend of the elbow by a more or less oblique anastomosis.

In cases of high division of the brachial artery the radial branch may pierce the deep fascia of the arm near the bend of the elbow, and descend in the forearm immediately beneath the skin; in other cases the radial runs deeper, and passes behind the tendon of the biceps. The ulnar branch sometimes runs, on the internal intermuscular septum, towards the inner condyle, and then outwards towards the middle of the bend of the elbow under a band of fascia, from which the upper fibres of the pronator teres arise, or round the supracondylar process of the humerus if it is present. More commonly the ulnar branch descends towards the inner condyle, and crosses superficial to the flexor muscles or beneath the palmaris longus; and in a few cases it is subcutaneous. Very occasionally the ulnar artery accompanies the ulnar nerve behind the inner condyle; in these cases it has obviously been formed by enlargement of the ordinary inferior profunda and posterior ulnar recurrent arteries.

Instead of following its usual course along the brachialis anticus, the brachial artery may accompany the median nerve behind a supracondylar or epicondylic process, or ligament, as in many carnivores; it may pass in front of the median nerve instead of behind it. It may give off a "vas aberrans" or a median artery, and any of its ordinary branches may be absent.

The vas aberrans given off from the brachial artery usually ends in the radial artery, sometimes in the radial recurrent, and rarely in the ulnar artery.

The **ulnar artery** may be absent, being replaced by the "comes nervi mediani" or the interosseous artery, and it may terminate in the deep instead of in the superficial palmar arch. It rarely rises at a lower level than usual, and when it rises at a higher level it most commonly passes superficial to the muscles which spring from the internal epicondyle. Moreover, in these cases it frequently has no interosseous branch, the latter vessel springing from the radial artery, and in all probability variations of this description are produced by the ulnar artery taking origin from the main trunk, which is represented by the radio-interosseous vessel, at a higher level than usual. Even when it commences in the usual way the ulnar artery may pass superficial to the muscles from the internal epicondyle, and in these cases its interosseous and recurrent branches spring from the radial artery.

The anterior and posterior interosseous arteries may arise separately from the ulnar instead of by a common interosseous trunk. The recurrent branches of the ulnar may spring from the interosseous, and the interosseous itself may be a branch of the radial.

The small median artery, the companion artery of the median nerve, usually a branch of the anterior interosseous, may spring from the axillary, brachial, or ulnar arteries; it may be much larger than usual, and terminate either by breaking up into digital branches, or by joining one or more digital branches of the superficial palmar arch or the palmar arch itself.

The **radial artery** may be absent, its place being taken by branches of the ulnar or interosseous arteries; it may arise from the axillary, or, higher than usual, from the brachial. It may terminate in muscular branches in the front of the forearm, or in the superficialis volæ, or in carpal branches; the lower portion of the artery, in these cases, is usually replaced by branches of the ulnar or interosseous arteries. Occasionally the radial divides some distance above the wrist into two terminal branches, one of which gives off the carpal branches, and becomes the superficialis volæ, whilst the other crosses superficial to the extensor tendons and passes to the back of the wrist.

The radial artery may run a superficial course, or, and especially when it commences at a lower level than usual, it may pass beneath the pronator radii teres and the radial origin of the flexor sublimis digitorum. In some cases it passes to the back of the wrist across the supinator longus, and in others it lies upon, instead of beneath, the extensor tendons of the thumb.

Its branches may be diminished or increased in number. The radial recurrent may spring from the brachial or ulnar arteries, or may be represented by several branches from the upper part of the radial. The dorsalis indicis may be large, and may replace the princeps pollicis and the radialis indicis. On the contrary, the dorsal carpal artery and dorsal digital branches of the radial may be small, or the former may be replaced by branches of the interosseous arteries, and the latter by the superior perforating branches of the deep palmar arch.

The **princeps pollicis** and **radialis indicis** arteries may be absent, their places being taken either by branches of the superficial palmar arch or by the dorsalis indicis artery.

The **superficial palmar arch** is sometimes absent; its branches are then given off from the deep arch. Conversely, it may be larger than normal, and it may be completed on the ulnar side by the radialis indicis, the princeps pollicis, or the comes nervi mediani arteries.

The **deep palmar arch** is much more rarely absent than the superficial arch. When absent its branches are supplied by the superficial arch, the superior perforating arteries, or the palmar carpal arch.

The Iliac Arteries and their Branches.

The **common iliac artery** may be longer or shorter than usual, a modification which is largely though not altogether determined by the point at which the bifurcation of the aorta takes place. If exceptionally long, it is usually tortuous. In rare cases in man the artery is absent. It occasionally gives off the middle or a lateral sacral artery, and ilio-lumbar, spermatic, or accessory renal branches may arise from it.

The **internal iliac artery** varies as regards length. It is usually longer, and rises at a *higher* level when the common iliac is short. In rare cases it has been found to arise from the

aorta without the intervention of a common iliac. Frequently it does not, even in appearance, end in anterior and posterior divisions, but obviously forms a single trunk, as in the fœtus, from which the several branches are given off.

The visceral branches vary much in number and size, and the middle hæmorrhoidal may not be present, its place being taken by branches from the vesical arteries. A renal branch sometimes arises from the internal iliac.

The ilio-lumbar branch may rise from the common instead of from the internal iliac; the gluteal and sciatic may rise by a common stem, or the gluteal may be absent, and its place taken by a branch from the femoral artery; the sciatic artery may, as in the fœtus, constitute the main artery of the hind limb, and run down to become continuous with the popliteal artery. Probably the "comes nervi ischiadici" represents the original continuity of these two vessels. Occasionally the lateral sacral arteries do not arise from the internal iliac trunks.

In some few instances the **obturator artery** arises from the deep epigastric artery instead of from the internal iliac. The condition is apparently due to obliteration of the usual origin of the obturator artery and to the subsequent enlargement of the anastomosing pubic branches of the obturator and deep epigastric arteries. The course of the abnormal obturator artery is of importance. From its origin it descends into the pelvis on the inner side of the external iliac vein, and in the majority of cases on the outer side of the crural ring, but in three-tenths of the cases, and more frequently in males than in females, it descends on the inner side of the ring.

The obturator artery sometimes gives off an accessory pudic branch which passes along the side of the prostate, pierces the triangular ligament, and terminates by dividing into the artery of the corpus cavernosum and the dorsal artery of the penis. When this occurs the pudic artery is small, and it terminates in the artery to the bulb. Occasionally the accessory pudic arises from the pudic artery in the pelvis, or from one of the vesical arteries.

The **external iliac artery** may be much smaller than usual, especially if the sciatic artery persists as the main vessel of the lower limb. It may give off two deep circumflex iliac branches, a dorsal artery of the penis, an internal circumflex artery of the thigh, or a vas aberrans, and its deep circumflex iliac and deep epigastric branches may arise at higher or lower levels than usual.

The Arteries of the Lower Limb.

The **femoral artery** is small, and ends in the profunda and circumflex branches, when the sciatic artery forms the principal vessel of the lower limb. The profunda branch, which usually arises from the outer side of the femoral trunk, about one-and-a-half inches below Poupart's ligament, may commence at a higher or a lower level, and from the back or the inner side of the femoral trunk. Absence of the profunda has been noted, and in these cases the branches usually given off by it spring directly from the femoral artery.

The femoral artery may be double for a portion of its extent, or it may be joined by a vas aberrans given off from the external iliac artery. In addition to its ordinary branches, it may furnish one or both of the circumflex arteries of the thigh, and sometimes it gives off, near the origin of the profunda, a great saphenous artery, such as exists normally in many mammals. This vessel descends through Scarpa's triangle and Hunter's canal, and accompanies the internal saphenous nerve to the inner side of the foot.

The deep circumflex iliac, the obturator, and the deep epigastric arteries are occasionally given off from the femoral.

The **popliteal artery** may exceptionally form the direct continuation of the sciatic artery. It sometimes divides at a higher or lower level than usual, and the division may be into either two or three branches; if three terminal branches are present, they are the anterior and posterior tibial and the peroneal arteries, and if only two, either the anterior and posterior tibial, or the anterior tibial and the peroneal arteries.

Occasionally the artery is double for a short portion of its course, and it has been found to cross first behind the inner head of the gastrocnemius to the inner side of the knee, and then in front of the inner head of the gastrocnemius to regain the popliteal space. The number of its branches may be reduced, or they may be increased by the addition of a vas aberrans which connects it with the posterior tibial artery. Its superficial sural branch may enlarge to form a well-marked small saphenous artery.

The **posterior tibial artery** may be small or altogether absent, its place being taken by branches of the peroneal artery; again, it may be longer or shorter than usual, in conformity with the higher or lower division of the popliteal trunk. The peroneal artery is large if either the anterior or posterior tibial arteries are small. The anterior terminal branch of the peroneal is almost invariably large when the anterior tibial artery is small; in some cases, indeed, it replaces the whole of the dorsalis pedis continuation of the latter vessel; in others, however, only the tarsal and metatarsal branches are so replaced. The peroneal sometimes arises from a stem common to it and the anterior tibial artery.

The **anterior tibial artery** may be absent, its place being taken by branches of the posterior tibial and peroneal arteries. It is longer than normal when the popliteal artery divides at a higher level than usual, and in these cases it may pass either behind or in front of the popliteus muscle. Occasionally the anterior tibial artery and its dorsalis pedis continuation are larger than normal, and the terminal part of the dorsalis pedis takes the place, more or less completely, of the external plantar artery.

The **internal plantar artery** is sometimes very small, and it may be absent; its place is

taken by branches of the dorsalis pedis or external plantar arteries. **The external plantar artery** also may be small or absent, the plantar arch being formed entirely by the dorsalis pedis.

ABNORMALITIES OF VEINS.

Abnormalities or variations of veins are as frequently met with as those of arteries, and they are due to similar causes.

The Superior Vena Cava.

The **superior vena cava** may develop on the left side instead of the right. This peculiarity is due to the persistence of the left duct of Cuvier instead of that on the right side, and it is associated with absence of the coronary sinus, which is replaced by the lower part of the left superior vena cava. An exceptional case is recorded in which the opening of the coronary sinus into the heart was obliterated, and the cardiac veins terminated in a trunk which passed upwards to the left innominate vein. This trunk was obviously formed by enlargement of the left duct of Cuvier and the lower part of the left primitive jugular vein. Not very uncommonly, as the result of the persistence of both ducts of Cuvier, there are two superior venæ cavæ, the transverse anastomosis which usually forms the left innominate vein being small or entirely absent. In these cases the left innominate vein descends in the left part of the superior mediastinum, crosses the aortic arch, is joined by the left superior intercostal vein, and becomes the left superior vena cava; this latter vessel descends in front of the root of the left lung, and terminates in the lower and back part of the right auricle. It receives the great cardiac vein, and, turning to the back of the heart, replaces the coronary sinus. This arrangement is normal in many mammals. Occasionally in man the left superior vena cava terminates in the left auricle, and the coronary sinus, which represents a part of the sinus venosus, has been seen to have a similar ending; both these abnormal endings must be the result of malposition of the interauricular septum.

The vena azygos major may be formed on the left side; it then arches over the root of the left lung, and terminates in the left end of the coronary sinus. This is the normal arrangement in some mammals, and it is due to the persistence of the left cardinal vein and the left duct of Cuvier.

The **azygos veins** may be reduced or increased in number. In the former case there may be only one azygos vein which receives the intercostal veins of both sides, or there may be two azygos veins, a right and a left, the left usually being divided into upper and lower sections which are connected by a smaller intermediate portion, and united to the right vein by one or more transverse anastomoses, or it may terminate by joining either the left innominate vein or the left superior vena cava. The small intermediate section on the left side may form a separate vessel, and then the number of the azygos veins is increased to four, each of the three left veins terminating in the right vein. When there is only one azygos vein the portion of the left cardinal vein, from which, usually, the vertical portions of the left azygos veins are formed, has disappeared, and the left intercostal veins open into the right azygos vein by separate transverse anastomoses, as in the case of the left lumbar veins and the inferior vena cava. On the other hand, when there is only one left azygos vein the intermediate sections of the thoracic part of the left cardinal vein and one or more of the transverse anastomoses have persisted, whilst, when the left azygos terminates in the left innominate vein, the transverse anastomoses have disappeared and the lower part of the left primitive jugular vein has remained patent.

Occasionally the vena azygos major takes the place of the upper part of the inferior vena cava, and the whole of the left cardinal vein is enlarged; in these cases the upper portion of the normal inferior vena cava is absent or exceptionally small.

The **internal jugular vein** is sometimes smaller or larger than normal. In either case compensatory changes in size occur in the lateral sinus and internal jugular vein of the opposite side, or in the external and anterior jugular veins of the same side.

The **external jugular vein** is sometimes absent, or it may be smaller than usual; in both cases either the anterior or internal jugular veins are enlarged. In some of the cases in which the external jugular vein is small it receives no communication from the temporo-maxillary vein, but is merely the continuation of the posterior auricular vein. On the other hand, it may be enlarged, and receive the whole of the temporo-maxillary vein.

The **anterior jugular vein** may be absent, or it may be unusually large, especially in the lower part of its extent, and after it has received an occasional tributary from the common facial vein.

The **temporo-maxillary vein** may terminate entirely in the common facial vein, or in the external or the internal jugular vein. It may be very small, and occasionally it is absent.

Variations of the **cranial blood sinuses** are not numerous. One lateral sinus may be absent or very small when, as a rule, that of the opposite side is enlarged. The inferior longitudinal, the occipital, or the spheno-parietal sinuses may be absent, and there may be an additional petro-squamous tributary to the lateral sinus. The petro-squamous sinus, when present, is the remains of that portion of the primitive lateral sinus which crossed the temporal bone, passed through the post-condyloid foramen and terminated in the primitive jugular vein. Very occasionally in the human adult it still pierces the skull behind the condyle of the jaw, and terminates *in the* temporo-maxillary vein, and this is the normal arrangement in some mammals.

The Veins of the Upper Extremity.

The **superficial veins** of the forearm are extremely variable; any of them may be absent, but most commonly it is the median or the radial vein which is wanting. The median cephalic and the cephalic veins may be small or absent, and on the other hand the cephalic vein may be larger than usual. Moreover the cephalic vein may end in the external jugular vein, its original termination; or it may be connected with the external jugular vein by an anastomosing channel which sometimes passes over the clavicle and sometimes through that bone.

The basilic vein is sometimes larger and sometimes smaller than usual, and it may pierce the fascia of the arm at a higher or at a lower level than is customary.

The **venæ comites** of the arteries of the upper extremity generally terminate at the lower border of the subscapularis, where they join the axillary vein, but they may end above or below the position of their usual termination.

The **subclavian vein** sometimes passes behind instead of in front of the scalenus anticus muscle, and it has been seen passing between the clavicle and the subclavius muscle.

The Inferior Vena Cava.

The lower part of the inferior vena cava is sometimes absent, in which case the common iliac veins ascend, one on the right and the other on the left of the aorta, to the level of the second lumbar vertebra, where the left common iliac vein receives the left renal vein, and then crosses in front of or behind the aorta to fuse with the right corresponding vein; in these cases, therefore, the inferior vena cava commences at the level of the second lumbar vertebra, and it represents only the upper and last-formed part of the ordinary vessel; the common iliac veins, each of which receives the lumbar veins of its own side, are exceptionally long, and they may or may not be united at the pelvic brim by a small transverse anastomosing channel.

Occasionally the inferior vena cava does not terminate in the right auricle, but is continuous with the vena azygos major, which is much enlarged, all the inferior caval blood being then carried to the superior vena cava. In these cases the hepatic veins open directly into the right auricle without communicating with the inferior vena cava.

The lower part of the inferior vena cava sometimes lies to the left instead of to the right of the aorta; this condition is associated with a long right common iliac vein, which crosses obliquely from right to left to join the shorter left common iliac vein. After receiving the left renal vein the misplaced inferior vena cava crosses in front of the aorta, reaching the right side at the level of the second or first lumbar vertebra. In other cases, however, the left inferior vena cava continues upwards through the left crus of the diaphragm, usurping the place of a greater or smaller part of the left azygos vein; having entered the thorax, it may cross to the opposite side and terminate in the vena azygos major, or it may continue upwards on the same side, and after arching over the root of the left lung, descend behind the left auricle, to terminate in the right auricle in the situation of the coronary sinus. In this group of cases also the hepatic veins open separately into the right auricle.

The tributaries of the inferior vena cava are also subject to variation. Additional renal, spermatic, ovarian, or suprarenal veins may be present. Two or three lumbar veins of one or both sides may unite into a common trunk which terminates in the inferior vena cava, and the hepatic veins may open separately, or after fusing into a common trunk, into the right auricle near the opening of the inferior vena cava.

No explanation of the variations of the inferior vena cava and its tributaries is necessary, beyond the statement that they are due to persistence of portions of the cardinal veins which usually disappear, and to the persistence of transverse anastomoses and tributaries which usually atrophy, or to modifications of those which ordinarily take part in the formation of the inferior vena caval system.

The **left common iliac vein** is short and the right long when the inferior vena cava lies on the left side. The common iliac veins may be absent, the internal iliac veins uniting to form the commencement of the inferior vena cava, into which the external iliac veins open as lateral tributaries.

The Veins of the Lower Extremity.

The **long saphenous vein** is not subject to much variation, but the **short saphenous vein** may terminate by joining the long saphenous, or, after piercing the deep fascia in the lower part of the thigh, it may ascend and join the sciatic vein or one of the tributaries of the profunda vein.

The **venæ comites** are generally described as terminating in the lower extremity, at the lower part of the popliteal space, but they may ascend as far as Scarpa's triangle; as a matter of fact, although as a rule there is only one large popliteal and one large femoral vein, one or more small additional veins usually accompany the popliteal and femoral arteries.

In a few cases the popliteal vein does not pierce the lower part of the abductor magnus, but ascends behind that muscle and becomes continuous with the profunda vein, the femoral artery being unaccompanied by any large vein during its passage through Hunter's canal.

ABNORMALITIES OF THE LYMPHATICS.

Variations of the glands and smaller vessels of the lymphatic system are so common that they can hardly be regarded as abnormalities; variations of the larger vessels, however, are

comparatively rare. This is especially the case with respect to the two terminal trunks, the thoracic duct and the right lymphatic duct, the abnormalities of which are interesting and important.

When the arch of the aorta is on the right instead of on the left side, the thoracic duct usually terminates in the right innominate vein, in which case it receives the tributaries which usually open into the right lymphatic duct, whilst the corresponding area on the left side is drained by lymphatics terminating in a left lymphatic duct which opens into the commencement of the left innominate vein. A similar arrangement of the terminal lymphatic trunks sometimes occurs even when the arch of the aorta is in its normal position on the left side. In either case the thoracic duct may commence in the usual way, and after reaching the level of the fifth dorsal vertebra continue upwards on the right side, instead of crossing to the left side, of the vertebral column; more rarely it commences on the left side and crosses over to the right at a higher level.

In one case in which the thoracic duct opened into the right innominate vein, instead of the left, no trace of a lymphatic duct was discovered on the left side.

Occasionally the thoracic duct commences and terminates in the usual manner, but crosses the vertebral column immediately after its origin and ascends on the left side.

Not uncommonly there is no distinct receptaculum chyli, in which case the terminal lymphatic vessels of the abdomen merely unite to form a larger vessel which does not present any obvious dilatation, and from which the thoracic duct is continued. The terminal lymphatic trunk may open into the internal jugular vein previous to its junction with the subclavian, instead of into the commencement of the innominate vein.

Occasionally the thoracic duct is double, either on the whole or in part of its extent, and sometimes it breaks up into a plexus of vessels which may reunite into a single trunk in the upper part of the thorax. Both the thoracic duct and the right lymphatic duct may before terminating divide into branches which, though sometimes reuniting on each side into a single trunk, not infrequently open separately into the great veins at the root of the neck.

As a rule the thoracic duct joins the commencement of the left innominate vein, but it may end in the internal jugular, vertebral, or subclavian veins of the left side; whilst very rarely, it opens into the vena azygos major.

THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

THE ORGANS OF RESPIRATION AND VOICE

By D. J. CUNNINGHAM.

THE organs of respiration are the larynx and trachea, which together constitute a median air-passage; the two bronchi or branches into which the lower end of the trachea divides; and the two lungs to which the bronchi conduct the air. In connexion with the lungs we have likewise to consider the pleural membranes—two serous sacs which line the portions of the thoracic cavity which contain the lungs, and at the same time give a thin coating to these organs.

The larynx opens above into the lower part of the pharynx, and the air which passes in and out from the air-passages likewise traverses the pharynx, the nasal fossæ, and also the buccal cavity if the mouth is open. This connexion between the digestive and respiratory systems is explained by the fact that the respiratory apparatus is secondarily developed as an outgrowth from the front aspect of the primitive fore-gut of the embryo. In most mammals the upper aperture of the larynx opens into the part of the pharynx which lies behind the nasal chambers. In man, however, the upper opening of the larynx is placed lower down, below the communication between the mouth and pharynx, and both nasal and buccal breathing may be carried on with very nearly equal ease.

THE LARYNX OR ORGAN OF VOICE.

The larynx is the upper part of the air-passage, specially modified for the production of the voice. Above, it opens into the pharynx, whilst below, its cavity becomes continuous with the lumen of the trachea or windpipe.

Position and Relations of the Larynx.—In the natural position of the neck, and whilst the organ is at rest, the larynx is placed in front of the bodies of the fourth, fifth, and sixth cervical vertebræ. Its highest point, represented by the tip of the epiglottis, reaches as high as the lower border of the body of the third cervical vertebra, whilst its lower limit, or the lower border of the cricoid cartilage usually corresponds to the lower border of the body of the sixth cervical vertebra. From the vertebral column the larynx is separated, not only by the prevertebral muscles and prevertebral layer of cervical fascia, but also by the posterior wall of the pharynx—indeed the posterior surface of the larynx forms the lower part of the anterior wall of the pharynx, and is covered by the lining mucous membrane of that section of the alimentary canal.

The larynx lies below the hyoid bone and the tongue, and in the interval between the great vessels of the neck. It forms a more or less marked projection in the front of the neck, and in the median line it approaches very close to the surface, being merely covered by skin and the two layers of fascia. Laterally it is more deeply placed. Thus it is overlapped by the sterno-mastoid muscle, covered by the two strata of thin ribbon-like muscles which are attached to the thyroid cartilage and the hyoid bone, and hidden to some extent by the upward prolongations of the lateral lobes of the thyroid body.

The position of the larnyx is influenced by movements of the head and neck. Thus it is elevated when the head is thrown back, and depressed when the chin is carried

downwards towards the chest. Again, if the finger is placed upon it during deglutition, it will be seen that the larynx moves to a very considerable extent. The pharyngeal muscles attached to it, and more especially the stylo-pharyngeal muscles, are chiefly responsible for bringing about these movements. During singing, changes in the position of the larynx may also be noted, a high note being accompanied by a slight elevation, and a low note by a slight depression of the organ.

The position of the larynx is not the same at all periods of development and growth. In the fœtus, shortly before birth, it lies much higher up in the neck. Thus its lower border corresponds to the lower border of the fourth cervical vertebra. Its permanent position is not reached until the period of puberty is attained (Symington). This descent of the larynx has been stated to be due to the rapid and striking growth of the facial part of the skull which lies above it (Symington). It is very doubtful, however, if the facial growth has any influence in this direction. In the anthropoid ape, in which the face forms a much greater part of the skull than in man, and in which, in the transition from the infantile to the adult condition, the facial growth is even more striking than it is in man, the larynx occupies a relatively higher position in the neck. In the early stages of growth all the thoracic viscera undergo a gradual subsidence. The larynx in its descent follows these. Indeed it cannot do otherwise, seeing that the bifurcation of the trachea between infancy and puberty moves downwards more than the depth of one thoracic vertebra.

General Construction of the Larynx.—The wall of the larynx is constructed upon a somewhat complicated plan. There is a frame-work composed of several cartilages. These are connected together at certain points by distinct joints and also by elastic membranes. Two elastic cords, which stretch in an antero-posterior direction from the front to the back wall of the larynx, form the ground-work of the true vocal cords. Numerous muscles are likewise present. These operate upon the cartilages of the larynx, and thereby not only bring about changes in the relative position of the true vocal cords, but also produce different degrees of tension of these cords. The cavity of the larynx is lined with mucous membrane, under which, in certain localities, are collected masses of mucous glands.

CARTILAGES OF THE LARYNX.

There are three single cartilages and three pairs of cartilages entering into the construction of the laryngeal wall. They are named as follows:—

Single cartilages	Thyroid. Cricoid. Epiglottis.	Paired cartilages	Arytenoid. Cornicula laryngis, or the cartilages of Santorini. Cuneiform cartilages.

Thyroid Cartilage (cartilago thyreoidea).—The thyroid cartilage, the largest of the laryngeal cartilages, is formed of two quadrilateral plates termed the **alæ**, which meet in front at an angle, and become fused along the mesial plane. Behind, the alæ diverge from each other, and enclose a wide angular space which is open behind. The *anterior borders* of the alæ are only fused in their lower parts. Above they are separated by a deep, narrow V-shaped median notch, called the **incisura thyroidea**. In the adult male the angle formed by the meeting of the anterior borders of the two alæ, especially in its upper part, is very projecting, and with the margins of the thyroid notch, which lies above, constitutes a marked subcutaneous prominence in the neck, which receives the name of the **pomum Adami**.

The angle which is formed by the meeting of the two alæ of the thyroid cartilage varies to some extent in different individuals of the same sex, and shows marked differences in the two sexes and at different periods of life. In the adult male the average angle is said to be 90°; in the adult female it is 120°; whilst in the infant the alæ meet in the form of a gentle curve convex to the front.

The *posterior border* of each ala of the thyroid cartilage is thick and rounded, and is prolonged beyond the superior and inferior borders in the form of two slender cylindrical processes, termed cornua. The **superior cornu** is longer than the inferior cornu. It is directed upwards, with a slight inclination inwards and backwards, and it ends in a rounded extremity, which is joined to the tip of the great cornu of

bone by the lateral thyro-hyoid ligament. The **inferior cornu** is shorter
er than the superior cornu. As it proceeds downwards it curves slightly
and upon the inner face of
nity it shows a circular flat
means of which it articulates
imilar facet on the lateral
the cricoid cartilage. The
border of the ala is for the
t slightly convex, and in
ips suddenly down to become
is with the margin of the
notch. Posteriorly, where it
superior cornu, it exhibits
notch or concavity. The
border is to all intents and
horizontal, but it is marked
rojection, termed the **inferior**
into a short posterior part,
ows a shallow concavity in
the inferior cornu, and a
rt which lies in front of the
which is also concave, but to
gree. The *external surface*
is divided into two unequal
an **oblique line** or ridge.
begins above at the **superior**
a prominence situated im-
below the superior border, and a short distance in front of the root of
ior cornu. From this the oblique line proceeds downwards and forwards,
feriorly in the inferior tubercle on the lower border of the ala. The area
s behind the oblique line is much smaller than that which lies in front.
It is covered by the inferior constrictor muscle of the pharynx. The larger anterior area is for the most part covered by the thyro-hyoid muscle. To the oblique line are attached the sterno-thyroid and thyro-hyoid muscles. The *inner surface* of the ala of the thyroid cartilage is smooth and slightly concave.

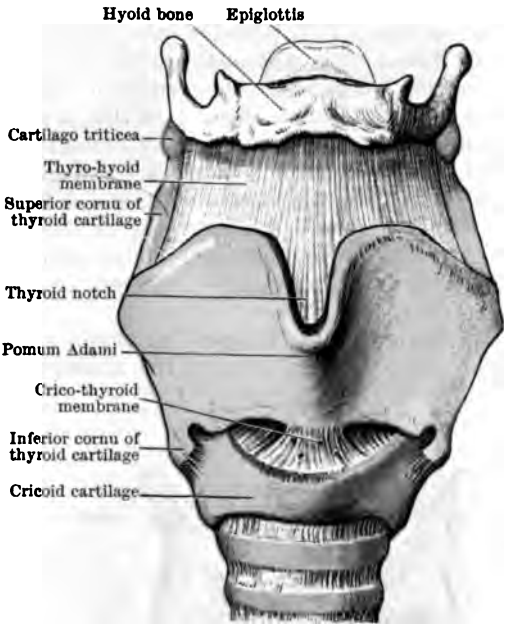
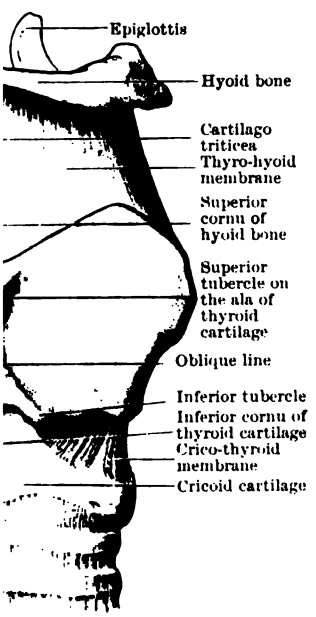


FIG. 680.—THE CARTILAGES AND LIGAMENTS OF THE LARYNX VIEWED FROM THE FRONT.



PROFILE VIEW OF THE CARTILAGES LIGAMENTS OF THE LARYNX.

Cricoid Cartilage (cartilago cricoidea).—The cricoid cartilage is shaped like a signet-ring. Behind, there is a broad, thick plate somewhat quadrilateral in form and termed the **posterior lamina**; whilst in front and laterally, the circumference of the ring is completed by a curved band, called the **anterior arch**. The lumen of the ring enclosed by these parts is circular below, but above the ring is compressed laterally, so that the lumen becomes elliptical. The superior border of the **posterior lamina** presents a faintly-marked median notch. On either side of this there is an oval convex facet which looks more outwards than upwards, and which articulates with the base of the arytenoid cartilage. The posterior surface of the lamina is divided by an elevated median ridge into two depressed areas which give attachment to the posterior
enoid muscles. The front part of the **anterior arch** of the cricoid is in
of a narrow band, but as it proceeds backwards towards the posterior

lamina its superior border rises rapidly, and in consequence the arch becomes much broader. The *inferior border* of the cricoid is nearly horizontal, although it frequently presents a median projection in front, and a lateral projection on either side. It is joined to the first ring of the trachea by an intervening elastic membrane. On the *outer surface* of the cricoid cartilage, at the place where the anterior arch joins the posterior lamina, a vertical ridge descends from the arytenoid articular facet. On this, a short distance from the lower border of the cartilage, a prominent circular articular facet is visible for articulation with the inferior cornu of the thyroid cartilage (Fig. 683, p. 963). The *inner surface* of the cricoid cartilage is smooth, and is lined by mucous membrane.

The narrow band-like part of the anterior arch of the cricoid cartilage lies below the lower border of the thyroid cartilage, whilst the posterior lamina is received into the interval between the posterior portions of the alæ of the thyroid cartilage.

Arytenoid Cartilages (cartilagines arytænoideæ).—The arytenoid cartilages are placed one on either side of the mesial plane, and rest upon the upper border of the posterior lamina of the cricoid cartilage, in the interval between the posterior portions of the alæ of the thyroid cartilage. They present a somewhat pyramidal form. The pointed **apex** or summit of each is directed upwards, and at the same time curves backwards and inwards. It supports the corniculum laryngis. Of the three surfaces, one looks directly inwards towards the corresponding surface of the opposite cartilage, from which it is separated by a narrow interval; another looks backwards; whilst the third is directed outwards and forwards. The *internal surface*, which is the smallest of the three, is triangular in outline. It is narrow, vertical, and even, and is clothed by the lining mucous membrane of the larynx. The *posterior surface* is smooth and concave from above downwards; it lodges and gives attachment to the arytenoideus transversus muscle. The *antero-external* surface is the most extensive of the three (Fig. 683, p. 963). Its middle part is marked by a deep depression in which is lodged a mass of mucous glands. Upon this surface of the arytenoid cartilage the powerful thyro-arytenoid muscle is inserted, whilst a small tubercle a short distance above the base gives attachment to the superior thyro-arytenoid ligament—the feeble supporting ligament of the false vocal cord. The three surfaces of the arytenoid cartilage are separated from each other by an anterior, a posterior, and an external border. The *external border* is the longest, and it pursues, as it is traced from the apex to the base, a sinuous course. Reaching the base of the cartilage, it is prolonged outwards and backwards in the form of a stout prominent angle or process, termed the **processus muscularis**. Into the front of this process is inserted the crico-arytenoideus lateralis muscle; whilst into its posterior aspect the crico-arytenoideus posticus muscle is inserted. A small nodule of yellow elastic cartilage, called the **sesamoid cartilage**, is frequently found on the external border of the arytenoid cartilage, where it is held in position by the investing perichondrium. The *anterior border* of the arytenoid is vertical, and at the base of the cartilage is

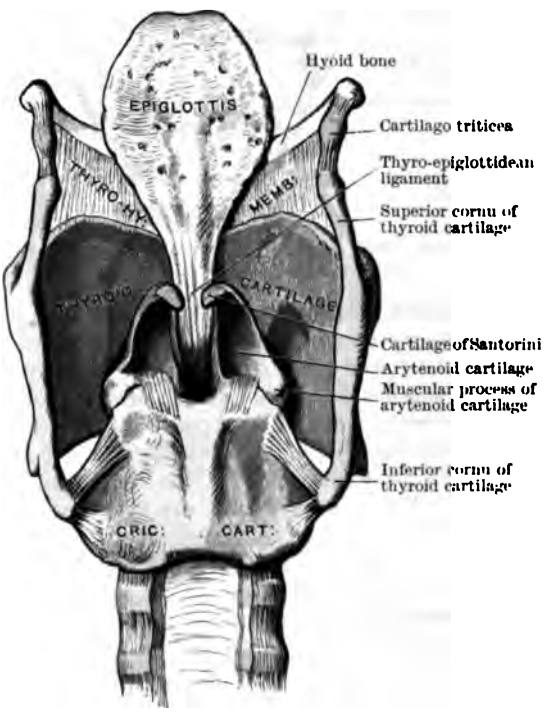


FIG. 682.—CARTILAGES AND LIGAMENTS OF LARYNX, as seen from behind.

prolonged horizontally forwards into a small sharp-pointed process called the **processus vocalis**. It receives this name because it gives attachment to the inferior thyro-arytenoid ligament or supporting band of the true vocal cord. The **base** of the arytenoid cartilage presents on its under surface, and more particularly on the under surface of the processus muscularis, an elongated concave facet for articulation with the upper border of the posterior lamina of the cricoid cartilage.

Cartilages of Santorini (cartilagines corniculatæ).—The cartilages of Santorini, or the cornicula laryngis, are two minute conical nodules of yellow elastic cartilage which surmount the apices of the arytenoids, and prolong the upper curved ends of these cartilages in a backward and inward direction. Each cartilage of Santorini is enclosed within the posterior part of the corresponding aryteno-epiglottidean fold of mucous membrane.

Cuneiform Cartilages (cartilagines cuneiformes).—The cuneiform cartilages are not invariably present. They are two minute rod-shaped pieces of yellow elastic cartilage, each of which occupies a place in the corresponding aryteno-epiglottidean fold of mucous membrane immediately in front of the arytenoid cartilage and the cartilage of Santorini. On the superficial surface of each a collection of mucous glands is present, and this tends to make the cartilage stand out in relief under the mucous membrane.

Epiglottidean Cartilage (cartilago epiglottica).—The epiglottis is supported by a thin leaf-like lamina of yellow fibro-cartilage which is placed behind the root of the tongue and the body of the hyoid bone, and in front of the superior aperture of the larynx. When divested of the mucous membrane, which covers it behind and also to some extent in front, the epiglottidean cartilage is seen to present the outline of a bicycle-saddle, and to be indented by pits and pierced by numerous perforations. In the former, glands are lodged, whilst through the latter, blood-vessels and in some cases nerves pass. The broad end of the cartilage is directed upwards, and is free. Its margins are, to a large extent, enclosed within the aryteno-epiglottidean folds of mucous membrane. The anterior surface is only free in its upper part. This part is covered with mucous membrane, and looks towards the pharyngeal part of the tongue. The posterior surface is covered throughout its whole extent by the lining mucous membrane of the laryngeal cavity. The lower pointed extremity of the cartilage is carried downwards in the form of a strong fibrous band, termed the thyro-epiglottidean ligament.

Ossification of the Cartilages of the Larynx.—The thyroid and cricoid cartilages and the greater part of the arytenoid cartilages are composed of the hyaline variety of cartilage. The apical parts, and also the vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages, the cartilages of Santorini, the cuneiform cartilages, and the epiglottis, are formed of yellow fibro-cartilage, and at no period of life do they exhibit any tendency towards the ossific change. The thyroid, cricoid, and basal portions of the arytenoids, as life advances, become more or less completely transformed into bone. In males over twenty years of age, and in females over twenty-two years of age, the process will usually be found to have begun (Chievitz). It is impossible, however, by an examination of the laryngeal cartilages, to form an estimate of the age of the individual, although in old age it is usual to find the thyroid, cricoid, and the hyaline part of the arytenoid completely ossified. It would appear that the process is somewhat slower in the female than in the male. The thyroid is the first to show the change; then, but almost at the same time, the cricoid, and lastly, a few years later, the arytenoid.

JOINTS, LIGAMENTS, AND MEMBRANES OF THE LARYNX.

Crico-thyroid Joints (articulationes cricothyreoideæ).—These are diarthrodial joints, and are formed by the apposition of the circular facets on the tips of the inferior cornua of the thyroid cartilage with the elevated circular facets on the sides of the cricoid cartilage. A capsular ligament is thrown around each articulation, and this is lined by synovial membrane. On the posterior aspect of the joint a strengthening band is present in the capsule. The movements which take place at the crico-thyroid joints are of a twofold character, viz. gliding and rotatory. In the first case the thyroid facets glide upon the cricoid surfaces in different directions.

The rotatory movement is one in which the thyroid cartilage rotates to a slight extent around a transverse axis which passes through the centre of the two joints.

Crico-arytenoid Joints (articulationes cricoarytænoideæ).—These also are diarthrodial articulations. In each case there is a joint cavity surrounded by a capsular ligament, which is lined by a synovial membrane. The cricoid articular surface is convex, whilst that of the arytenoid is concave; both are elongated or elliptical in form, and they are applied to each other, so that the long axis of the one intersects or crosses that of the other at an acute angle. In no position of the joint do the two surfaces accurately coincide—a portion of the cricoid facet is always left uncovered. The capsule of the joint is strengthened behind by a band which is inserted into the inner and back part of the base of the arytenoid cartilage, and plays a somewhat important part in the mechanism of the joint; it arrests effectually excessive forward movement of the arytenoid cartilage.

The movements which take place at the crico-arytenoid joint are of a twofold kind, viz. gliding and rotatory. The ordinary position of the arytenoid during easy, quiet breathing is one in which it rests upon the outer part of the cricoid facet. By a gliding movement it can ascend upon the cricoid facet, and advance towards the median plane and its fellow of the opposite side. The gliding movements, therefore, are of such a character that the two arytenoid cartilages approach or retreat from each other and the mesial plane. In the rotatory movement the arytenoid cartilage revolves around a vertical axis. By this movement the vocal process is swung outwards or inwards, so as to open or close the rima glottidis.

The **joint between the arytenoid and the cartilage of Santorini** may either partake of the nature of an amphiarthrosis or of a diarthrosis. The tips of the two cornicula laryngis can generally be made out to be connected to the upper border of the posterior lamina of the cricoid cartilage by a delicate Y-shaped ligament termed the **ligamentum jugale**.

Thyro-hyoid Membrane (membrana hyothyreoidea).—This is a broad membranous and somewhat elastic sheet which occupies the interval between the hyoid bone and the thyroid cartilage. It is not equally strong throughout. It presents a central thick portion and a cord-like right and left margin, whilst in the intervals between these it is thin and weak (Figs. 680 and 681, p. 959). The central thickened part (ligamentum thyro-hyoideum medium) is largely composed of elastic fibres. Below, it is attached to the margins of the thyroid notch, whilst above, it is fixed to the posterior aspect of the upper margin of the body of the hyoid bone. The upper part, therefore, of its anterior surface is placed behind the posterior hollowed-out surface of the body of the hyoid bone; a synovial bursa of variable extent is placed between them, and in certain movements of the head and larynx the upper border of the thyroid cartilage slips upwards behind the hyoid bone. On either side of the strong central part, the thyro-hyoid membrane is thin and loose. It is attached below to the upper border of the thyroid cartilage, and above to the posterior aspect of the great cornu of the hyoid bone. It is pierced by the internal laryngeal nerve and the superior laryngeal vessels. The posterior border of the thyro-hyoid membrane on each side is thickened, round, and cord-like, and is chiefly composed of elastic fibres. It is termed the **ligamentum thyro-hyoideum laterale**, and extends from the tip of the great cornu of the hyoid bone to the extremity of the superior cornu of the thyroid cartilage. In this ligament there is usually developed a small oval cartilaginous or bony nodule which receives the name of the **cartilago triticea**. The deep surface of the lateral part of the thyro-hyoid membrane is covered by the pharyngeal mucous membrane. Behind its central part lies the epiglottis, but separated from it by a mass of adipose tissue (Fig. 686, p. 966).

Crico-thyroid Membrane (membrana cricothyreoidea).—This is a very important structure, which must be considered in three parts, viz. a central and two lateral, all of which are directly continuous with each other, and differ only in the nature of their superior connexions. The **central part** of the crico-thyroid membrane is strong, tense, and elastic. It is triangular in shape, and is attached by its broad base to the upper border of the anterior arch of cricoid cartilage, whilst above, it is fixed to the middle part of the lower border of the thyroid cartilage (Fig. 680, p. 959). It is pierced by minute apertures, and is crossed superficially by the crico-thyroid

of the superior laryngeal artery. The central part of the crico-thyroid membrane, therefore, closes in front the interval between the cricoid and thyroid cartilages. **The lateral part** on each side presents very different connexions. It is not attached to the lower border of the thyroid cartilage, but slopes upwards and inwards within the thyroid ala, and thus diminishes materially the transverse width of the lower portion of the laryngeal cavity. Its attachments are very definite. *Below*, it is attached to the upper border of the cricoid cartilage, immediately subjacent to the mucous membrane of the larynx; *above*, it is directly continuous with the thyro-arytenoid ligament or superior band of the true vocal cord. This attachment, indeed, may be looked upon as constituting the upper thickened free margin of the lateral part of the crico-thyroid membrane. *In front*, the lateral part of the crico-thyroid membrane is attached to the lower half of the inner surface of the ala of the thyroid cartilage, close to the angle, and *behind*, to the lower border of the processus vocalis of the arytenoid cartilage. In contact with the *outer surface* of the lateral part of the crico-thyroid membrane, and separated from the thyroid ala, are the lateral crico-arytenoid and the thyro-arytenoid muscles; the *inner surface* is clothed by the lining mucous membrane of the larynx.

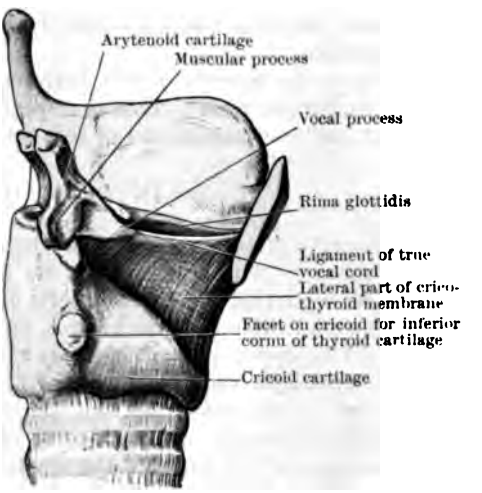


FIG. 683.—DISSECTION TO SHOW THE LATERAL PART OF THE CRICO-THYROID MEMBRANE. The right ala of the thyroid cartilage has been removed.

Inferior Thyro-arytenoid Ligament (ligamentum vocale).—This is formed by connexion with the upper border of the lateral part of the crico-thyroid membrane, and it constitutes the supporting ligament of the true vocal cord. It is attached *in front*, close to its fellow of the opposite side, to the middle of the angular depression between the two alæ of the thyroid cartilage. From this it passes backwards, and becomes incorporated with the tip and upper border of the processus vocalis which projects forwards from the base of the arytenoid cartilage. The inferior thyro-arytenoid ligament is composed of yellow elastic fibres, and is flattened in its anterior extremity there is frequently a minute nodule of elastic cartilage. Its inner border is sharp and free, and is clothed by mucous membrane, which in this position is very thin and tightly bound down to the ligament.

The superior thyro-arytenoid ligament (ligamentum ventriculare) supports the false vocal cord. It is weak and indefinite, but somewhat longer than the inferior ligament. In front it is attached to the angular depression between the alæ of the thyroid cartilage, above the true vocal ligaments and close to the attachment of the thyro-epiglottidean ligament, and it extends backwards to be fixed to a tubercle on the antero-external surface of the arytenoid cartilage, a short distance above the processus vocalis. It is composed of connective tissue and elastic fibres which are continuous with the fibrous tissue in the aryteno-epiglottidean fold.

The epiglottidean Ligaments.—The epiglottis is bound by ligaments to the base of the tongue, to the wall of the pharynx, to the hyoid bone, and to the thyroid cartilage. The **glosso-epiglottidean ligament** (plica glosso-epiglottica mediana) is a prominent mesial fold of mucous membrane which proceeds from the middle of the anterior free surface of the epiglottis to the base of the tongue. The **lateral glosso-epiglottidean ligaments or folds** (plicæ glosso-epiglotticæ laterales) are two mucous folds which proceed from the margins of the epiglottis in an upward direction on the side wall of the pharynx. Between the two layers of mucous membrane which form the glosso-epiglottidean and pharyngo-epiglottidean folds there is a certain amount of elastic tissue. By the three folds the depression between the root of the tongue and the epiglottis is marked off into two fossæ known as the **valleculæ**.

The **hyo-epiglottidean ligament** (ligamentum hyoepiglotticum) is a short, broad elastic band, somewhat broken up by adipose tissue, which connects the anterior face of the epiglottis to the upper border of the hyoid bone (Fig. 686, p. 966). The **thyro-epiglottidean ligament** (ligamentum thyreoepiglotticum) is strong and thick (Fig. 682, p. 960). Composed mainly of elastic tissue, it proceeds downwards from the lower pointed extremity of the epiglottis, and is attached to the angular depression between the two alæ of the thyroid cartilage below and behind the median notch.

A triangular interval is left between the anterior face of the epiglottis and the thyro-hyoid membrane. This is imperfectly closed above by the hyo-epiglottidean ligament, and contains a pad of soft fat (Fig. 686, p. 966).

INTERIOR OF THE LARYNX.

The cavity of the larynx is smaller than might be expected from an inspection of its exterior. On looking into its interior through the superior aperture it is seen to be subdivided into three portions by two elevated folds of mucous membrane which extend from before backwards, and project inwards from each side-wall of the cavity. The upper pair of folds are the **false vocal cords**; the lower, more definite pair, are the **true vocal cords** (Fig. 684). The latter are the chief agents in the production of the voice, and the larynx is so constructed that changes in their relative position and in their degree of tension are brought about by the action of the muscles and the recoil of the elastic ligaments.

Superior Aperture of the Larynx (aditus laryngis).—This is a large obliquely-placed opening which slopes rapidly from above downwards and backwards and looks backwards into the upper part of the laryngeal portion of the pharynx. Somewhat triangular in outline, the basal part of the aperture, placed above and in front, is formed by the free border of the epiglottis. Behind, the opening rapidly narrows, and finally ends in the interval between the two arytenoid cartilages. The sides of the aperture are formed by two sharp and prominent folds of mucous membrane called the **aryteno-epiglottidean folds** (plicæ aryepiglotticæ), which stretch between the lateral margins of the epiglottis in front and the arytenoid cartilages behind.

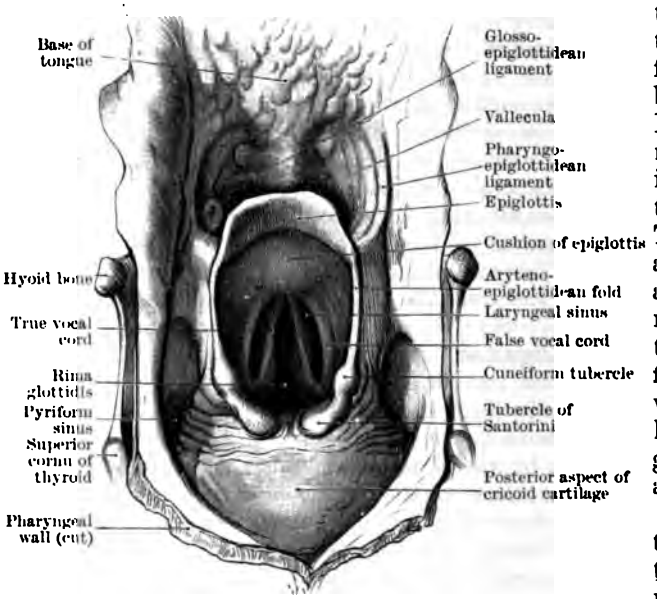


FIG. 684.—SUPERIOR APERTURE OF LARYNX, exposed by laying open the pharynx from behind.

The **aryteno-epiglottidean folds** enclose between the two layers of mucous membrane which compose them some connective tissue, muscular fibres belonging to the aryteno-epiglottidean muscles, and in their posterior parts the cuneiform cartilages and the cornicula laryngis which surmount the arytenoid cartilages. These small nodules of cartilage raise the hinder part of the aryteno-epiglottidean fold in the form of two rounded eminences, termed respectively the **cuneiform tubercle** (tuberculum cuneiforme) and the **tubercle of Santorini** (tuberculum corniculatum).

On either side of the posterior and lower part of the laryngeal opening there is, *in the* pharynx, a small downwardly-directed recess which presents a wide entrance.

but rapidly narrows towards the bottom. It is termed the **sinus pyriformis** and is of importance to the surgeon, because foreign bodies introduced into the pharynx are liable to be caught in this little pocket. On the inner side the sinus pyriformis, is bounded by the arytenoid cartilage and the aryteno-epiglottidean fold, whilst on the outer side it is limited by the inner surface of the ala of the thyroid cartilage, clothed by the pharyngeal mucous membrane.

Upper Subdivision of the Laryngeal Cavity (vestibulum laryngis).—The upper subdivision of the laryngeal cavity extends from the superior opening of the larynx down to the false vocal cords. In its lower part it exhibits a marked lateral compression. Its width, therefore, diminishes from above downwards, whilst, owing to the obliquity of the upper aperture of the larynx, its depth rapidly diminishes from before backwards. *In front* it is bounded by the posterior surface of the epiglottis, clothed by mucous membrane. This wall descends obliquely from above downwards and forwards, and becomes narrower as it approaches the anterior ends of the false vocal cords. The upper part of the posterior surface of the epiglottis is convex, owing to the manner in which the upper margin is curved forwards towards the tongue; below this there is a slight concavity, and still lower a marked bulging or convexity over the upper part of the thyro-epiglottidean ligament. This swelling is called the **cushion** or **tubercle of the epiglottis** (tuberculum epiglotticum), and it forms a conspicuous object in laryngoscopic examinations of the larynx. The *lateral wall* of the upper compartment or vestibule of the larynx is formed by the inner surface of the aryteno-epiglottidean fold. For the most part it is smooth and slightly concave, and it diminishes considerably in vertical depth as it passes backwards. In its posterior part the mucous membrane stands out in two elongated vertical elevations placed one behind the other (Fig. 686, p. 966). The anterior elevation is formed by the subjacent cuneiform cartilage with the mass of glands associated with it; the posterior elevation is produced by the anterior margin of the arytenoid cartilage and the cartilage of Santorini. A shallow groove (philtrum ventriculi of Merkel) descends between these rounded elevations, and terminates below by running into the interval between the false and true vocal cords. The anterior elevation comes to an end below in the posterior extremity of the false vocal cord; the arytenoid or posterior elevation, in its inferior part, bends round the hinder end of the ventricle of the larynx and becomes lost in the true vocal cord. The *posterior wall* of the laryngeal vestibule is narrow, and corresponds to the interval between the upper parts of the two arytenoid cartilages. Its width, to a large extent, depends on the position of these cartilages, and when they are placed near each other the mucous membrane which covers this wall is thrown into longitudinal folds.

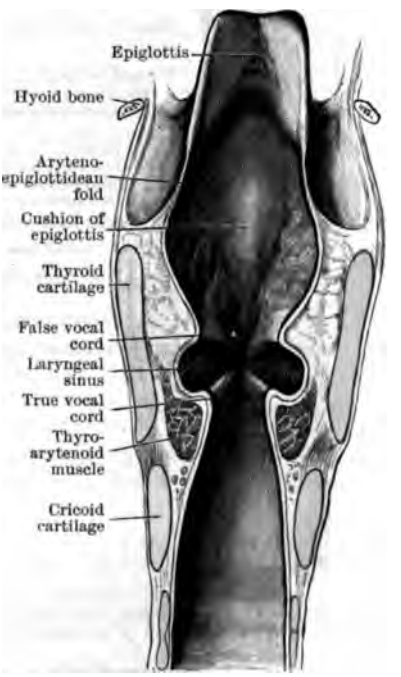


FIG. 685.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH LARYNX, to show its three compartments.

Middle Subdivision of the Laryngeal Cavity.—The middle compartment of the larynx is much the smallest of the three. It is bounded above by the false vocal cords and below by the true vocal cords, whilst it communicates between these folds with the vestibule on the one hand and the inferior compartment of the larynx on the other.

The **false vocal cords** (plicæ ventriculares) are two prominent mucous folds which extend from before backwards on the side walls of the laryngeal cavity. In front they reach the angle between the two alæ of the thyroid cartilage, but behind they do not extend so far as the posterior wall of the larynx. They come to an end on each side at the lower end of the elongated swelling produced by cuneiform

cartilage. The false vocal cord is soft and somewhat flaccid, and presents a free border which is slightly arched—the concavity looking downwards. Within the fold of mucous membrane which forms this cord are contained: (1) the feeble superior thyro-arytenoid ligament; (2) numerous glands which are chiefly aggregated in its middle part; and (3) a few muscle fibres.

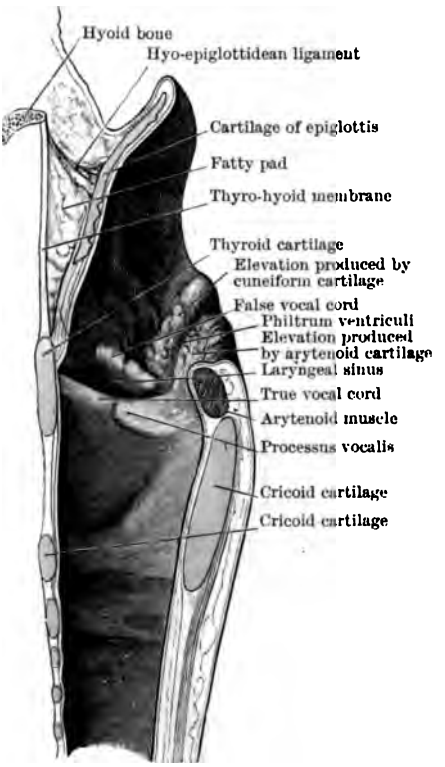


FIG. 686.—MESIAL SECTION THROUGH LARYNX to show the outer wall of the right half.

The interval between the false vocal cords is sometimes termed the **false glottis** (glottis spuria), and is considerably wider than the interval between the true vocal cords, which is called the **true glottis** (glottis vera) or **rima glottidis**. It follows from this that when the cavity of the larynx is examined from above the four cords are distinctly visible, but when examined from below the true vocal cords alone can be seen.

The **true vocal cords** (plicæ vocales), placed below the false cords, extend from the angle between the alæ of the thyroid cartilage in front to the vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages behind. The true vocal cord is sharp and prominent, and the mucous membrane which is stretched over it is very thin and firmly bound down to the subjacent ligament. In colour it is pale, almost pearly white, whilst posteriorly the point of the processus vocalis of the arytenoid, which stands out clearly in relief, presents a yellowish tinge. In cross-section the true vocal cord is prismatic in form, and its free border looks upwards as well as inwards.

The true vocal cords are the agents by means of which the voice is produced. The false vocal cords are of little importance in this respect; indeed, they can in great part be destroyed and no appreciable difference in the voice result.

Glottis vera (rima glottidis).—This name is applied to the elongated fissure by means of which the middle compartment of the larynx communicates with the lower compartment. It is placed somewhat below the middle of the laryngeal cavity, of which it constitutes the narrowest part. In front it corresponds to the interval between the true vocal cords; behind, it corresponds to the interval between the bases and vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages. It is composed, therefore, of two distinct parts: (1) a narrow anterior portion, between the true vocal cords, involving more than half of its length, and called the **glottis vocalis** (pars intermembranacea); (2) a broader, shorter portion, between the arytenoid cartilages, and termed the **glottis respiratoria** (pars intercartilaginea).

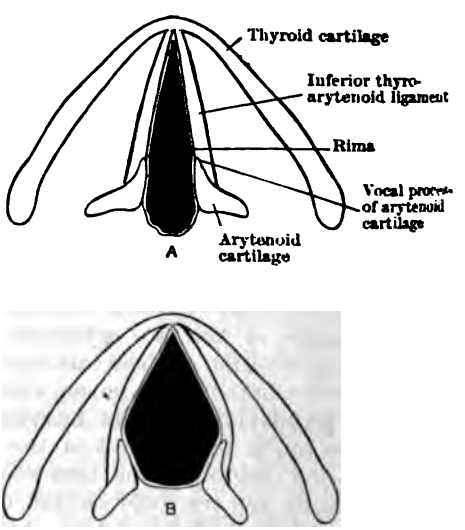


FIG. 687.—DIAGRAM OF RIMA GLOTTIDIS.
A. During ordinary easy breathing. B. Widely open.

By changes in the position of the arytenoid cartilages the form of the rima glottidis undergoes constant alterations. In

ordinary easy breathing it is somewhat lanceolate in outline. The glottis vocalis presents under these conditions the form of an elongated triangle with the base directed backwards, and corresponding to an imaginary line drawn between the points of the vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages, whilst the glottis respiratoria is somewhat quadrangular. When the glottis is opened widely the broadest part of the fissure is at the extremities of the vocal processes of the arytenoids, and here the side of the rima presents a marked angle. The two vocal cords, on the other hand, may be approximated to each other so closely, as in singing a high note, that the glottis vocalis is reduced to a linear chink.

The length of the rima glottidis differs very considerably in the two sexes, and upon this depends the different character of the voice in the male and female. According to Moura, the following are the average measurements in the quiescent condition of the rima :—

Male—Length of entire rima glottidis, 23 mm. . . . . { glottis vocalis, 15·5 mm. / glottis respiratoria, 7·5 mm.

Female—Length of entire rima glottidis, 17 mm. . . . . { glottis vocalis, 11·5 mm. / glottis respiratoria, 5·5 mm.

By stretching the vocal cords, however, the length of the rima glottidis in the male may be increased to 27·5 mm., and in the female to 20 mm.

The position of the rima glottidis may be indicated on the surface by marking a point on the middle line of the neck 8·5 mm. below the bottom of the thyroid notch in the male and 6·5 mm. in the female. This is the average position (Taguchi).

Laryngeal Sinus (ventriculus laryngis).—The side wall of the larnyx, in the interval between the false and the true vocal cords, exhibits a marked pocket-like depression or recess called the laryngeal sinus. The recess passes upwards so as to undermine somewhat the false vocal cord, and its mouth is somewhat narrower than its cavity. In front it reaches forwards to the angle between the alæ of the thyroid cartilage, whilst behind it ends at the anterior border of the arytenoid cartilage.

Under cover of the forepart of the false vocal cord a small slit-like aperture may be detected ; this leads upwards from the laryngeal sinus into a small diverticulum of mucous membrane, termed the **laryngeal saccule** (appendix ventriculi) which ascends between the false vocal cord and the ala of the thyroid cartilage. The laryngeal saccule is of variable extent, but as a rule it ends blindly at the level of the upper border of the thyroid cartilage.

FIG. 688.—SPECIMEN SHOWING A GREAT EXTENSION OF THE SACCULE OF THE LARYNX.

Sometimes the saccule extends much higher, and may even reach the hinder part of the great cornu of the hyoid bone. This is of interest when considered in connexion with the extensive larnygeal pouches of the anthropoid apes.

Lower Compartment of the Laryngeal Cavity.—This leads directly downwards into the trachea. Above it is narrow and compressed laterally, but it gradually widens out until, in its lowest part, it becomes circular, in correspondence with the trachea with which it is continuous. It is bounded by the sloping inner surfaces of the crico-thyroid membrane and by the inner aspect of the cricoid cartilage—both covered by smooth mucous membrane. In the operation of laryngotomy the opening is made through the anterior wall of this compartment.

Mucous Membrane of the Larynx.—The mucous membrane which lines the larynx is continuous above with that lining the pharynx, and below with mucous membrane of the trachea. Over the posterior surface of the epiglottis it is closely adherent, but elsewhere, above the level of the true vocal cords, it is loosely attached by submucous tissue which extends into the aryteno-epiglottidean folds. As it passes over the true vocal cords the mucous membrane is very thin, and is tightly bound down.

It is important to bear these facts in mind, because in certain inflammatory conditions the lax submucous tissue in the upper part of the larynx is liable to become infiltrated with fluid, pro-

ducing what is known as œdema glottidis. This may proceed so far as to cause occlusion of the upper part of the cavity. The close adhesion of the mucous membrane to the true vocal cords, however, prevents the œdema extending beyond the level of the rima glottidis, and the surgeon is thus able to relieve the patient by making an opening through the front part of the crico-thyroid membrane into the lower compartment of the larynx.

Above the level of the rima glottidis the laryngeal mucous membrane is extremely sensitive, and when touched by a foreign body there is an immediate response in the shape of an explosive cough. In the lower compartment of the larynx the mucous membrane is lined by columnar ciliated epithelium. Over the true vocal cords this is replaced by squamous epithelium. In the middle compartment and in the lower part of the vestibule of the larynx the columnar ciliated epithelium again reappears. The upper part of the epiglottis and the upper parts of the side walls of the vestibule are covered by squamous epithelium similar to that present in the mouth and pharynx.

The mucous membrane of the larynx has a plentiful supply of acinose glands, and in only one place, viz. over the surface of the true vocal cords, are these completely absent. For the most part the glands are aggregated in groups The following are the localities in which these groups are especially noticeable:—(1) On the dorsal surface of the epiglottis, many of the glands piercing the cartilage; (2) around the cuneiform cartilage, where they are chiefly responsible for the elongated elevation seen in this part of the wall of the vestibule; (3) in the false vocal cord, and over the wall of the laryngeal sinus and the laryngeal saccule.

LARYNGEAL MUSCLES.

Under this heading we do not include all the muscles which are attached to the cartilages of the larynx. Thus the inferior constrictor muscles of the pharynx, although attached to both cricoid and thyroid cartilages, and the stylo-pharyngeus muscle on each side, although inserted in part into the thyroid cartilage, properly belong to the pharynx. Of the laryngeal muscles proper two are attached to the oblique line of the thyroid cartilage (viz. the sterno-thyroid and thyro-hyoid), and are concerned in producing movements of the larynx as a whole. These are termed the *extrinsic muscles* of the larynx, and have been already described (p. 412). The *intrinsic muscles* of the larynx are a group of small muscles which help to build up the laryngeal wall, and which, by their contraction, move the laryngeal cartilages on each other. One passes between the cricoid and thyroid cartilages—the **crico-thyroid muscle**; two pass between the cricoid and arytenoid cartilages—the **crico-arytenoideus posticus** and **crico-arytenoideus lateralis**; one, in each lateral wall of the larynx, under cover of the ala of the thyroid cartilage, passes between the thyroid and the arytenoid cartilages—the **thyro-arytenoid**. These muscles are in pairs. One muscle only, which connects the two arytenoid cartilages, and which is termed in consequence the **arytenoideus**, is single. In addition to these, some muscular fibres which enter the aryteno-epiglottidean fold and reach the epiglottis require to be considered. These constitute the **thyro-ary-epiglottidean muscle**.

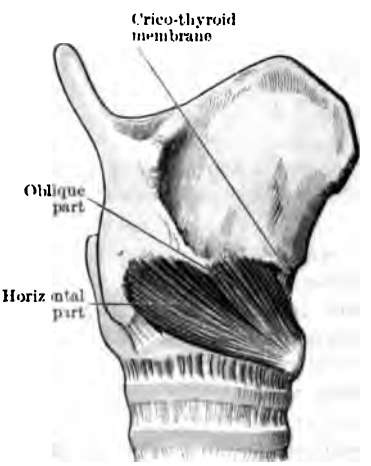


FIG. 689. THE CRICO-THYROID MUSCLE.

The **crico-thyroid muscle** (musculus crico-thyreoideus) is placed on the cricoid cartilage, and bridges over the crico-thyroid interval. Taking origin from the lower border and outer surface of the anterior arch of the cricoid cartilage, its fibres spread out in an upward and backward direction, and are inserted into the inner surface and lower margin of the thyroid cartilage, and also into the anterior aspect of its inferior cornu. As a general rule it is divided into two parts, viz.: (1) an **anterior or oblique part**, composed of those fibres which are inserted into the ala of the thyroid cartilage; and (2) a **posterior or horizontal part** formed of those fibres which are inserted into the

ferior cornu of the thyroid cartilage. It is closely associated with the inferior nstrictor muscle of the pharynx, and sometimes shows a certain amount of connuity with it.

The **posterior crico-arytenoid muscle** (musculus cricoarytænoideus posterior) somewhat fan-shaped (Fig. 691, p. 970). It springs by a broad origin from the epression which is present on the posterior lamina of the cricoid cartilage on each de of the mesial ridge, and its fibres converge to be inserted into the posterior rface of the processus muscularis of the arytenoid cartilage. In pursuing its pward and outward course on the back of the cricoid cartilage its fibres show ifferent degrees of obliquity. The uppermost fibres are short and nearly horizontal; he intermediate fibres are the longest, and are very oblique; whilst the lowest bres are almost vertical in their direction.

The **lateral crico-arytenoid muscle** (musculus cricoarytænoideus lateralis) is riangular in form and smaller than the preceding muscle (Fig. 690). It springs rom the upper border of the lateral part of the anterior arch of the cricoid as far ack as the facet which supports the base of the arytenoid cartilage. A few of its bres also take origin from the lateral part of the crico-thyroid membrane, to which s deep surface is applied. From this attachment its fibres run backwards and pwards, and converge to be inserted into the anterior surface of the processus uscularis of the arytenoid cartilage. The superficial or outer surface of this uscle is covered by the lower part of the ala of the thyroid cartilage and by the pper part of the crico-thyroid muscle.

The **thyro-arytenoid muscle** (musculus thyreoarytænoideus) is placed in the teral wall of the larynx under cover of the ala of the thyroid cartilage (Fig. 690). ts lower border is contiguous with, and generally inseparably blended with, he upper margin of the lateral crico-arytenoid muscles, so that the two muscles rm a more or less continuous sheet. The thyro-arytenoid muscle is usually escribed as consisting of a superficial and a deep part, termed respectively the hyro-arytenoideus externus and the thyro-arytenoideus internus. As a rule these arts are more or less completely united, and can only be isolated from each ther by artificial means.

The **thyro-arytenoideus externus** is a broad muscular layer which lies immediately ubjacent to the ala of the thyroid rtilage. Its lower border is in contact with the lateral crico-arytenoid uscle, whilst its upper border is laced at a higher level than the rue vocal cord. The upper part f the muscle is therefore in relaon to the wall of the sinus of the rynx. The thyro-arytenoideus xternus arises in front from the. wer half of the inner surface of ne ala of the thyroid cartilage, lose to the angle, and also from he lateral part of the cricoyroid membrane, on which it to me extent lies. Its fibres pass ackwards, and are inserted into ne outer border and muscular rocess of the arytenoid cartilage, certain number, however, turning und this cartilage, and becomg continuous with the transverse bres of the arytenoideus muscle.

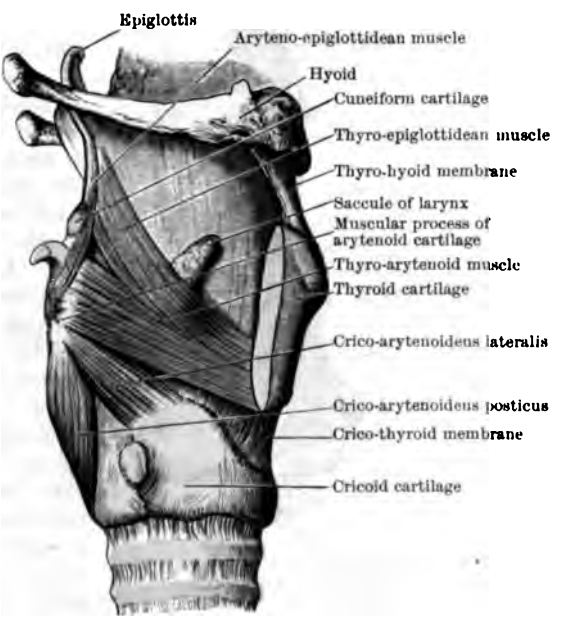


FIG. 690.—DISSECTION OF THE MUSCLES IN THE LATERAL WALL OF THE LARYNX.

The right ala of the thyroid cartilage has been removed.

A considerable number of the ppermost fibres of the thyro-ytenoideus externus, as they pro-ed backwards, curve upwards so as to form a thin band which reaches the

aryteno-epiglottidean fold and the margin of the epiglottis. These constitute the **thyro-epiglottidean muscle.**

The **thyro-arytenoideus internus** is a slender, three-sided, muscular band which is applied to the outer aspect of the true vocal cord, and receives its prismatic form from this adaptation. It arises in front from the angular depression between the two alæ of the thyroid cartilage, and is inserted behind into the outer aspect of the processus vocalis and also into the adjoining depressed part of the antero-external surface of the arytenoid cartilage. The thyro-arytenoideus internus is somewhat thicker behind than in front. This is due to the fact that, whilst all the fibres which compose it are attached to the arytenoid cartilage, only a certain proportion obtain attachment in front to the thyroid cartilage. A large number of the deeper fibres are directly fixed at different points to the outer side of the true vocal cord. These constitute the **ary-vocalis muscle** (Ludwig).

The thyro-arytenoideus is a complicated muscle, and the above description can only be regarded as conveying in a general way what may be regarded as the more usual arrangement of its fibres. It is subject to much variation and to very different degrees of development in different individuals. As a rule it is possible to trace from both parts of the muscle fibres which are carried obliquely upwards over the laryngeal sinus, and to some extent also over the sacculus laryngis. Further an additional part, termed the *small* or *superior* **thyro-arytenoideus**, is as a rule present (93 per cent according to Sewell). This is a slender band which arises from the inner aspect of the ala of the thyroid cartilage close to the notch, and passes backwards and downwards to find insertion into the lateral border of the arytenoid cartilage immediately above the processus muscularis.

The **arytenoideus muscle** is composed of two portions—a superficial part, termed the arytenoideus obliquus, and a deeper part, called the arytenoideus transversus.

The **arytenoideus obliquus** consists of two bundles of muscular fibres, each of which springs from the posterior aspect of the muscular process of the arytenoid cartilage. From these points the two fleshy slips proceed upwards and inwards, and cross each other in the mesial plane like the two limbs of the letter X. Reaching the summit of the arytenoid cartilage on each side, many of the fibres are inserted into it, whilst the remainder are prolonged round it into the aryteno-epiglottidean fold. Here they receive the name of the **aryteno-epiglottidean muscle**, and as they approach the epiglottis they are joined by the fibres of the thyro-epiglottidean muscle. The oblique arytenoid muscles may therefore be regarded as forming a rudimentary sphincter muscle for the superior aperture of the larynx. Each bundle, starting from the base of one of the arytenoid cartilages, is prolonged into the aryteno-epiglottidean fold of the opposite side, and within this to the margin of the epiglottis.

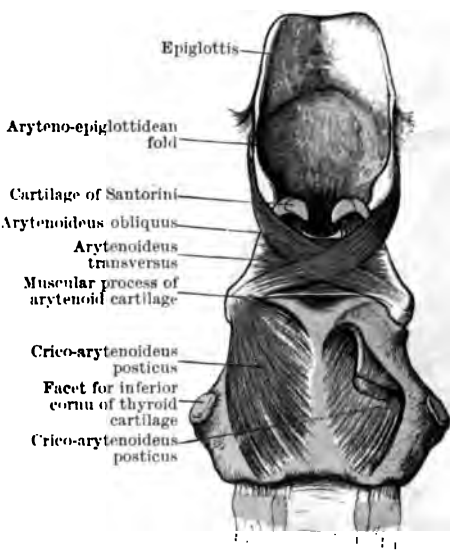


FIG. 691.—DISSECTION OF THE MUSCLES ON THE POSTERIOR ASPECT OF THE LARYNX.

The **arytenoideus tranversus** is an unpaired muscle. It is composed of transverse fibres which bridge across the interval between the two arytenoid cartilages, and occupy their posterior concave surfaces. To a large extent these fibres are inserted into the posterior aspect of the outer border of each arytenoid cartilage, but many turn round this border and become continuous with the fibres of the thyro-arytenoid muscle. It follows from this that the arytenoideus transversus and the two thyro-arytenoid muscles are sometimes spoken of as the sphincter of the glottis.

Action of the Laryngeal Muscles.—By the action of the laryngeal muscles the *position* and tension of the true vocal cords are so influenced that, during the passage of

air through the larynx, the tone and the pitch of the voice is determined. *Tension* of the true vocal cords is produced by the contraction of the two **crico-thyroid muscles**. The anterior or oblique portions of the muscles pull the lower border of the thyroid cartilage downwards, whilst the posterior horizontal portions, through their insertion into the inferior cornua, draw the thyroid cartilage forwards, thereby increasing the distance between the angle of the thyroid cartilage and the vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages. When the crico-thyroid muscles cease to contract, the relaxation of the cords is brought about by the elasticity of the ligaments. The **thyro-arytenoid muscles** must be regarded as antagonistic to the crico-thyroid muscles. When they contract they approximate the angle of the thyroid cartilage to the arytenoid cartilages, and still further relax the true vocal cords; and when they cease to act the elasticity of the ligaments of the larynx again restore the state of equilibrium. The ary-vocales muscles, by the insertion of their fibres into the true vocal cords, may tighten portions of these cords, whilst they relax at the same time the parts behind.

The *width of the rima glottidis* is regulated by the **arytenoideus muscle**, which draws together the two arytenoid cartilages, and this may be done so effectually that the inner surfaces of these cartilages come into contact; the glottis respiratoria is thus completely closed. The lateral and posterior crico-arytenoid muscles also modify the width of the rima glottidis. When they act together they assist the arytenoideus muscle in closing the glottis, but when they act independently they are antagonistic muscles. Thus the **posterior crico-arytenoid muscles**, by drawing the muscular processes of the arytenoid cartilages outwards and backwards, swing the processus vocales and the vocal cords outwards, and thereby open the rima. The **lateral crico-arytenoid muscles** act in exactly the opposite manner. By drawing the muscular processes of the arytenoid cartilages forwards and inwards, they approximate the processus vocales and close the rima.

Closure of the Larynx during Deglutition.—But the muscles of the larynx have another function to perform besides vocalisation and regulating the amount of air passing to and fro through the glottis. During deglutition it is requisite that the communication between the pharynx and larynx should be closed, so as to prevent the fluid or solid parts of the food entering the respiratory passages. Formerly it was believed that this was effected by the folding back of the epiglottis; that in fact the epiglottis, during the passage of the food, is applied like a lid over the entrance into the vestibule of the larynx. The observations of Professor Anderson Stuart would seem to indicate that this view is incorrect. According to Professor Stuart it is not the anterior wall of the vestibule which moves; the epiglottis stands erect, whilst the posterior wall formed by the arytenoids is carried forwards. In the process of closing the laryngeal entrance the arytenoid cartilages are closely approximated, glide forwards, and are then inclined towards the epiglottis. The result of this is that the laryngeal opening is converted into a T-shaped fissure. The mesial limb of the T is formed by the interval between the closely-applied arytenoid cartilages, whilst the cross limb, which lies in front, is bounded anteriorly by the epiglottis and behind by the aryteno-epiglottidean folds. The apices of the arytenoid cartilages, with the cartilages of Santorini, are pressed against the cushion of the epiglottis, whilst the lateral margins of the epiglottis are pulled backwards so as to make the transverse limb of the fissure distinctly concave in a backward direction. The muscles chiefly concerned in producing these movements are the external thyro-arytenoid and the transverse arytenoid muscles. These form a true sphincter vestibuli. The thyro-ary-epiglottidean muscles also come into play. They pull upon the epiglottis so as to produce tight application of its cushion to the arytenoid cartilages and the cartilages of Santorini, and they also curve its margins backwards so as to increase its posterior concavity.

Vessels and Nerves of the Larynx.—Two branches of the vagus nerve, viz. the superior laryngeal and the recurrent laryngeal nerves, supply the larynx. The superior laryngeal divides into the internal and external laryngeal branches. The **external laryngeal nerve** supplies the crico-thyroid muscle; whilst the **internal laryngeal nerve** enters the larynx by piercing the lateral part of the thyro-hyoid membrane to supply the laryngeal mucous membrane. The **recurrent laryngeal nerve** reaches the larynx from below, and supplies all the intrinsic laryngeal muscles with the exception of the crico-thyroid.

The **superior laryngeal artery**, a branch of the superior thyroid, accompanies the internal laryngeal nerve; whilst the **inferior laryngeal artery**, which springs from the inferior thyroid, accompanies the recurrent laryngeal nerve. These two vessels ramify in the laryngeal wall and supply the mucous membrane, the glands, and muscles.

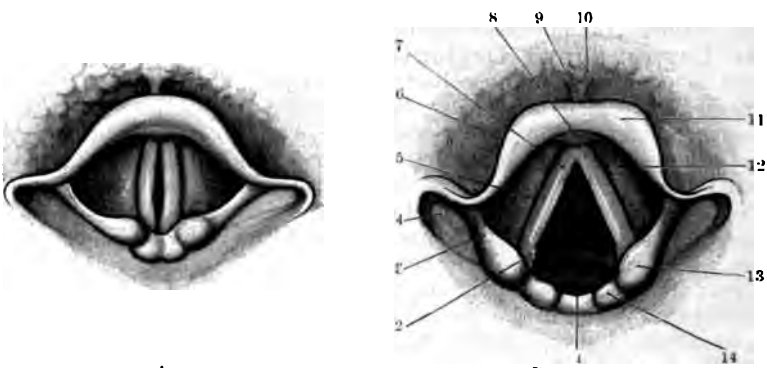
Growth-Alterations and Sexual Differences in the Larynx.—A considerable amount of variation may be noticed in the size of the larynx in different individuals. This is quite independent of stature, and explains to a great extent the difference in the

pitch of the voice which is observable in different persons. But quite apart from these individual variations, there is a marked sexual difference in the size of the larynx. The male larynx is not only absolutely but also relatively larger than the female larynx. This is noticeable in all its diameters, but more particularly in the antero-posterior diameter, and to a large extent the increase in the latter direction is produced by the strong development of the laryngeal angle or pomum Adami in the male. The great antero-posterior diameter of the male larynx necessarily implies a greater length of the vocal cords and a lower or deeper tone of the voice than in the female.

In the newly-born child the larynx, in comparison with the rest of the body, is somewhat large (C. L. Merker), and it continues to grow slowly and uniformly up to the sixth year of childhood. At this period there is a cessation of growth, which persists until puberty is reached, and then a stage of active growth supervenes. Up to this time the larynx in both sexes is similar in its characters, and although the growth which now occurs affects both the male and the female larynx, it is much more rapid and much more accentuated in the male than in the female. As a result of this the voice of the male breaks and assumes its deep tone.

It is interesting to note that the growth activity of the larynx at puberty is intimately connected with the development of the sexual organs. In an individual who has been castrated when young the larynx attains a size which exceeds that of the female only to a very small degree, and the high pitch of the voice is retained.

Appearance presented by the Interior of the Larynx when examined by the Laryngoscope.—When the cavity of the larynx is illuminated and examined by the laryngoscopic mirror the parts which surround the superior aperture of the larynx, as well as the interior of the organ, come into view. Not only this, but when the vocal cords are widely separated it is possible to inspect the interior of the trachea as low down as its bifurcation.



A B

FIG. 692.—CAVITY OF THE LARYNX, as seen by means of the laryngoscope.

A. The rima glottidis closed. B. The rima glottidis widely open.

1. Rings of the trachea.
2. Processus vocalis of the arytenoid cartilage.
3. Arytæno-epiglottidean fold.
4. Sinus pyriformis.
5. Laryngeal sinus.
6. Vallecula.
7. True vocal cord.
8. Cushion of epiglottis.
9. Middle glosso-epiglottidean fold.
10. Base of tongue.
11. Epiglottis.
12. False vocal cord.
13. Cuneiform tubercle.
14. Tubercle of Santorini.

In such an examination the arched upper border of the epiglottis constitutes a conspicuous object, whilst behind this, the bulging on the anterior wall of the vestibule, formed by the cushion of the epiglottis, may constitute a feature of the picture. The middle glosso-epiglottidean ligament, with the vallecular fossa on either side of it, can also be inspected in the interval between the epiglottis and the base of the tongue. The sharp arytenoepiglottidean folds are clearly visible, and in the back portion of each of these can be seen the two prominent tubercles which are formed by the enclosed cuneiform cartilage and the cartilage of Santorini. Behind these tubercles is the posterior wall of the pharynx, whilst to their outer side the deep sinus pyriformis may be seen. In the interior of the larynx the false and the true vocal cords are easily recognised, and the interval between the false and the true cord, or, in other words, the entrance into the laryngeal sinus, appears as a dark line on the side wall of the larynx. The false vocal cords are red and fleshy-looking; the true vocal cords during phonation are tightly stretched and pearly white—the white colour being usually more apparent in the female than in the male. The outline and yellowish tinge of the processus vocalis at its attachment to the true vocal cord, as well as, to a slight extent, the outline of the fore part of the base of the arytenoid cartilage, can in a successful laryngoscopic examination be made out. The true vocal cords during ordinary inspiration are seldom at rest, and with the laryngoscope their movements may be studied. It should be borne in mind that the picture afforded by the laryngoscope does not give a true idea of the level at which the different parts lie. The cavity appears greatly shortened, and its depth diminished.

THE TRACHEA.

The **trachea** or **windpipe** is a wide tube which is kept permanently patent by

, series of cartilaginous rings embedded in its wall. These rings are deficient posteriorly, and consequently the tube is not completely cylindrical: its hinder wall is flattened. The trachea begins above at the lower border of the cricoid cartilage, and opposite the lower margin of the sixth cervical vertebra. From this it extends downwards through the lower part of the neck into the superior mediastinum of the thorax, in which it ends at the level of the upper border of the fifth dorsal vertebra by dividing into the right and left bronchus. The length of the trachea in the male is from four to four and a half inches, and in the female from three and a half to four inches, but even in the same individual it varies considerably in length with the movements of the head and neck.

The lower end of the trachea is fixed in position. This is a necessary provision to prevent dragging on the roots of the lungs during movements of the head and neck. The remainder of the tube is surrounded by a quantity of loose areolar tissue, and possesses a considerable amount of mobility. Further, its wall is highly elastic, and thus when the head is thrown back the tube elongates through stretching, and when the chin is depressed its length is diminished by the recoil of its wall.

The trachea does not present an absolutely uniform calibre throughout its whole length. About its middle it exhibits a slight expansion or dilatation, and from this the calibre diminishes in an upward and a downward direction. Close to the bifurcation it is again slightly expanded (Braune and Stahel).

These differences in the calibre of the tube are determined by the surroundings of the trachea. The upper part is narrowed through its being clasped by the thyroid body. Further, a short distance above the bifurcation an impression, sometimes strongly marked, is usually seen on the left side of the trachea. This is due to the close contact of the aortic arch as it passes backwards against this part of the tube. It is evident therefore that the second slight diminution in calibre which is described by Braune and Stahel is produced by the proximity of the aorta. Lejars gives the average antero-posterior diameter of the trachea in the living person as 11 mm., and the transverse diameter as 12·5 mm. In the dead subject the lumen of the tube is considerably greater.

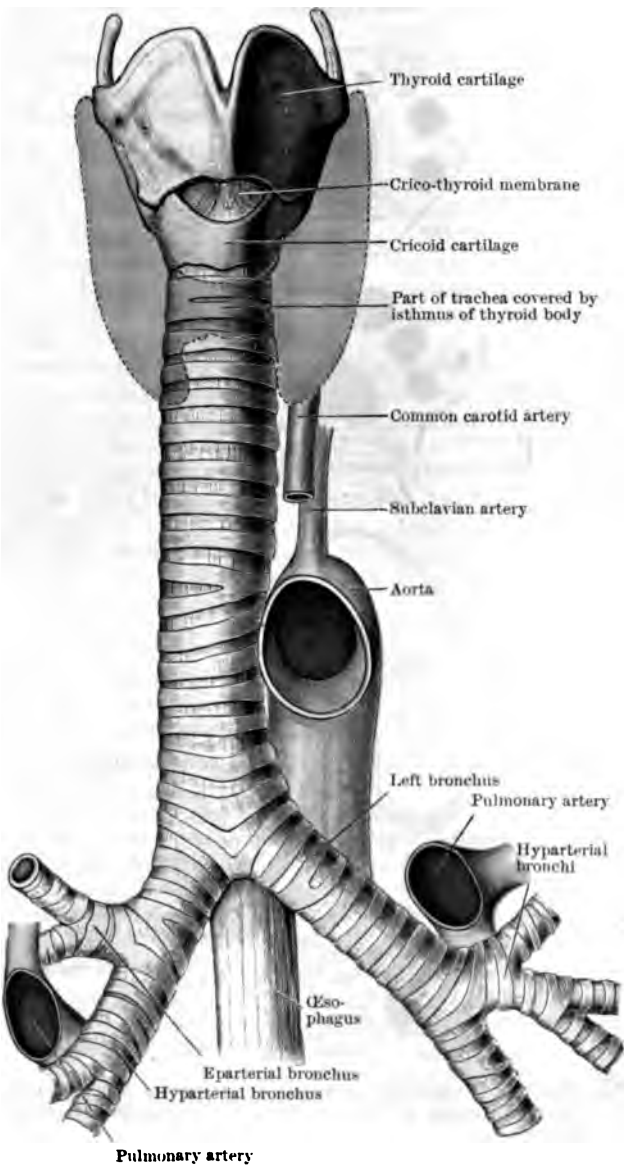


FIG. 693.—THE TRACHEA AND BRONCHI.

The thyroid body is indicated by a dotted line and a purple tint.

The trachea adheres rigorously to the median line except towards its lower end, where it deviates very slightly to the right. As it descends it recedes rapidly from the surface. This is due to its following the curvature of the vertebral column, from which it is separated by the œsophagus alone.

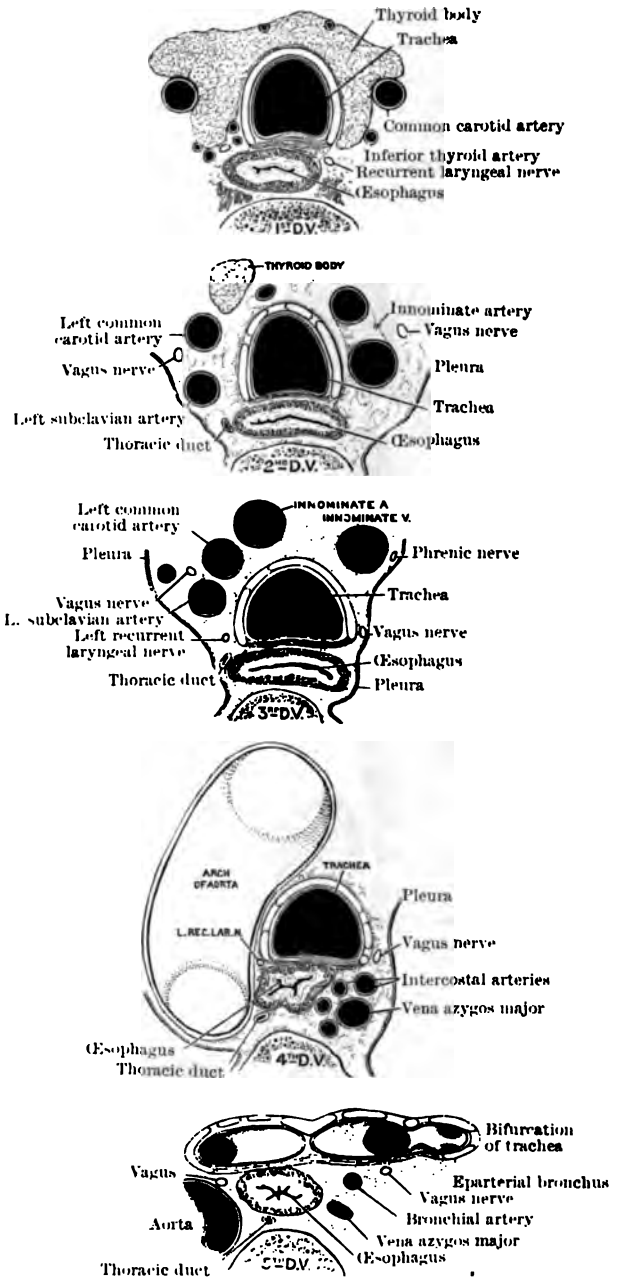


FIG. 694.—TRANSVERSE SECTIONS through the trachea and its immediate surroundings at the level of each of the upper five dorsal vertebræ.

Relations of the Trachea.—In the study of the relations of the trachea it is convenient to consider it in the two stages of cervical and thoracic.

When the chin is held so that the face looks forwards the **cervical part** of the trachea measures from 2 to 2½ inches in length; but when the head is thrown back the length is considerably increased. In its upper part the trachea is clasped by the thyroid body, the isthmus of which is applied to its anterior surface, and covers the second, third, and fourth rings, whilst on each side the lateral lobe of the same body is applied to its lateral surface, and extends downwards as low as the fifth ring. On either side of the cervical trachea is the common carotid artery, whilst the recurrent laryngeal nerve ascends in the groove between the trachea and the œsophagus. Posteriorly the trachea is in relation to the œsophagus, which intervenes between it and the bodies of the vertebræ, and deviates somewhat to the left as it descends.

In addition to the isthmus of the thyroid body two thin muscular strata, composed of the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles, and also the deep fascia and integument, separate the cervical trachea from the surface. In the middle line of the neck there is a narrow diamond-shaped space between the inner margins of these muscles, within which the trachea is merely covered by the integuments and fasciæ. It is important to note that in the lower part of the neck the deep cervical fascia is in two layers—viz. a strong stratum applied to the anterior surface of the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles, and a weaker superficial layer stretching across between the two sterno-mastoid muscles. Beneath these muscular *and fascial* layers the inferior thyroid veins descend on the surface of the trachea.

nd sometimes the occasional thyroidea ima artery passes upwards in front of the ıbe. At the upper border of the manubrium sterni the innominate artery may e seen crossing the trachea obliquely.

The **thoracic part** of the trachea is situated in the back part of the superior ıediastinum, being separated from the bodies of the vertebræ by the œsophagus lone. Immediately above its bifurcation the deep cardiac plexus of nerves is laced in front and on either side of the trachea. At the level of the fourth dorsal ertebra the aortic arch is very intimately related to it. At first in front of the ube, the aortic arch passes backwards in close contact with its left side. The hree great vessels which spring from the aortic arch are also placed in close proximity o the trachea. The innominate and left common carotid arteries, at first in front, radually diverge as they proceed upwards and come to lie on either side of the ube—the innominate to the right, and the left common carotid to the left. In ront of these vessels are the left innominate vein and the remains of the thymus ody. On the right side the thoracic part of the trachea is in relation to the right agus nerve, and is clothed by the right mediastinal pleura; on the left side are he left subclavian artery and the left recurrent laryngeal nerve.

Structure of the Wall of the Trachea.—The wall of the trachea and bronchi is omposed of (1) a fibro-elastic membrane in which the cartilaginous rings are embedded; 2) within this, and on the posterior aspect of the tube, a layer of muscular tissue, termed he musculus trachealis; and (3) the lining mucous membrane.

The **fibro-elastic membrane** is strong and dense, and, passing round the whole circumerence of the tube, it becomes continuous superiorly with the perichondrium which nvests the cricoid cartilage. Embedded in its substance are the series of **cartilaginous ings**. These vary in number from 15 to 20, and are composed of hyaline cartilage. They are horseshoe-shaped, the posterior fourth of the circumference being deficient, so hat behind, each ring ends in two rounded extremities. The external surface of a tracheal ing is flat and even, and does not project much beyond the level of the membrane in vhich it is embedded; the inner surface, however, is convex in the vertical direction, and onsequently it bulges slightly into the lumen of the trachea. The intervals between the ings are somewhat narrower than the rings themselves, and neighbouring rings frequently how a more or less complete fusion, whilst others present other irregularities, such as a endency to bifurcate. The lowest ring is specially adapted to the tracheal bifurcation. n the middle line in front it inclines downwards, and from this median peak a cartilaginous trip is carried backwards in the fork between the two bronchi.

The **musculus trachealis** is a continuous layer of involuntary muscular tissue placed n the posterior part of the wall in front of the fibro-elastic membrane. The muscular ıundles are arranged transversely, and are attached to the extremities of the rings, and lso to the deep surface of the rings for a short distance beyond their extremities. In the ntervals between the rings the transverse muscular bundles are attached to the fibrolastic membrane. It is evident that, by its contraction, this muscle will reduce in a narked degree the lumen of the tube.

The **mucous membrane** is laid smoothly over the interior of the tube upon a layer of ubmucous areolar tissue. Lymphoid tissue enters largely into the composition of the racheal mucous membrane, and its inner surface is lined by columnar ciliated epithelial ells. The action of the cilia exercises an important influence in producing an upward novement of the mucus which is present on the surface of the mucous membrane.

Numerous longitudinal bundles of elastic tissue are present in the posterior wall of he trachea, more particularly in its lower part, between the mucous membrane and the nusculus trachealis.

In connexion with the mucous membrane there is a plentiful supply of **acinose mucous ;lands**. These are placed in the submucous tissue, and also on the posterior aspect of the ıbe on the exterior of the musculus trachealis as well as amidst its muscular bundles. They send their ducts to the surface of the mucous membrane, where they open by ;rumpet-shaped mouths.

THE BRONCHI.

The two **bronchi** proceed obliquely downwards and outwards from the termina-ion of the trachea, each towards the hilum of the corresponding lung. Like the ıachea they are kept permanently patent by the presence of cartilaginous rings in heir walls. These rings are deficient posteriorly, so that the bronchi exhibit a

flattened posterior surface in every respect similar to the trachea. The two bronchi differ from each other, not only in the relations which they present to surrounding structures, but also in length, in width, and in the direction which they pursue (Fig. 693, p. 973).

The first collateral branch arises from the right bronchus, much nearer the trachea than in the case of the left bronchus. It is this which determines the length of these primary divisions of the trachea, and although there is much variation in this matter, it may be said that, as a rule, the left bronchus is at least twice as long as the right bronchus. According to Henle there are from six to eight rings in the right and from nine to twelve rings in the left bronchus. A marked difference is also noticeable in the calibre of the two tubes. The right bronchus is wider than the left in the proportion of 100 : 78·4 (Braune and Stahel), and this asymmetry is clearly due to the fact that the right lung is more bulky than the left. The right bronchus, as it passes towards the hilum of the right lung, takes a more vertical course than the left bronchus. It therefore lies more in the line of the trachea, and to this, as well as to its greater width, is due the greater tendency which foreign bodies exhibit, when introduced into the trachea, to drop into the right in preference to the left bronchus. The average angle which the right bronchus forms with the median plane is 24·8°, whilst the angle formed by the left bronchus with the median plane is 45·6°. The more horizontal course of the left bronchus is probably determined by the marked projection of the heart to the left side of the mesial plane (Merkel).

Relations of the Bronchi.—Arching forwards over the right bronchus is the vena azygos major, whilst arching backwards over the left bronchus there is the arch of the aorta. Occupying the interval between the bronchi there is a cluster of bronchial lymphatic glands, and an irregular chain of similar glands is carried along each tube towards the hilum of the lung. On the posterior aspect of each bronchus the vagus nerve breaks up into the posterior pulmonary plexus, whilst the left bronchus, as it proceeds downwards and outwards, crosses in front of the œsophagus and the descending thoracic aorta. But perhaps the most interesting relation is that presented on each side by the corresponding pulmonary artery. On the left side the pulmonary artery crosses in front of the left bronchus above the level of its first collateral branch, and then turns round its outer side to gain its posterior aspect. All the left bronchial branches, therefore, are placed below the left pulmonary artery, and are in consequence termed **hyparterial**. The right pulmonary artery, on the other hand, crosses in front of the continuation of the right bronchus below its first collateral branch. This branch is therefore termed the **eparterial bronchus**, whilst all the others are classified as hyparterial.

Structure of the Walls of the Bronchi.—The walls of the bronchi present a structure similar to that seen in the trachea.

THE THORACIC CAVITY.

A central vertical partition, termed the **mediastinum thoracis**, which extends from the vertebral column behind to the anterior thoracic wall in front, subdivides the thoracic cavity into two large lateral chambers which contain the lungs. From the fact of each of these chambers being lined by an extensive and separate serous membrane called the **pleura**, they receive the name of the **pleural cavities**.

The mediastinum or intervening partition is built up of several structures which lie in or in close proximity to the mesial plane. The more important of these are the heart, enveloped in its pericardium, the thoracic aorta, with the great vessels which spring from its arch, the pulmonary artery, and the great veins in the neighbourhood of the heart, the thymus gland or its remains, the trachea, œsophagus, and thoracic duct, and the pneumogastric and phrenic nerves.

The pleural cavities in which the two lungs lie comprise much the largest part of the thoracic cavity. Each is bounded *below* by the corresponding cupola of the diaphragm; and as the right cupola rises to a higher level than the left, the right pleural cavity presents a smaller vertical depth than the left. *In front*, the wall of each pleural chamber is formed by the costal cartilages and the sternum:

terally, by the shafts of the ribs and the intercostal muscles as far back as the ngles of the ribs; *behind*, by the portions of the ribs, with the intervening inter-ostal muscles, which lie internal to the costal angles; and *internally*, by the bodies f the vertebræ and the mediastinal partition which completely shut off the one hamber from the other.

The mediastinum is not median in position. Owing to the marked projection f the heart to the left side, and to the position of the descending thoracic aorta on ıe left side of the mesial plane, the left pleural chamber, although it is deeper ıan the right, is greatly reduced in width. The two pleural cavities, therefore, re very far from being symmetrical in form.

Each pleural cavity is completely lined by a separate serous membrane termed ıe **pleura**. The portion of this membrane which clothes the mediastinum or ıtervening partition forms the lateral boundary of a space termed the **mediastinal** r **interpleural space**, within which the parts which build up the mediastinum are laced.

THE TWO PLEURAL MEMBRANES.

The pleura or pleural membrane of each side not only lines the corresponding leural cavity, but at the pulmonary root it is prolonged on to the lung so as to ive it a complete investment. It is customary, therefore, to recognise a **visceral** r **investing part** (pleura visceralis) and a **parietal** or **lining part** (pleura parietalis). he inner surface of the membrane (*i.e.* that surface which is turned towards the ıterior of the cavity) is coated with squamous endothelium, and presents a smooth, listening, and polished appearance; further, it is moistened by a small amount of ɔrous fluid. In consequence of this the surface of the lung covered by visceral leura can glide on the wall of the cavity, lined as it is by parietal pleura, with the ast possible degree of friction. In the pathological condition known as pleurisy ıe surface of the membrane becomes roughened by inflammatory exudation, and ıe so-called "friction sounds" become ɾident when the ear is applied to the ıest.

Visceral Pleura. — The visceral leura is very thin, and is so firmly ɔund down to the surface of the lung ıat it cannot be detached without ceration of the pulmonary substance, ıd then only in small pieces. It ps into the fissures of the lungs, nes them down to the very bottom, ıd thus completely separates the dif-rent lobes of the lungs from each other. he visceral pleura becomes continuous ith the mediastinal part of the parietal eura over the root of the lung, and so through the ligamentum latum ılmonis.

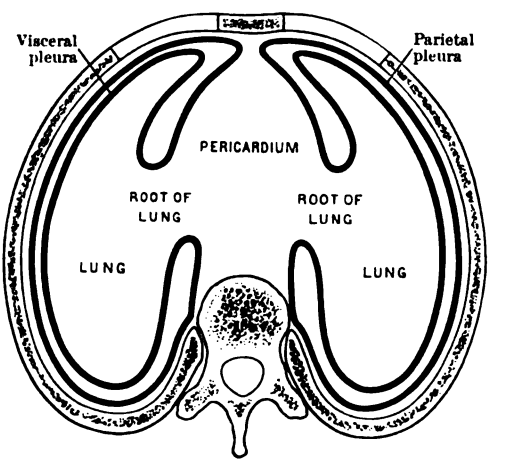


FIG. 695.—DIAGRAM SHOWING ARRANGEMENT OF PLEURAL SACS, as seen in transverse section.

Parietal Pleura.—Different names ɛ applied to the parietal pleura as it lines the different parts of the wall of the ,vity in which the lung lies. Thus there is the costal pleura, the diaphragmatic eura, the mediastinal pleura, and the cervical pleura; but it must be borne in ind that these terms are merely used for convenience in description, and the ɔrtions of the membrane so designated are all directly continuous with each her.

The **cervical pleura** rises up into the root of the neck, through the superior ɛrture of the thorax, and forms a dome-shaped roof for the pleural cavity. Its ımmit or highest point reaches the level of the lower border of the neck of the st rib; but owing to the great obliquity of the first costal arch, this point is aced from one to two inches above the anterior extremity of the first rib, and ɔm a half to one and a half inches above the clavicle. The cervical dome of

reflection-lines are subject to marked variations in different subjects. Consequently the following description must be regarded as merely giving the average condition.

The **posterior** or **vertebral line of pleural reflection** is that along which the costal pleura is continued forwards from the vertebral column to become the mediastinal pleura. On the *right side*, above the root of the lung, the pleura passes from the bodies of the vertebræ on to the right side of the trachea; whilst below this level, and behind the pericardium, it passes from the vertebral bodies on to the œsophagus. On the *left side*, and above the arch of the aorta the pleura along this line of reflection is carried from the vertebral column on to the œsophagus and thoracic duct; below that level it passes on to the descending thoracic aorta. In the upper part of the chest the right and left lines of reflection are placed well apart from each other, and about equidistant from the mesial plane. As they are traced downwards they approach more closely to each other and deviate to the left, so that whilst the reflection on the *right side* takes place from the front aspect of the vertebral bodies, on the *left side* it takes place from the left aspect of the vertebral column. This is due to the position of the descending thoracic aorta.

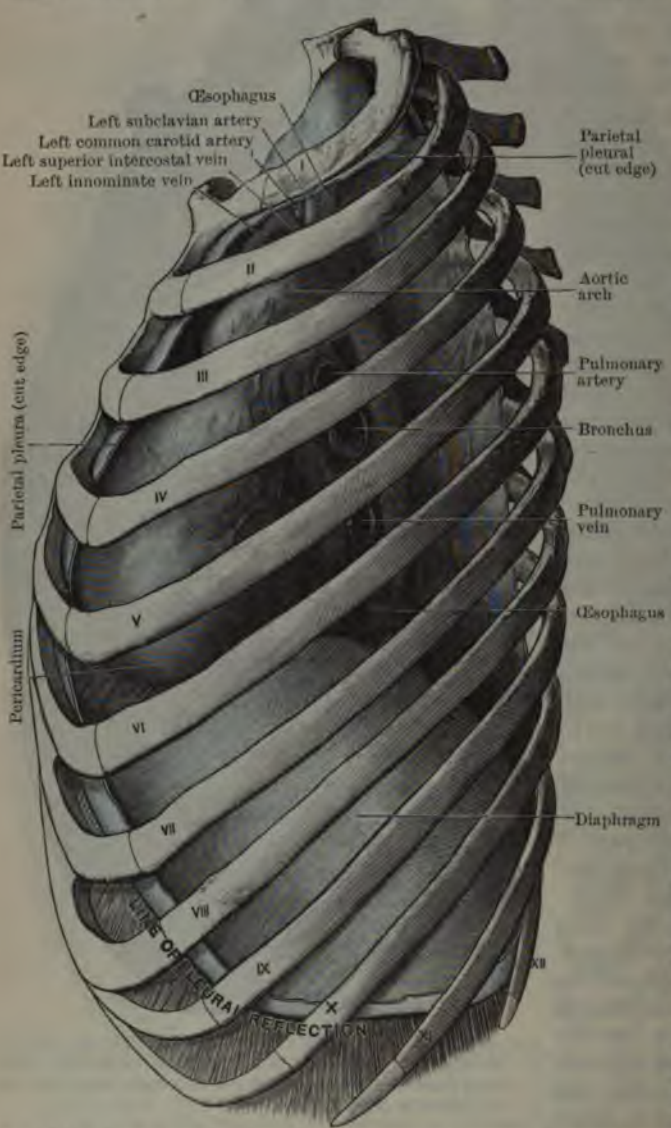


FIG. 698.—LEFT PLEURAL SAC IN A SUBJECT HARDENED BY FORMALIN-INJECTION, opened into by the removal of the costal part of the parietal pleura. The lung has also been removed so as to display the mediastinal pleura.

The **anterior line of pleural reflection** is that along which the costal pleura leaves the anterior thoracic wall to become the mediastinal pleura. The line differs somewhat on the two sides, and in both cases shows a tendency to deviate to the left (Fig. 696, p. 978). Behind the upper part of the manubrium sterni the two pleural sacs are separated from each other by an angular interval. The lines of reflection at the inlet of the thorax correspond to the sterno-clavicular joints. From these points, as they are traced downwards, they converge on the back of the manubrium, until at last they meet a short distance above the upper end of the gladiolus. Here the two sacs come into contact with each other, and the lines of reflection coincide. From this they proceed downwards on the back of the sternum, with a slight deviation to the left of the mesial plane, until a point immediately above the level of the sternal attachments of the fourth costal cartilages is reached, and here the two sacs part company. The line of reflection of the *right pleura* is continued downwards in a straight line behind the sternum until the back of the ensiform cartilage is reached, and here the sternal reflection-line passes into the right diaphragmatic

reflection-line. Opposite the sternal attachment of the fourth costal cartilage the reflection line of the *left pleura* deviates outwards on the back of the sternum, and is continued downwards at a variable distance from the right pleura. A small triangular area of pericardium is thus left uncovered by pleura, and therefore in direct contact with the anterior chest-wall. Leaving the sternum, the reflection-line of the left pleura descends parallel and close to the left margin of the sternum behind the fourth intercostal space, the fifth costal cartilage and the fifth intercostal space, to the back of the sixth costal cartilage. Here it turns outwards and downwards, and passes into the diaphragmatic reflection-line of the left side.

From the back of the sternum the *right pleura* is reflected in the upper part of the chest on to the remains of the thymus, the right innominate vein and the superior vena cava, and below this directly on to the front of the pericardium. The *left pleura* is reflected from the back of the manubrium sterni on to the left innominate vein and the aortic arch, and below this directly on to the front of the pericardium.

The **diaphragmatic line of reflection** is that along which the pleura leaves the thoracic wall and is reflected on to the upper surface of the diaphragm. This reflection takes place along a curved line, which, except behind as it approaches the vertebral column, is placed a short distance above the lower border of the thoracic wall. It differs somewhat on the two sides of the body.

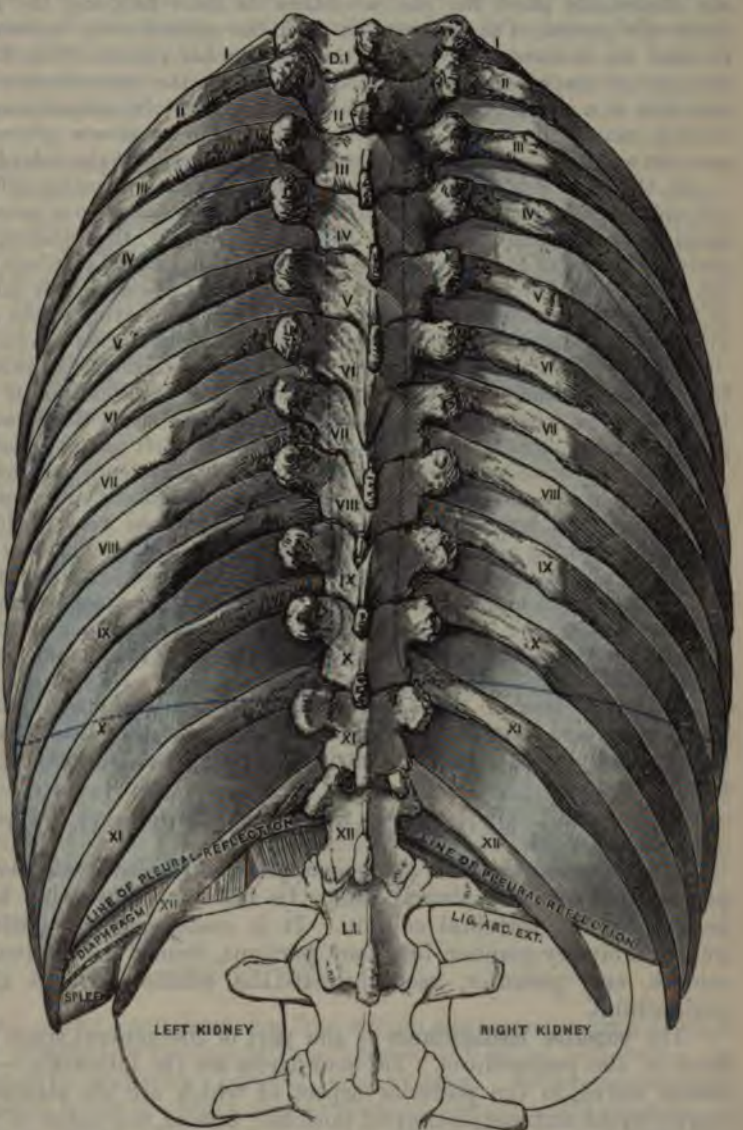


FIG. 699.—DISSECTION OF THE PLEURAL SACS FROM BEHIND.
The blue lines indicate the outlines and the fissures of the lungs.

On the *left side* the diaphragmatic line of reflection proceeds downwards behind the ascending part of the sixth costal cartilage, crosses behind the anterior end of the sixth intercostal space and the descending part of the cartilage of the seventh rib (Fig. 698). Still continuing to descend, it passes behind the eighth costal arch at the junction between its cartilaginous and bony portions. This is a fairly constant relation on both sides of the body, and it should be noted that a vertical line drawn downwards from the nipple (mammillary line) intersects the line of pleural reflection close to the point where it presents this relation to the eighth costal arch. Beyond this point the line of diaphragmatic reflection is carried downwards and outwards across the extremities of the bony portions

of the ninth and tenth ribs. As it passes under cover of the tenth rib, or it may be as it proceeds across the tenth intercostal space, the line of pleural reflection reaches its lowest point, and it is important to observe that this point lies in the mid-lateral line (*i.e.* a vertical line drawn downwards on the side of the chest midway between spine and sternum). From this it ascends slightly as it curves backwards towards the spine. Thus it cuts across the eleventh rib and reaches the twelfth rib. The relation which it presents to the twelfth rib varies in accordance with the length of that rib. When the last rib is not abnormally short the pleura clothes its inner half, and the line of reflection falls below this portion of the rib so as to reach the spine midway between the head of the last rib and the transverse process of the first lumbar vertebra (Fig. 699). Here, therefore, the line of diaphragmatic reflection falls below the lower border of the thoracic wall, and this is a point of high practical importance. In operations upon the kidney the incision cannot be carried above the level of the transverse process of the first lumbar vertebra and the ligamentum arcuatum externum without the risk of wounding the pleura.

On the *right side* the line of diaphragmatic pleural reflection differs from that on the left chiefly in front (Fig. 697, p. 979). Here it descends to a lower level. Thus it proceeds outwards and downwards from the back of the ensiform cartilage along the posterior aspect of the ascending part of the seventh costal cartilage, and it passes beneath the eighth costal arch, as a rule, at the same point as on the left side, viz. at the junction of its cartilaginous and bony parts. From this backwards to the spine the relations are so similar to those of the left side that a separate description is unnecessary.

It is commonly stated that the left pleural sac reaches a lower level than the right. In certain cases there is no doubt that it does, but this condition is by no means the rule. In those cases where the two pleural sacs do not reach the same level at their lowest points, it is sometimes the right and sometimes the left pleura which oversteps the mark.

As already stated, the lowest point to which the pleura descends is usually found, on both sides, in the mid-lateral line where the diaphragmatic reflection-line crosses the tenth rib or the tenth intercostal space. This point can be very readily ascertained on the surface by drawing a horizontal line round the trunk at the level of the lower part of the extremity of the spinous process of the first lumbar vertebra, and noting where it is intersected by the mid-lateral line. In the majority of cases the point of intersection will correspond with the lowest part of the pleural sac. Another horizontal line opposite the spine of the last dorsal vertebra will give the level of the diaphragmatic pleural reflection in the mammillary line.[1]

Along the line of the diaphragmatic reflection a strong fascia passes from the lower uncovered part of the diaphragm, and from the costal cartilages to the surface of the costal pleura, so as to hold it firmly in its place. It may be termed the **phrenico-pleural fascia**.

MEDIASTINAL OR INTERPLEURAL SPACE.

The term mediastinal space is applied to the interval between the mediastinal portions of the two pleural sacs. In front it is bounded by the sternum, and behind by the vertebral column. It is customary to subdivide this space in a purely arbitrary manner into four portions, termed respectively superior, anterior, middle, and posterior, according to the relations which they present to the pericardium.

The **superior mediastinum** is the part of the general space which lies above the level of the pericardium. Its boundaries are the following:—*In front*, the manubrium sterni, to the posterior aspect of which are the attached lower ends of the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroid muscles; *behind*, the bodies of the upper four dorsal vertebræ; *below*, an imaginary and oblique plane, which extends from the lower border of the manubrium sterni backwards and upwards to the lower border of the fourth dorsal vertebra; *laterally*, the mediastinal pleura.

Within the superior mediastinal space are placed (1) the aortic arch and the three great arteries which spring from it; (2) the innominate veins and the upper part of the superior vena cava; (3) the trachea, gullet, and thoracic duct; (4) the phrenic, pneumogastric, left recurrent laryngeal and cardiac nerves; (5) the thymus gland.

[1] The above description represents the average results which have been obtained from the study of the pleura in a large number of subjects, eight of which were specially hardened by formalin or other re-agents for the purpose. For many of the dissections I have to thank my former assistant, Dr. H. St. J. Brooks, and for others I am indebted to Professor C. J. Patten of Sheffield.

The middle mediastinum is the wide part of the space which contains the pericardium, and lies below the superior mediastinum. In addition to the pericardium and its contents the middle mediastinum contains the phrenic nerves and their accompanying vessels.

The anterior mediastinum is that part of the interpleural space which lies between the pericardium behind and the sternum in front. In its upper part this space can hardly be said to exist, seeing that here the two pleural sacs come into contact with each other on the anterior aspect of the pericardium; but below the level of the sternal ends of the fourth costal cartilages the left pleura falls short of the right pleura, and an interval is apparent. The only contents to be noticed in the anterior mediastinum are a few lymphatic glands and some areolar tissue, in which ramify some lymphatic vessels, and some minute twigs from the internal mammary artery.

The **posterior mediastinum** is that part of the interpleural space which is situated behind the pericardium. It may be regarded as the continuation downwards of the posterior part of the superior mediastinum, and many of the structures in the one are prolonged downwards into the other. The arbitrary upper limit of the posterior mediastinum is the lower border of the fourth dorsal vertebra. *In front* it is bounded by the pericardium, except in its lowest portion, where the anterior wall is formed by the back of the diaphragm. *Behind* it is limited by the bodies of the eight lower dorsal vertebræ, and *on each side* by the mediastinal pleura. It contains the descending thoracic aorta with the left aortic intercostal arteries, the azygos veins, the thoracic duct and the œsophagus, with the two pneumogastric nerves.

Structure of the Pleura.—The pleura on each side is a closed sac, and, like other serous membranes, it is attached by its outer surface to the wall of the cavity which it lines and to the surface of the viscus which it covers. It is composed of a thin connective-tissue stratum in which bundles of fibres cross each other in various directions, and intermixed with which there is a considerable quantity of elastic tissue. On the inner surface of this there is a continuous coating of thin endothelial cells placed edge to edge. The pleura so formed is attached to the parts it lines and invests by a small amount of areolar tissue which forms a **subserous layer**. In the case of the visceral pleura the subserous tissue is continuous with the areolar tissue in the substance of the lung, and this accounts for the tight manner in which the membrane is bound down.

The pleura is plentifully supplied with blood. This is conveyed to it by minute twigs from the intercostal arteries, the internal mammary artery, and the bronchial arteries. Lymphatic vessels also are particularly abundant in the pleura and in the subserous layer, and it is by these that excess of fluid is conveyed from its cavity. Many lymphatic vessels communicate directly with the cavity by means of excessively minute orifices termed **stomata**. Dybkowsky has shown that the lymphatics and stomata of the pleura are not equally distributed throughout the membrane. Over the ribs and on the mediastinal pleura they are absent.

THE LUNGS.

When healthy and sound each lung lies free within the corresponding pleural chamber, and is only attached by its root and the ligamentum latum pulmonis. It is not common, however, to meet with a perfectly healthy lung. Adhesions between the visceral and parietal layers of pleura, due to pleurisy, are generally present.

Like the cavities in which they are placed, the two lungs are not precisely alike. The right lung is slightly larger than the left, in the proportion of about 11 to 10. The right lung is also shorter and wider than the left lung. This difference is due to the great bulk of the right lobe of the liver, which elevates the right cupola of the diaphragm to a higher level than the left cupola, and likewise to the heart and pericardium projecting more to the left than to the right, and thus diminishing the width of the left lung.

The lung is light, soft, and spongy in texture; when pressed between the finger and thumb it crepitates, and when placed in water it floats. The elasticity of the pulmonary tissue is very remarkable. A striking demonstration of this is afforded when the thoracic cavity is opened, and the atmospheric pressure acting

upon the interior and exterior of the lung is equalised. Immediately the organ collapses to about one-third of its original bulk, and it becomes impossible in such a specimen to study its proper form and dimensions.

The surface of the adult lung presents a mottled appearance. The ground colour is a light slate-blue, but scattered over this there are numerous dark patches of various sizes, and also fine dark intersecting lines. The coloration of

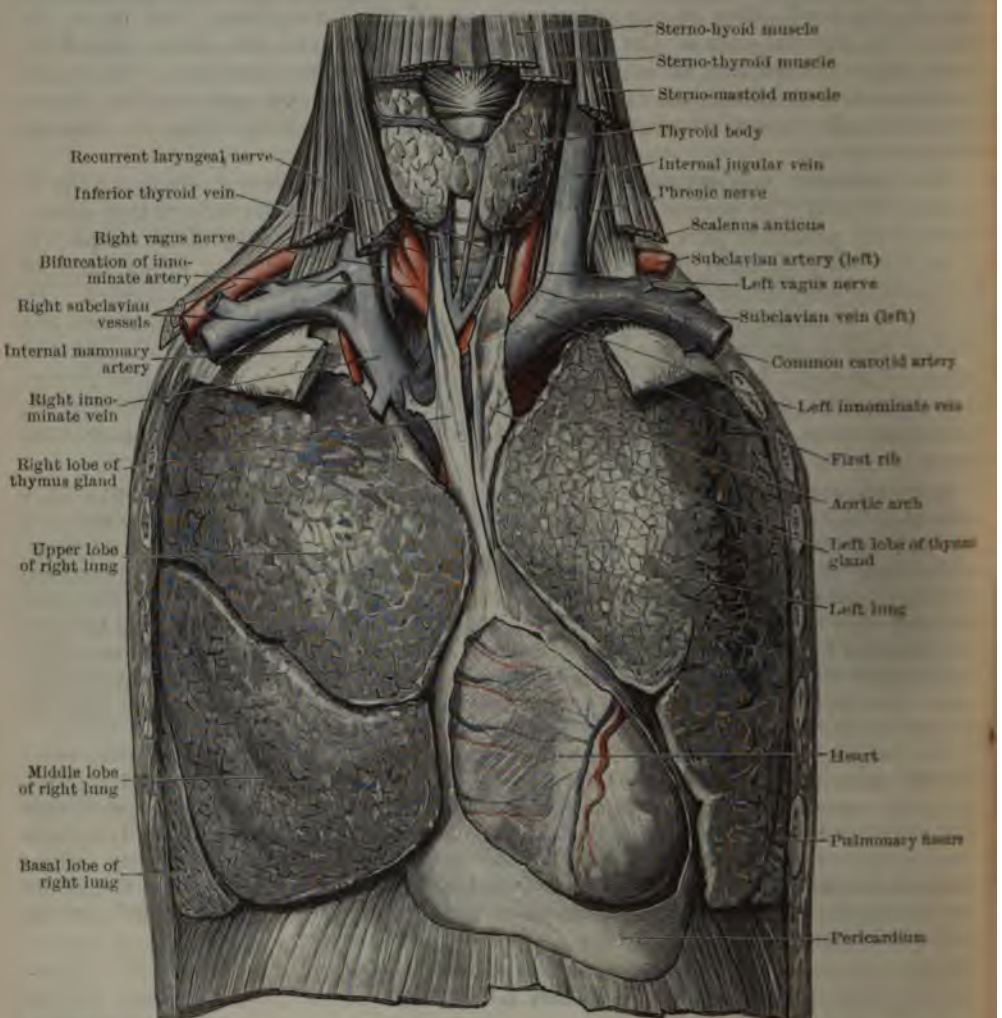


FIG. 700.—DISSECTION OF THORAX AND ROOT OF THE NECK FROM THE FRONT TO SHOW THE RELATIONS OF THE LUNGS, PERICARDIUM AND THYMUS GLAND.

the lung differs considerably at different periods of life. In early childhood the lung is rosy-pink, and the darker colour and the mottling of the surface which appear later are due to the pulmonary substance, and chiefly the interstitial areolar tissue becoming impregnated more or less completely with atmospheric dust and minute particles of soot.

At every breath foreign matter of this kind is inhaled, but only a small proportion of it reaches the lung tissue. The greater part of it becomes entangled in the slimy mucus which coats the mucous membrane of the larger air-passages, and is gradually got rid of along with the mucus through the activity of the cilia attached to the lining epithelium. By the constant upward sweep of these a current towards the pharynx is established. The fine dust and soot particles which reach the finer recesses of the lungs, and ultimately the interstitial tissue, is partly conveyed away by the lymphatic vessels to the bronchial glands, which in consequence become in many cases absolutely black. The colour of the lung, therefore, depends in some

extent upon the purity of the atmosphere which is inhaled, and it thus happens that in coal-miners the surface of the lung may be very nearly uniformly black.

The fœtal lung differs in a marked degree from the lung in an individual who has breathed. After respiration is fully established, the lung soon comes to occupy almost the whole space allotted to it in the pleural cavity; in the fœtus, on the other hand, the lung is packed away at the back, and occupies a relatively much smaller amount of space in the thoracic cavity. Further, it is firm to the touch, and sinks in water. It is only when air and an increased supply of blood are introduced into the lung that it assumes the soft spongy and buoyant qualities which are characteristic of the adult lung.

Form of the Lungs.—The lungs are accurately adapted to the walls of the pleural chambers in which they are placed, and in the natural state they bear on

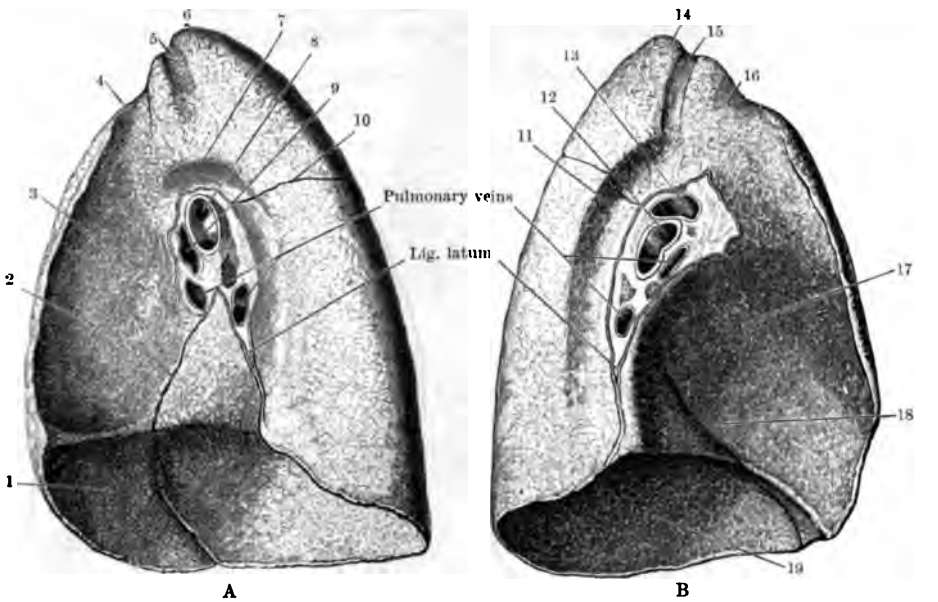


FIG. 701.—MEDIASTINAL SURFACES OF THE TWO LUNGS OF A SUBJECT HARDENED BY FORMALIN-INJECTION.

A, Right lung. B, Left lung.

1. Base.
2. Fissure.
3. Cardiac depression.
4. Groove for innominate vein.
5. Groove for innominate artery.
6. Apex pulmonis.
7. Groove for vena azygos major.
8. Eparterial bronchus.
9. Pulmonary artery (right).
10. Fissure.
11. Groove for aorta.
12. Bronchus.
13. Pulmonary artery (left).
14. Apex pulmonis.
15. Groove for left subclavian artery.
16. Groove for left innominate vein.
17. Cardiac depression.
18. Fissure.
19. Base.

the surface impressions and elevations which are an exact counterpart of the irregularities on the walls of the cavity in which they lie.

When care has been taken to harden it *in situ*, each lung presents an apex and a base, an inner and an outer surface, and an anterior and a posterior border.

The **apex pulmonis** is blunt and rounded, and rises above the level of the oblique first costal arch to the full height of the cervical dome of pleura. It therefore protrudes upwards through the thoracic inlet into the root of the neck. The subclavian artery arches outwards on its inner and anterior aspects a short distance below its summit, and a groove (sulcus subclavius) corresponding to the vessel is apparent upon it. At a lower level on the apex pulmonis a shallower and wider groove upon its inner and anterior aspects marks the position of the innominate and subclavian veins. Although these vessels impress the lung they are separated from it by the cervical pleura.

The **basis pulmonis** presents a semilunar outline, being curved around the base of the pericardium. It is adapted to the upper surface of the diaphragm, and consequently it is deeply hollowed out. As the right cupola of the diaphragm ascends higher than the left, the basal concavity of the right lung is deeper than that of

the left lung. Laterally and behind, the base of each lung is limited by a salient thin margin which descends for some distance in the narrow pleural recess (sinus phrenico-costalis) between the diaphragm and the chest wall. This basal margin of the lung extends lower down on the outer side and behind than it does in front, but it falls considerably short of the bottom of the phrenico-costal sinus of pleura. Thus, after expiration, it reaches in the mammillary line the lower border of the sixth rib; in the axillary or mid-lateral line the eighth rib; whilst behind it proceeds inwards along a straight horizontal line so as to reach the vertebral column at the level of the extremity of the spine of the tenth dorsal vertebra. During respiration the thin basal margin rises and falls in the phrenico-costal sinus of the pleura, but even after the deepest breath it never reaches the lowest limit of this recess.

The bases of the lungs establish important relations with certain of the viscera which occupy the costal zone of the abdominal cavity, the diaphragm alone intervening. Thus

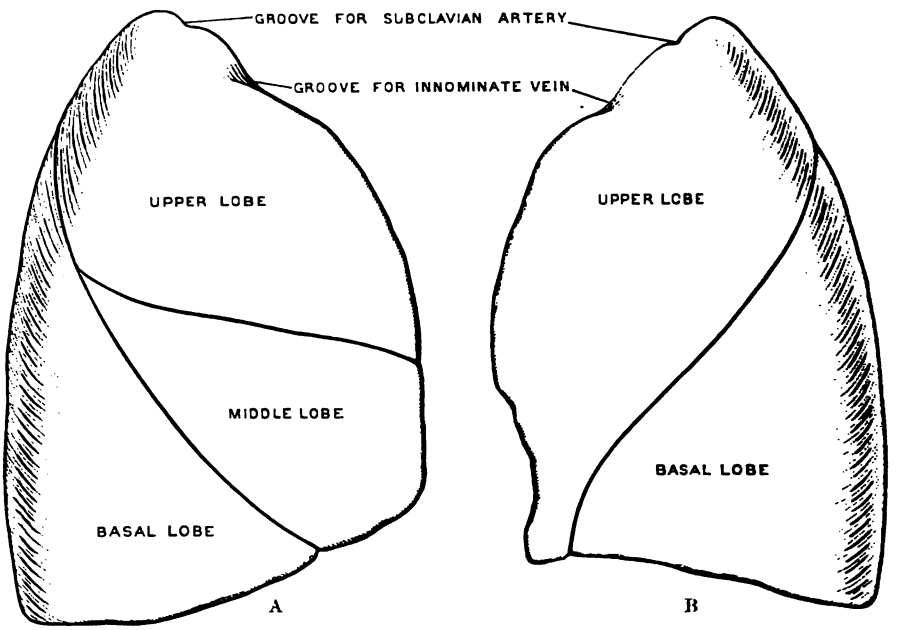


FIG. 702.—OUTER OR COSTAL SURFACES OF THE TWO LUNGS.
A, Right lung. B, Left lung.

the base of the right lung rests upon the right lobe of the liver; whilst the base of the left lung is in relation to the left lobe of the liver, the fundus of the stomach, the spleen, and in some cases to the splenic flexure of the colon.

The **outer surface of the lung** (facies costalis pulmonis) is extensive and convex. It is accurately adapted to that part of the wall of the pleural cavity which is formed by the costal arches and the intervening intercostal muscles, and it presents markings corresponding to these. Thus the imprint of the ribs appear as shallow oblique grooves, while the intercostal spaces show as elongated intervening bulgings.

The **inner or mediastinal surface** of the lung (facies mediastinalis pulmonis) presents a smaller area than the outer surface. It is applied to the mediastinal septum, and presents markings in accordance with the inequalities upon this (Fig. 701, p. 985). Thus it is deeply hollowed out in adaptation to the pericardium upon which it fits. This pericardial concavity comprises the greater part of the mediastinal surface, and owing to the greater projection of the heart to the left side, it is much deeper and more extensive in the left lung than in the right lung. Above and behind the pericardial hollow is the **hilum** of the lung. This is a wedge-shaped depressed area, within which the vessels, nerves, and lymphatics, together with the

ius, enter and leave the organ. Amidst these structures also are some iial glands. The hilum is surrounded by the reflection of the pleura from rface of the lung on to the pulmonary root. Behind the hilum and peri-

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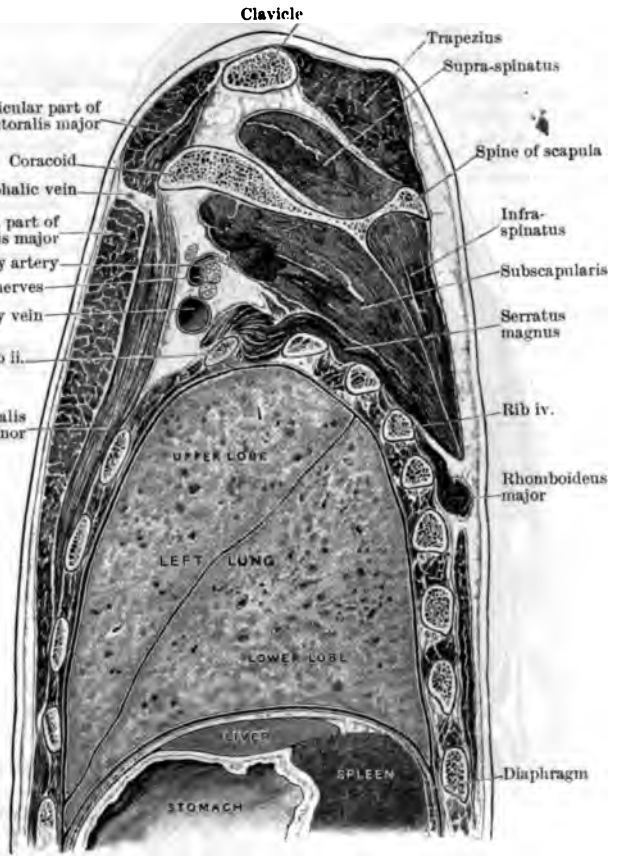


FIG. 703.—SAGITTAL SECTION THROUGH LEFT SHOULDER AND LEFT LUNG.

ngs are accordingly somewhat different on the two sides. On the *left lung* a deep groove, produced by the aortic arch, curves backwards over the hilum, ecomes continuous with the aortic groove on the posterior mediastinal e. From this a narrower, deeper, and much more sharply-marked groove ls, and turns outwards over the apex pulmonis a short distance from the it. This is the sulcus subclavius, and it contains the left subclavian artery the lung is in place. In front of this a shallow wide groove, also leading the front aspect of the apex, corresponds to the left innominate vein. In *ght lung* the hilum is also circumscribed above by a curved groove, but this row and more distinctly curved than the aortic groove on the left side. It the vena azygos major as it turns forwards to join the superior vena cava. the anterior end of the azygos sulcus a wide shallow groove extends upwards lower part of the front of the apex pulmonis. This is produced by the ition of the lung with the vena cava superior and the right innominate vein. to the summit of the apex there is also, on its inner aspect, a sulcus for the end of the innominate artery.

addition to the hilum, it must now be evident that the inner surface of each presents three areas which correspond respectively with (1) the middle stinum (*i.e.* the pericardial hollow); (2) the posterior mediastinum; and (3) the or mediastinum; and that in each of these districts impressions correspond- structures contained within these portions of the interpleural space may be d.

ie posterior border of the lung is thick, long, and rounded. It forms the most

bulky part of the organ, and occupies the deep hollow in the thoracic cavity which is placed on either side of the spine. Indeed the term "border" is somewhat inappropriate, as it forms in reality a somewhat extensive surface deeply impressed by the ribs, and not in any way marked off from the outer surface of the lung.

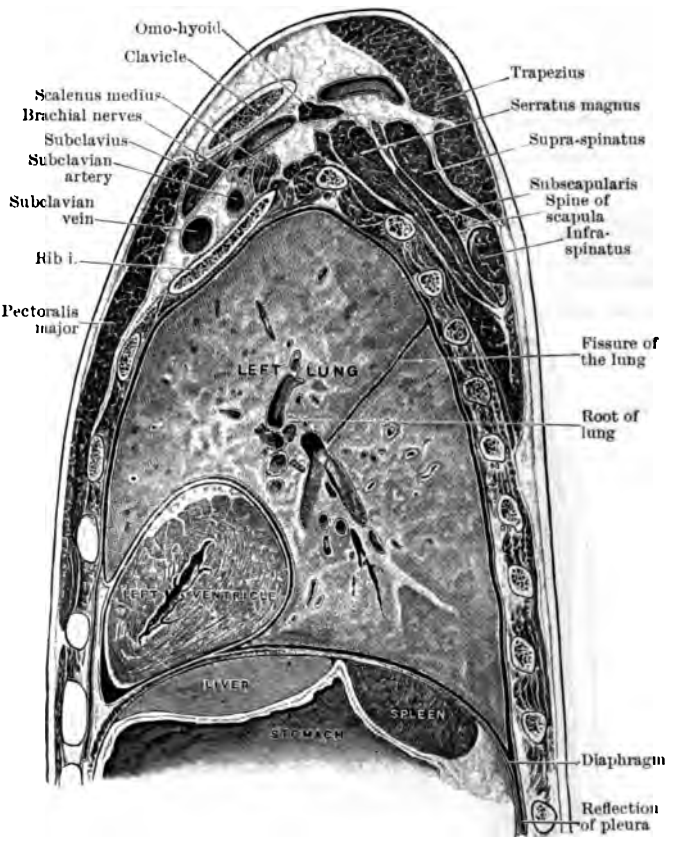


FIG. 704.—SAGITTAL SECTION THROUGH THE LEFT SHOULDER, LUNG, AND APEX OF THE HEART.

The **anterior border of the lung** is short and exceedingly thin and sharp. It begins abruptly above, immediately below the groove on the apex for the innominate vein, and extends down to the base, where it becomes continuous with the sharp basal border. The thin anterior part of the lung is carried forwards and inwards in front of the pericardium into the narrow pleural recess behind the sternum and costal cartilages (sinus costo-mediastinalis). The anterior border of the right lung fills up this recess completely, and in the upper part of the chest is only separated from the corresponding border of the left lung by the two layers of mediastinal pleura which are reflected backwards from the sternum to the pericardium. The anterior border of the left lung, in its lower part, shows a marked deficiency or notch (incisura cardiaca) corresponding to the apex of the heart, and where this exists the lung margin leaves a considerable portion of the pericardium uncovered, and fails to completely fill up the costo-mediastinal sinus of the pleural cavity. During respiration the anterior margin of the left lung at the incisura cardiaca advances and retreats to a small extent in this pleural sinus in front of the pericardium.

Fissures and Lobes of the Lungs.—The *left lung* is divided into two lobes by a long deep fissure which penetrates its substance to within a short distance of the hilum. Above and below the hilum this fissure cuts right through the lung and appears upon the mediastinal or inner surface. Viewed from the outer aspect of the organ, it begins at the posterior border about two and a half inches below the summit of the apex, about the level of the vertebral end of the third rib, and is continued downwards and forwards in a somewhat spiral direction to the base of the lung, which it reaches a short distance behind its anterior end. The **upper lobe** of the lung (lobus superior) lies above and in front of this cleft. It is conical in form, with an oblique base, and the apex and the whole of the anterior border of the lung belong to it. The **lower lobe** (lobus inferior) lies below and behind the fissure. It is the more bulky of the two, and includes almost the entire base and the greater part of the thick posterior border.

In the *right lung* there are two fissures subdividing it into three lobes. One of these fissures is very similar in its position and relations to the fissure in the left lung. It is, however, rather more vertical in its direction, and ends below somewhat

further outwards. It separates the lower lobe from the upper and middle lobes. The second cleft begins in the main fissure at the posterior border of the lung, and proceeds horizontally forwards, to end at the anterior border of the lung at the level of the fourth costal cartilage. The **middle** or **intermediate lobe** of the right lung is triangular or wedge-shaped in outline.

Variations.—Variations in the pulmonary fissures are fairly common. Thus it sometimes happens that the middle lobe of the right lung is imperfectly cut off from the upper lobe. Supernumerary fissures also are not infrequent, and in this way the left lung may be cut into three lobes, and the right lung into four or even more lobes. The occurrence of a **lobus azygos** in the right lung is a variation of some interest, seeing that such a lobe is constant in certain mammals. It is a small accessory lobe, pyramidal in form, which makes its appearance on the lower part of the inner aspect of the right lung. In certain cases the vena azygos major is enclosed within a fold of pleura, and is sunk so deeply in the pulmonary substance of the right lung that it marks off a small accessory lobe.

ROOT OF THE LUNG.

The term **root of the lung** (radix pulmonis) is applied to a number of structures which enter and leave the lung at the hilum on its inner surface. They are held together by an investment of pleura, and constitute a pedicle which attaches the lung to the mediastinal wall of the pleural cavity. The phrenic nerve descends a short distance in front of the pulmonary root, whilst the vagus nerve breaks up into the posterior pulmonary plexus on its posterior aspect under cover of the investing pleura. The delicate anterior pulmonary plexus is placed in front of the root of the lung beneath the pleura, whilst from the lower border of the root of the lung the ligamentum latum pulmonis extends downwards. These are the relations which are common to the pulmonary root on both sides of the body, but there are others which are peculiar to each side. On the *right side* the superior vena cava lies in front of the pulmonary root, whilst the vena azygos major arches over its upper aspect. On the *left side* the aorta arches over the root of the lung, whilst the descending thoracic aorta passes down behind it.

Constituent Parts of the Pulmonary Root.—The most important structures which enter into the formation of the pulmonary root are (1) the two pulmonary veins; (2) the pulmonary artery; (3) the bronchus. But in addition to these there are one or more small bronchial arteries and veins, the pulmonary nerves and the pulmonary lymphatic vessels, and some bronchial glands.

The **pulmonary nerves** come from the vagus nerve and also from the sympathetic system. They enter the lung and follow the air-tubes through the organ. The **bronchial arteries** are small vessels which carry blood for the supply of the lung tissue. They arise from the aorta or from an intercostal artery, and vary in number from one to three for each lung. In the root of the lung they lie on the posterior aspect of the bronchus, and they follow the air-tubes through the organ. Part of the blood conveyed to the lung by the bronchial arteries is returned by the pulmonary veins; the remainder is returned by special **bronchial veins** which open on the right side into the vena azygos major, and on the left side into the vena azygos minor superior.

The **lymphatic vessels** of the lung, as they emerge from the hilum, unite into a small number of trunks, which, placed behind the large pulmonary vessels, open into the bronchial glands.

The **bronchus** in the root of the lung lies behind the great pulmonary vessels. The **pulmonary artery** occupies a different position on the two sides in relation to the main or undivided part of the bronchus. On the right side it is placed below it, whilst on the left side it crosses the bronchus and occupies a higher level in the pulmonary root. The two **pulmonary veins** on both sides lie at a lower level in the root of the lung than the pulmonary artery and bronchus, whilst the upper of the two veins occupies a plane in front of the pulmonary artery (Fig. 701, p. 985).

Distribution of the Bronchial Tubes within the Lungs.—The two lungs are not symmetrical; the right lung is subdivided into three lobes, and the left lung is cleft into two lobes. The bronchi exhibit a corresponding want of symmetry. The *right bronchus*, as it approaches the pulmonary hilum, gives off two branches for the upper and middle lobes of the right lung respectively, and then the main stem of the tube enters the lower lobe. The *left bronchus* sends off a large branch to the upper lobe of the left lung, and then sinks into the lower lobe. The first branch of the right bronchus for the upper right pulmonary lobe leaves the main stem about one

inch from the trachea. The first branch of the left bronchus, on the other hand, takes origin about twice that distance from the trachea.

The relation of the pulmonary artery to the bronchial subdivisions is different on the two sides. On the right side it turns backwards to reach the posterior aspect of the bronchus below the first and above the second bronchial branch. On the left side the pulmonary artery turns backwards above the level of the first bronchial branch. On the right side, therefore, the first bronchial branch is placed above the pulmonary artery, and in consequence it is termed the **eparterial bronchus**; all the others lie below the artery, and are termed **hyparterial bronchi**. On the left side there is no eparterial branch; they are all hyparterial.

When the main stem of the bronchus is followed into the inferior lobe of each lung, it is seen to travel downwards and backwards in the pulmonary substance until it reaches the thin back part of the base of the lung which lies between the diaphragm and the thoracic wall, and there it ends. As it proceeds through the inferior lobe it gives off a series of large **ventral** and a series of smaller **dorsal branches**. As a rule these are three in number in each case, and the dorsal and ventral branches do not arise opposite to each other, but alternately, one from the back, and then another, after a slight interval, from the front of the tube. The first hyparterial division on each side (*i.e.* the branch to the middle lobe of the right lung and the branch to the upper lobe of the left side) is generally regarded as the first member of the ventral group.

It was Aeby who first recognised the existence in each lung of a main or stem bronchus giving off a ventral and dorsal series of branches, and who drew the distinction between the eparterial and hyparterial bronchial branches. A consideration of these relations led this author to conclude that the eparterial bronchus and the upper lobe of the right lung have no morphological equivalents on the left side of the body. In other words, he was led to believe that the middle lobe of the right lung is the homologue of the upper lobe of the left lung. Hasse, who has also investigated the subject, endorsed this view, with certain modifications and additions, and the hypothesis, either in its original state as presented by Aeby, or as subsequently modified by Hasse, has been, until lately, very generally accepted by anatomists. More recent research, however, has seriously affected the stability of this conclusion. Narath contends that the distinction between the eparterial bronchus of the right side and the hyparterial bronchi of both sides is not one of fundamental importance, and further, that a branch which arises from the first hyparterial bronchus on the left side and turns upwards into the apex of the left lung is the direct equivalent of the eparterial bronchus of the right side. This he terms the **apical bronchus**, and he believes that it represents the first dorsal branch of the left stem-bronchus. Huntington, in a very convincing paper, strongly supports the contention of Narath, and holds that, except "for purposes of topography, we should abandon the distinction between eparterial and hyparterial bronchi." With Narath he regards the eparterial bronchus as a secondary branch which has migrated in an upward direction on the main stem. According to Huntington, therefore, Aeby's proposition should be amended as follows:—

Right side.				Left side.
Upper	+	middle lobe	=	Upper lobe.
Lower	+	cardiac lobe	=	Lower lobe.

The cardiac lobe mentioned in this table is the occasional azygos lobe to which reference has already been made, and it is interesting to note that, whilst the lobe in question as a separate entity is rarely seen in the human lung, the bronchus which corresponds to it is always present in the pulmonary substance as an accessory branch, which proceeds from the main stem as it traverses the lower lobe of the right side. It receives the name of the **cardiac bronchus**.

Structure of the Lung.

The lung is constructed so that the blood which reaches it through the pulmonary artery is brought into the most intimate relation with the air which enters it through the trachea and bronchi. An interchange of materials between the blood and the air is thus rendered possible, and the object of respiration is attained. As a result of this interchange the dark impure blood which flows into the lung through the pulmonary artery is rendered bright red and arterial.

Lobules of the Lung.—A thin layer of subpleural connective tissues lies subjacent to the continuous coating which the lung receives from the visceral pleura. From the deep surface of this subpleural layer fine septal processes penetrate into the substance of the lung, and these, with the connective tissue which enters at the hilum upon the vessels and bronchi, constitute a supporting framework for the organ. The lung is lobular, and on the surface the small polygonal areas which represent the lobules are indicated by the

igment present in the connective tissue septa which intervene between them. Although o pigment is present, the lobular character of the lung is particularly well marked in the etus, and with a little care the surface lobules in the fœtal lung can be separated from ach other by gently tearing through the intervening connective tissue. The lobules thus olated are pyriform or pyramidal in form. The broad bases of these lobules abut against ne subpleural layer, whilst each of the deep narrow ends receives a minute division from ne bronchial system of tubes. The lobules which lie more deeply in the substance of ne organ are not so large, and are irregularly polygonal in form.

Alveolar Ducts, Infundibula, and Air-cells.—The larger branches of the ronchi, as they traverse the lung, give off numerous divisions which, by repeated ranching, ultimately form a system of tubes which pervade the entire organ. At rst the bronchial divisions come off at very acute angles, but as the finer ramifications re reached this character becomes much less apparent. There is no anastomosis between he bronchial branches.

Within the various lobules the finer bronchioles send off further branches, which proeed at right angles from them. Soon the ultimate tubes are reached. These are not ylindrical, but have their walls pouched out by numerous hemispherical diverticula. uch a bronchiole is called an **alveolar duct**, and the diverticula are the **air-cells** or **alveoli**. 'inally the alveolar duct divides into two, three, or more terminal parts, which become xpanded and form the club-shaped, blind terminations of the bronchial system of tubes. 'hese cæcal endings are the **infundibula**, and the walls of each are thickly covered by lveoli or air-cells, all of which open into the infundibulum as into a corridor.

Structure of the Bronchi.—When the large bronchi enter the lung they become ylindrical, and lose the flattening on the posterior aspect which is characteristic of the rimary bronchi outside the lung. They possess the same coats as are present in the case f the trachea and primary bronchi, but as the tubes become smaller by repeated division, hese coats become correspondingly thinner and finer. Certain marked differences also in he manner in which the constituents of these coats are arranged become apparent.

In the **external fibro-cartilaginous coat** the cartilage is no longer present in the form f incomplete rings, but in irregular plates or flakes deposited at various points around he wall. As the tubes diminish these cartilaginous deposits show a corresponding reduction in size, until at last, in bronchi of 1 mm. in diameter, they disappear altogether. The **lands** in relation to the tubes for the most part cease to exist about the same point. 'he **muscular** or **middle coat**, which in the trachea and primary bronchi is confined to he back wall of the tube, forms a continuous layer of circularly-arranged bundles in the ronchi as they ramify within the lung. Spasmodic contraction of the muscular coat gives ise to the serious symptoms which accompany asthmatic affections. The muscular fibres f the middle coat may be traced as far as the infundibula, on the walls of which they are resent in considerable numbers. The **mucous lining** of the tubes becomes greatly thinned s it is followed into the smaller bronchioles. It contains a large number of longitudinally-rranged elastic fibres, and is disposed in longitudinal folds, so that when the tube is cut cross the lumen presents a stellate appearance. The mucous membrane is lined by iliated columnar epithelium.

Structure of the Infundibula and Alveoli.—The walls of the infundibula and lveoli are exceedingly fine and delicate, but nevertheless constituents continuous with hose observed in the three coats of a bronchus are found entering into their construction. 'he epithelium is reduced to a single layer. Further, it is no longer columnar and iliated, but it has become flat and pavement-like. Two kinds of epithelial cells may be ecognised—(1) a few small granular polygonal cells, arranged singly or in groups of two r three; (2) more numerous thin cells of large size, and somewhat irregular in outline.)utside the epithelium is a delicate layer of faintly-fibrillated connective tissue. This is trengthened by a network of elastic fibres which is specially well marked around the nouths of the alveoli, and is also to some extent carried over the walls of the air-cells. Muscular fibres are likewise present on the walls of the infundibula, but it is questionable f any are prolonged over the air-cells.

Pulmonary Vessels.—The pulmonary artery, as it traverses the lung, divides with he bronchi, and closely accompanies these tubes. The resultant branches do not anastonose, and for the most part they lie above and behind the corresponding bronchi. The ine terminal divisions of the artery join a dense capillary plexus which is spread over the lveoli or air-cells. This vascular network is so close that the meshes are barely wider han the capillaries which form them. In the partitions between adjacent alveoli there s only one layer of the capillary network, and thus the blood flowing through these essels is exposed on both aspects to the action of the air in the air-cells. The radicles

of the pulmonary vein arise in, and carry the blood from, the pulmonary capillary plexus. Each afferent arteriole supplies the blood which flows through the capillaries spread over a number of neighbouring alveoli, and in like manner each efferent venous radicle drains an area corresponding to several adjoining air-cells. At first the veins run apart from the arteries, but after they have attained a certain size they join them and the bronchi. As a rule the pulmonary veins are placed on the lower and front aspect of the corresponding bronchi.

Development of the Respiratory Apparatus.

The larynx, the trachea, the bronchi, and the lungs arise as an outgrowth from the ventral aspect of the foregut. The first indication of a respiratory tract occurs in the human embryo when it has attained a length of 3·2 mm., on or about the fifteenth day of development. A median longitudinal groove makes its appearance within the foregut on its ventral wall. This extends from the pharynx in front to the region of the stomach behind, and it gradually deepens as it passes backwards. The hinder or gastric end of the pulmonary groove ends in a blind diverticulum or pocket, which freely communicates with the cavity of the foregut, and forms a hollow median protrusion on the ventral aspect of this portion of the primitive alimentary canal. The opposite end of the groove is bounded by the furcula (see p. 35). Further, it is lined with endoderm or hypoblast continuous with the endodermal lining of the foregut.

Trachea and Larynx.—The pulmonary groove on the ventral aspect of the foregut becomes first partially and then completely separated from the part of the foregut which lies on its dorsal aspect by two lateral ridges which grow inwards and finally meet. Two tubes are thus formed—viz. one behind, the œsophagus, and the other in front, the trachea and larynx. At their cephalic ends a communication between the two tubes is preserved as the permanent communication between the larynx and pharynx.

The cephalic end of the air-tube which is thus separated off from the foregut becomes enlarged to form the larynx, whilst the remainder is developed into the trachea. The cartilages of the larynx do not make their appearance until the eighth or ninth week. The thyroid cartilage is believed to be formed out of the ventral portions of the cartilages which support the 4th and 5th visceral arches of the two sides united in the median plane. The epiglottis takes form in the upper or front part of the furcula (see chapter on Embryology, p. 35), whilst the aryteno-epiglottidean folds and the arytenoid cartilages are developed in its lateral portions. The cricoid cartilage and the tracheal rings are formed in the mesoderm of the air-tube.

Lungs and Bronchi. The endodermic diverticulum, or pocket in which the gastric end of the primitive respiratory groove terminates, very early bifurcates into two vesicular portions, which represent the primitive right and left bronchi and lungs. From the first the right pulmonary vesicle is slightly the larger of the two. Both elongate, and almost immediately each part undergoes a subdivision—the right into three vesicles, and the left into two vesicles—thus early indicating the three lobes of the right lung and the two lobes of the left lung. The endodermal cells form the epithelial lining of the air-passages, whilst from the mesoderm are derived the blood-vessels and the other tissues which build up the lung. The hypoblastic or endodermal subdivisions thus formed are embedded within the surrounding mesoderm. The main endodermal subdivisions continue to branch and rebranch, pushing their way into the pulmonary mesoblast, until the complete bronchial tree is formed. The method of subdivision is very characteristic, and from the first the various branches are bulbous or flask-shaped at their extremities. These bifurcate, and although at first the two subdivisions in each case appear of equal importance, one grows out as the continuation of the main bronchial stem, whilst the other remains as a lateral branch. When the ramification of the endodermal tubes into the lung mesoderm is complete, the small terminal flask-shaped extremities of the various branches represent the infundibula. At first these are devoid of air-cells, but between the sixth month and the termination of gestation the alveolar diverticula make their appearance on the alveolar ducts and on the infundibula. It is thus seen that the epithelial lining of the entire system of bronchial tubes, infundibula and alveoli, is originally derived from the endodermal lining of the foregut. The other constituents which enter into the constitution of the lungs and bronchi are derived from the mesoblast.

The rudiments of the lungs grow backwards on either side of the œsophagus into the fissure-like portion of the cœlom which occupies the thoracic region. They push before them the epithelial lining of the latter, and thus acquire their covering of visceral pleura. By the development of the diaphragm and the pericardium the pleural portions of the cœlom become cut off from the peritoneal cavity and from each other.

there are in addition certain special accumulations of glandular tissue, nar the **liver**, the **pancreas**, and the **salivary glands**, which, although developed in

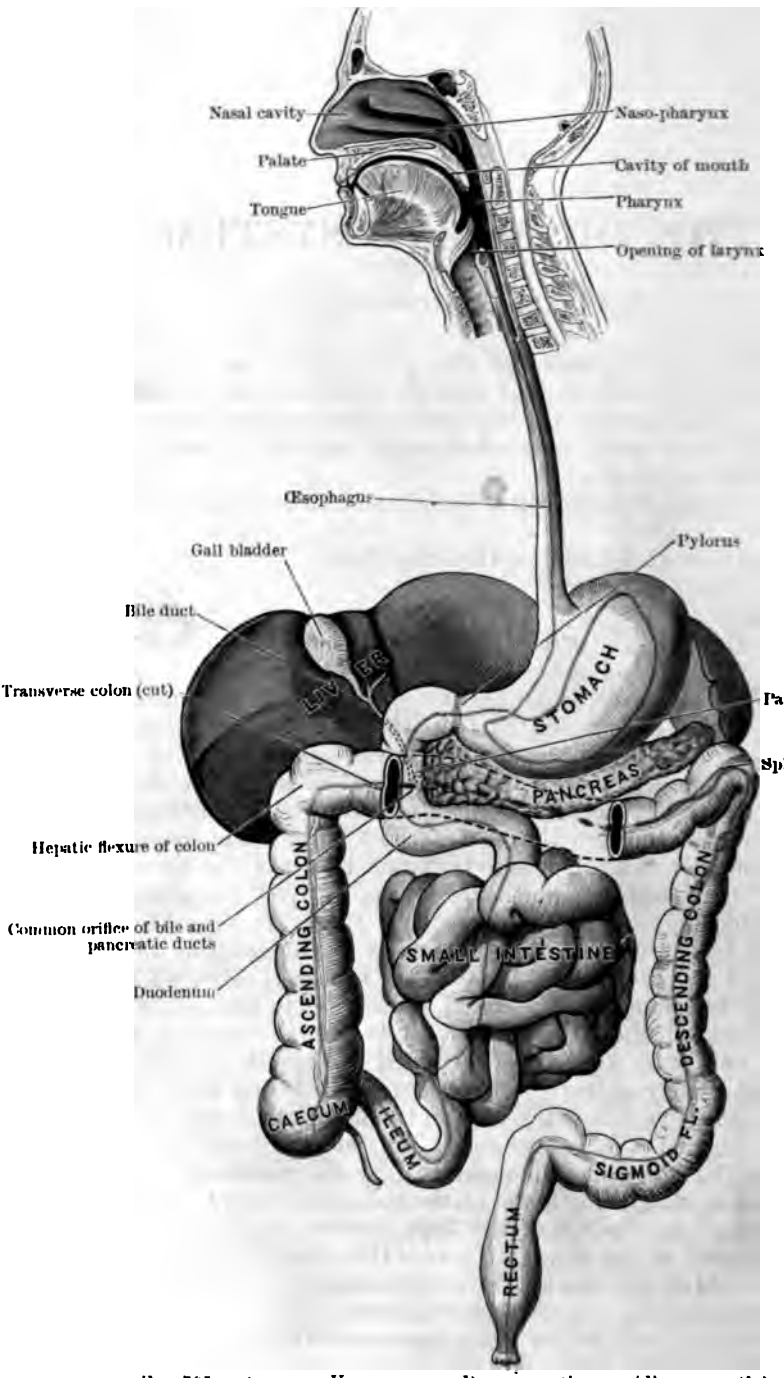


FIG. 705.—GENERAL VIEW OF THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM (diagrammatic).

The transverse colon has been cut to show the duodenum, but its course is indicated by dotted lines. vermiform appendix is seen hanging down from the cæcum. The loop of large intestine which pre the rectum is marked "sigmoid flexure," and includes the iliac colon and the greater part of the p colon.

embryo as outgrowths of its wall, lie entirely outside the tube in the ad and are connected with it by special ducts through which the gland-secreti pass. The largest of these, the **liver**, is placed in the upper and right portion

When the mouth is closed, and respiration is carried on through the nose, the cavum oris is reduced to a slit-like space, and practically obliterated by the tongue coming in contact with the palate above, and with the gums and teeth laterally and in front (Fig. 706). When the mouth is slightly open and the teeth nearly in contact, the tongue becomes somewhat concave or grooved along the middle line, and leaves a channel-like space between it and the palate, while it remains in contact with the roof and gums laterally. By depressing the hyoid bone with the root of the tongue, the cavum oris can be increased to a considerable size even when the teeth are in contact. Finally, by the simultaneous descent of the lower jaw and hyoid bone with the tongue, and the ascent of the soft palate, the cavity is increased to its greatest dimensions (Fig. 707).

Gums (gingivæ).—This term is applied to the red firm tissue, continuous with the mucous membrane of the vestibule on the one hand, and with that of the palate or floor of the mouth on the other (Fig. 706), which covers the alveolar borders of the maxilla and mandible, and surrounds the necks of the teeth. The gums are composed of dense fibrous tissue, inseparably united to the periosteum and covered by mucous membrane. They are richly supplied with blood-vessels, but sparsely with nerves, and are covered by stratified squamous epithelium. Around the neck—or more correctly the base of the crown—of each tooth, the gum forms a free overlapping collar, and at this part particularly it is closely beset with small papillæ, visible to the naked eye. In thickness it usually measures from 1 to 2 mm.

THE PALATE AND ISTHMUS FAUCIUM.

The **palate** (palatum) is the term applied to the strongly-arched structure which forms the roof of the mouth, and projects posteriorly into the pharynx as a pliant fold, imperfectly dividing that cavity into two (Figs. 708 and 710). Its anterior half or more has a foundation of bone, and separates the nasal fossæ from the mouth. This part is known as the **hard palate**. The posterior portion, which is free from bone, separates the naso-pharynx above, from the mouth and oral pharynx below, and is known as the **soft palate**.

The **hard palate** (palatum durum, Fig. 708) occupies the space within the upper dental arch, and is continuous with the gums in front and laterally, whilst behind it passes into the soft palate. It is formed by the palatal processes of the superior maxillary and palate bones (Fig. 721), covered by periosteum, and by a layer of firm mucous membrane. Beneath this mucous membrane, particularly at the sides and in front, is found a considerable quantity of dense fibrous tissue, firmly united to the periosteum on the one hand and to the mucous membrane on the other. This dense tissue forms an effective protection for the palate, and, in addition to the palatine vessels and nerves, it contains in its posterior half a large number of racemose (palatine) glands.

Traversing the middle of the palate is seen a faint central ridge or **raphe** (Fig. 707), indicating its original development from two lateral halves. Behind, this raphe is continued along the soft palate to the base of the uvula, and in front it ends in a slight elevation, the **incisive pad** or papilla palatina. From the anterior end of the raphe a series of transverse ridges of mucous membrane, about six in number, run outwards, just behind the incisor teeth; they are known as the **palatine rugæ**, and are composed of dense fibrous tissue. Sometimes a small pit, which will admit the point of a pin, is seen on each side immediately behind the central incisor teeth, and about 2 mm. from the middle line. These pits correspond to the lower openings of Stenson's canals, with which they are occasionally continuous.

The **soft palate** (palatum molle, or velum pendulum palati, Fig. 708) is a movable valve-like fold which runs obliquely downwards and backwards, like the "tongue" of a whistle, across the cavity of the pharynx almost as far as its posterior wall. Whilst it is attached to the hard palate in front, and blends with the pharyngeal walls laterally, its posterior border is free, and between it and the posterior wall of the pharynx is left a valvular passage—the isthmus of the pharynx—through which the naso-pharynx and the oral pharynx communicate with one another.

The soft palate is composed of two layers of mucous membrane between which are contained the palatine muscles, vessels, nerves, and connective tissue, the aponeurosis of the palate, and, in addition, a very large number of racemose glands. These glands are arranged in a thick continuous layer on the inferior surface beneath the mucous membrane, and form quite one-half of the mass of the soft palate

also, and in the fœtus, the incisive pad at the anterior end of the raphe is continued over the edge of the gum into the frenulum of the upper lip.

The **vessels** of the palate are derived from the **posterior palatine artery**, which runs forwards on the hard palate close to the alveolar border, and from the **ascending palatine branch** of the facial, which accompanies the levator palati to the soft palate.

The **nerves**—all branches of Meckel's ganglion—are: the **large posterior palatine**, which descends through the posterior palatine canal and runs forward on the hard palate with the posterior palatine artery; the **naso-palatine**, which passes down through the foramen of Scarpa and reaches the front of the hard palate; and the **small posterior** and **accessory posterior palatine nerves**, which run through the accessory palatine canals and supply the soft palate.

Fauces or **Isthmus of the Fauces** (isthmus faucium).—This is the aperture through which the mouth communicates with the pharynx (Fig. 707). It is bounded at the sides by the anterior palatine arches, above by the under surface of the soft palate, and below by the dorsum of the tongue; in width it corresponds pretty closely to the cavum oris.

The **anterior palatine arches** (arcus glosso-palatinus), often known as the anterior pillars of the fauces, are two prominent folds of mucous membrane, containing the palato-glossus muscles in their interior, which bound the isthmus of the fauces laterally (Fig. 707). Springing above from the under surface of the soft palate a little way (about 8 mm.) in front of its free edge, and near the base of the uvula, they pass downwards and slightly forwards to join the tongue a little behind the middle of its lateral border.

The **posterior palatine arch** is described with the pharynx (p. 1034).

THE TONGUE.

The tongue (lingua) is a large mobile mass composed chiefly of muscular tissue, and covered by mucous membrane, which occupies the floor of the mouth and forms the anterior wall of the oral pharynx (Fig. 708).

Whilst the sense of taste resides chiefly in its modified epithelium, the tongue is also an important organ of speech, and, in addition, it assists in the mastication and deglutition of the food—functions which it is well fitted to perform, owing to its muscular structure and great mobility. In length it measures, when at rest, about three and a half inches, but both its length and width are constantly varying with every change in the condition of the organ, an increase in length being always accompanied by a diminution in width, and *vice versa*.

In describing the tongue we distinguish the following parts: the **body** (corpus linguæ), made up chiefly of striped muscle, and forming the mass of the organ; the **dorsum** (Fig. 709), which looks towards the palate and pharynx, and is free in its whole extent; the **base**, the posterior wide end which is attached to the hyoid bone; the **apex** or tip, the pointed and free anterior extremity; the **margin**, which is free in its anterior half or more, *i.e.* in front of the attachment of the anterior palatine arch (Fig. 709). Finally, the unattached portion on the inferior aspect, seen when the apex is turned strongly upwards (Fig. 712), constitutes the **inferior surface**: whilst the attached portion, fixed by muscles and mucous membrane to the hyoid bone and mandible, is known as the **root**.

The **dorsum of the tongue** (dorsum linguæ), when the organ is at rest, is strongly arched from before backwards in its whole length (Fig. 708), the greatest convexity corresponding to the attachment of the anterior palatine folds. When removed from the body the tongue, unless previously hardened *in situ*, loses its natural shape, and appears as a flat, elongated oval structure, which gives a very erroneous idea of its true form and connexions.

The dorsum is naturally divided into two areas—an anterior or *oral part*, which lies nearly horizontally on the floor of the mouth, and constitutes about two-thirds of the length of the whole tongue (Fig. 709); and a posterior or *pharyngeal part*, the remaining third of the organ, which is placed nearly vertically, and forms the anterior wall of the oral pharynx (Fig. 710). The separation between these two parts, which differ in appearance as well as in direction, is indicated by a distinct V-shaped groove, called the **sulcus terminalis** (Fig. 710), the apex of which is directed backwards, and corresponds to a blind depression on the surface of the tongue, the **foramen cæcum**, whilst its diverging limbs pass outwards and forwards

it is reflected on to the front of the epiglottis, forming in the middle line a prominent fold, the **frenulum epiglottidis** or **middle glosso-epiglottic fold** (plica glosso-epiglottica media, Fig. 709), at each side of which is a wide depression, the **vallecula**.

Two lateral glosso-epiglottic folds have been described, but these pass from the sides of the epiglottis, not to the tongue, but upwards along the wall of the pharynx, upon which they are soon lost; consequently the term pharyngo-epiglottic is more applicable to them.

The **anterior or oral portion of the dorsum linguæ**, namely, the part in front of the sulcus terminalis (Fig. 709), is convex, both from before backwards and

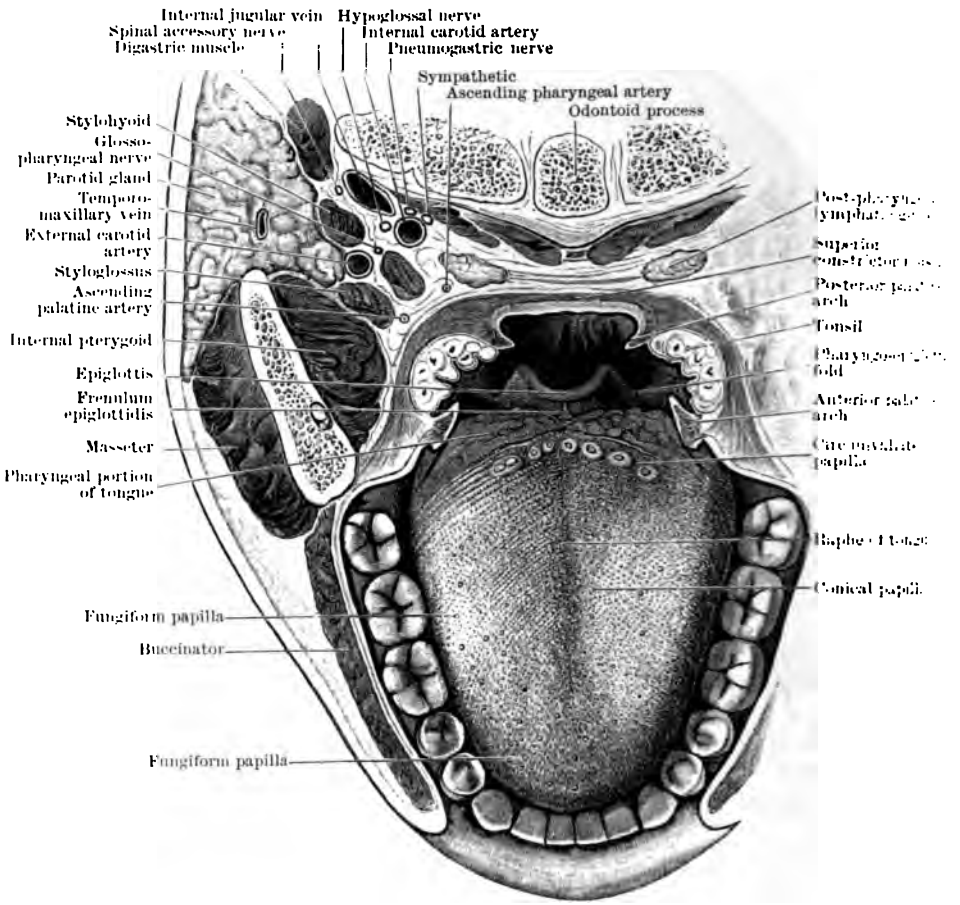


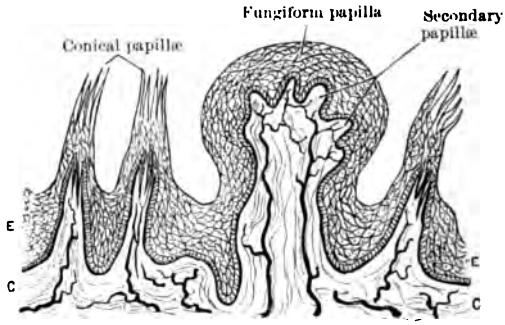
FIG. 709.—HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH MOUTH AND PHARYNX AT THE LEVEL OF THE TONSILS.

The stylopharyngeus, which is shown immediately to the inner side of the external carotid artery, and the prevertebral muscles, are not indicated by reference lines.

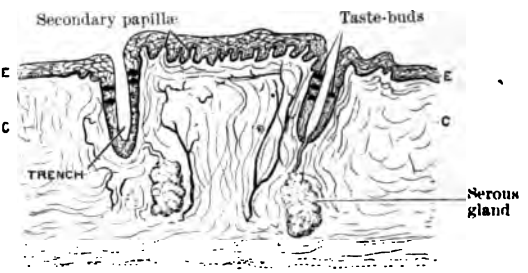
from side to side in the resting condition of the organ (Fig. 706). It usually presents also a slight median depression, along the centre of which may be seen some indication of a median **raphe** in the form of an irregular crease, which ends posteriorly near the foramen cæcum. The mucous membrane of this portion of the dorsum is thickly covered with the prominent and numerous **papillæ** (papillæ linguales) which give the tongue its most characteristic appearance.

On the pharyngeal part of the tongue there are also small papillary projections of the corium, but the epithelium fills up all the intervals between the papillæ, and, as it were, levels off the surface, so that none are visible to the eye as projections above the general level. Over the anterior part of the tongue, on the contrary, the projections of the corium are large and prominent, and the intervals between them, while they are covered, yet are not filled up, by the epithelium, so that the projections stand out distinctly and independently, and in places attain a height of nearly 2 mm. above the general surface.

The **fungiform papillæ** (Fig. 711) are larger and redder, but less numerous than the last variety, and they are found chiefly near the tip and margins of the tongue comparatively few being present over the dorsum generally. Each is in shape like a "puff-ball" fungus (Halliburton), consisting of an enlarged rounded head, attached by a somewhat narrower base. As in the case of the conical papillæ, the corium is studded over with microscopic papillæ, which are buried in the covering of squamous epithelium and do not appear on the surface. Most of the fungiform papillæ, if not all, appear to be furnished with taste-buds, and they are probably intimately connected with the sense of taste.



Conical and fungiform papillæ. ×30.



A circumvallate papilla. ×12.

FIG. 711.—THE PAPILLÆ OF TONGUE.

The upper illustration shows conical and fungiform papillæ, the lower a circumvallate papilla. C, Corium, and E, Epithelium of the mucous membrane. The wavy dark lines represent arteries.

The **circumvallate papillæ** (Fig. 711), much the largest of all the papillæ of the tongue, are confined to the region immediately in front of the sulcus terminalis and foramen cæcum. Usually about ten in number, they are arranged in the form of the letter V, with the apex backwards, just in front of and parallel to the sulcus terminalis. One or two of the papillæ are usually placed at the apex of the V, immediately anterior to the foramen cæcum. In appearance a circumvallate papilla resembles very closely the impression left by pressing the barrel of a small pen on soft wax (Fig. 710). Each is composed of a cylindrical central part (1 to 2·5 mm. wide), slightly tapering towards its base, and flattened on its crown, which projects a little above the general surface of the tongue. This is surrounded by a deep, narrow, circular trench or **fossa**, the outer wall of which is known as the **vallum**. The vallum appears in the form of an encircling collar very slightly raised above the adjacent surface (Fig. 709).

As in the case of the other forms, the circumvallate papillæ are made up of a central mass of corium, beset with numerous microscopic papillæ on the crowns, but not on the sides, and covered over, as are the surfaces of the fossa and vallum, by stratified squamous epithelium. Into the fossæ open the ducts of some small serous glands (Fig. 711).

On the sides of the circumvallate papillæ, as well as upon the opposed surface of the vallum, are found, in considerable numbers, the structures known as **taste-buds**, the special end-organs of the nerves of taste.

The **apex** (apex linguæ), and the **margin** (margo lateralis) of the tongue in front of the attachment of the anterior palatine arch, are free, and lie in contact with the teeth when the tongue is at rest.

On the upper half or more of the margin and apex, papillæ are present as on the dorsum, but on the lower part they are absent, and the surface is covered by smooth mucous membrane.

Just in front of the anterior palatine arch, on the margin, are usually seen about five or six distinct vertical folds, forming the **folia linguæ**, which are beset with taste-buds, and correspond to a well-defined area (the papillæ foliatæ) on the side of the tongue in certain animals (rabbit, hare, etc.), in which it forms an important part of the organ of taste.

The **inferior surface** (facies inferior) of the tongue, which is exposed by turning the apex of the organ upwards, is limited in extent (Fig. 712), and is free from visible papillæ, the surface being covered by a smooth mucous membrane. Running

membrane) which is united to the upper border of the hyoid bone, and gives attachment to the posterior fibres of the genioglossus. From the sides of the septum the transverse fibres of the tongue arise.

The **mucous membrane** on the anterior two-thirds of the dorsum, and on the free margins, is firm and closely adherent to the underlying muscular substance, the fibres of which are inserted into it. On the posterior third of the dorsum, and on the inferior surface, it is neither so firm nor so closely united to the muscular substance, from which it is separated in both of these situations by a layer of submucous tissue.

The mucous membrane of the tongue, like that of the rest of the mouth, is covered by stratified squamous epithelium.

Glands of the Tongue. Numerous small racemose glands are found scattered beneath the mucous membrane of the posterior third of the tongue; and a small collection of similar glands is present at the margin, opposite the circumvallate papillæ. Small serous glands are also found embedded in the dorsum near the circumvallate papillæ, into the fossæ of which their ducts open (Fig. 711).

The chief collections of glandular tissue in the tongue, however, are found embedded in the muscle of the under surface, a little way behind the apex, on each side of the middle line (Fig. 712). They are known as the **apical glands** (glandulæ linguales anteriores of Nuhn or Blandin).

These apical glands are displayed by removing the mucous membrane and also a layer of

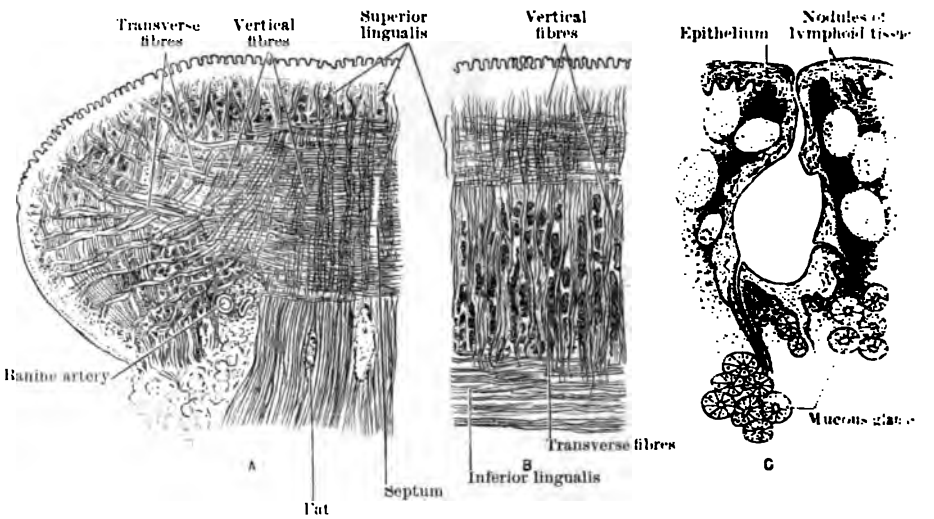


FIG. 713. -A, TRANSVERSE, AND B, LONGITUDINAL VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE TONGUE (Krause). C, A LYMPHOID FOLLICLE FROM BACK PART OF TONGUE (Macalister, slightly modified).

muscular fibres (derived from the united inferior lingualis and styloglossus) about 2 mm. in thickness from the under surface of the tongue a little distance behind the apex. They are oval in shape, often partly broken up by muscular fibres, and they measure from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ in. (12 to 19 mm.) in length. They are mixed serous and mucous glands, and they open by three or four very small ducts on the inferior surface of the tongue.

Vessels. The chief *artery* is the **lingual.** This vessel passes forwards on each side beneath the hyoglossus muscle, and then is continued on to the apex—between the genioglossus on the inner side and the inferior lingualis externally—under the name of the ranine artery. Anteriorly it is covered by the fibres of the inferior lingualis, and lies $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch from the surface. Near the apex the arteries of opposite sides are connected by a branch which pierces the septum, but otherwise, with the exception of capillary anastomosis, they do not communicate. The **dorsalis linguæ branch** of the lingual is distributed to the pharyngeal part of the tongue, whilst some twigs of the **tonsillar branch** of the facial are also distributed in the same region.

The *veins* are: the **ranine**, the chief vein, which lies beneath the mucous membrane at the side of the frenum, and runs backwards over the hyoglossus muscle with the hypoglossal nerve; two **venæ comites**, which accompany the lingual artery; and a **dorsalis linguæ vein** from the back of the tongue. These either unite and form a common trunk, or open separately into the internal jugular vein.

Nerves. The nerves which supply the tongue are: (1) The **hypoglossal**, the motor nerve of the tongue, which enters the genioglossus and passes up in its substance to the intrinsic muscles, in which it ends. (2) The **lingual**, a branch of the inferior maxillary nerve, which is accompanied by the **chorda tympani branch** of the facial. The lingual, after crossing the hyoglossus muscle, breaks up and enters the inferior lingualis and genioglossus, and thus makes its way *upwards* to the mucous membrane of the anterior two-thirds of the tongue—the lingual itself *conferring* common sensation on this part, the chorda tympani probably carrying to it taste

(3) The **glossopharyngeal nerve** passes forwards beneath the upper part of the hyoglossus, ends its terminal branches to the mucous membrane of the posterior third of the tongue, ying the circumvallate papillæ, and the part of the tongue behind these, with both gustatory ommon sensory fibres. (4) The **internal laryngeal nerve** also distributes a few fibres to the ior part of the base of the tongue, near the epiglottis.

e **lymphatics** of the anterior half of the tongue pass down through the floor of the mouth in the **submaxillary lymphatic glands**. Those from the posterior half run with the ranine across the hyoglossus muscle (where they are connected with some small lingual glands) and he **deep cervical glands**.

GLANDS.

arious organs, differing widely both in structure and function, are commonly ded under the general term glands. It is made to embrace: (*a*) the *glands ducts*, such as the digestive glands (liver, pancreas, salivary glands, etc.), the t and sebaceous glands of the skin, the testes, etc., and the small glands dded in the walls of the digestive and respiratory tracts; (*b*) the so-called *ess glands* (spleen, thyroid, suprarenals, etc.), which possess no ducts, but v their secretions into the blood or lymph passing through them. We shall consider only the true glands—namely, those included in the first group ioned above, which are all characterised by the possession of ducts; and what ws refers to them alone.

gland may be defined as an epithelial organ which separates or elaborates from the blood substance which is either to be discharged from the body or used further in the economy. oduct of the activity of the gland is known as its secretion, and the secretion is conveyed destination in all true glands, as explained above, by the gland duct.

very gland is primarily an outgrowth of the epithelium from the surface to which the secre- f the gland is to be subsequently conveyed. This outgrowth may remain undivided, con- ing a **simple gland**. On the other hand, it may break up into two or more branches, giving o a **compound gland**. We thus arrive at the two great classes of glands—simple and ound.

simple gland may remain tubular, when it is known as a *simple tubular gland*, of which rkuhn's follicles in the wall of the small intestine and the sweat glands are examples. Or y be dilated at its extremity, the enlargement being known as an acinus (ἄκινος, a grape or -stone) or alveolus, thus constituting a simple *acinous* or *alveolar gland*, of which there are xamples in man (viz. some sebaceous glands), though they are numerous in the skin of the etc. This gives us two varieties of simple glands—tubular and acinous or alveolar.

imilarly a **compound gland** may remain tubular, constituting a *compound tubular gland*, such e kidney, testicle, and the majority of the gastric glands. Or, on the other hand, the inal branches of its ducts may be beset with dilatations (*i.e.* acini or alveoli), giving rise to *pound acinous* or *alveolar gland*, which latter, owing to a remote resemblance presented by istering lobules to a miniature bunch of grapes, is often known as a *racemose gland* (*racemus*, a er). Most of the glands of the body are examples of this variety—*e.g.* the salivary glands, the glands of the mouth, tongue, pharynx, œsophagus, respiratory passages, eyelids, etc. Thus rive at two varieties of compound glands also—tubular and acinous or alveolar.

compound acinous (racemose) gland is composed of a main duct which branches and anches more or less freely according to the size of the gland, and the terminal divisions of h end finally in specialised secreting parts, the acini or alveoli, quite distinguishable from ucts or conducting parts. In true acinous glands the acini or alveoli are distinctly saccular; her glands, such as the pancreas, this is not the case, the acini being long and narrow. dingly, the term *acino-tubular* has been introduced and applied to glands of this latter which is usually made to include the pancreas, the prostate, and Brunner's glands.[1]

; should be added that the term acino-tubular is by some authors used exclusively instead inous for all racemose glands.

here is one gland, however, which cannot be included in any of the above varieties, and h must be placed in a class by itself. This is the liver. It is composed of an enormous ber of small secreting lobules, between which run the branches of the bile-duct. These es in the mammalian liver cannot in any way be compared to acini, or to collections of acini, eir cells are not arranged around a central lumen, but form a practically solid mass, with ite bile capillaries running everywhere between them. It might in mammals, for want of a r term, be classed as a *solid gland*.

he foregoing may be summarised in tabular form thus:—

Simple glands.—Duct undivided.

(*a*) **Simple tubular**.—Undilated at end—*e.g.* Lieberkühn's follicles, sweat, and many gastric glands.

(*b*) **Simple acinous** (alveolar or saccular).—Dilated at end—*e.g.* some sebaceous glands (rare)

Some authorities consider the glands of Brunner to belong to the class of compound tubular glands enhain, Watney, Jonnesco, etc.).

II. **Compound glands.**—Duct divided.

(*a*) **Compound tubular.**—Branched elongated tubes, no acini—*e.g.* testes, kidney, most gastric glands.

(*b*) **Compound acinous or alveolar** (racemose glands), branched duct with saccular acini on terminal branches—*e.g.* salivary, sebaceous, and Meibomian glands; the mucous glands of the mouth, tongue, palate, pharynx, nose, œsophagus, and respiratory tube.

(*c*) **Acino-tubular.** Branched duct, with elongated narrow acini on terminal branches—pancreas, Brunner's glands, prostate.

III. **Solid gland.**—The liver.

To save confusion it may be pointed out that instead of acinus the term alveolus and also saccule and follicle) is often used, and also that the term "racemose gland" is often conveniently used instead of compound acinous gland.

General Structure of Glands.—Whilst the small glands, such as those of the mouth and pharynx, are placed in the mucosa or submucosa immediately beneath the point at which their ducts open on the surface, the large glands form distinct masses, generally surrounded by special capsules, and often lie at a considerable distance from the points at which their ducts open.

One of these large glands of the acinous type, such as the parotid or submaxillary, presents the following general arrangement. The gland is made up, as can be seen with the unaided eye, of a number of masses, often as large as peas, which are surrounded and held together by connective tissue. These are known as lobes, and to each a branch of the duct passes. The lobes are in turn made up of a number of smaller masses—lobules—each having a special branch of the lobar duct. These again are composed of smaller lobules, and so on to a varying degree. Finally, the smallest are made up of a terminal branch of the duct, with a cluster of acini or alveoli developed upon it.

The **acini** or **alveoli**, the special secreting portions of the gland, are composed of a basement membrane, often fenestrated or basket-like, formed of flattened cells, on the outer side of which the blood and lymph vessels lie. The inner surface of this membrane is lined by the secreting epithelial cells, usually polygonal in shape, which almost completely fill the alveolus. A small lumen, however, is left, into which the secretion of the cells is shed, whence it passes into the duct of the lobule, and thus to the main duct.

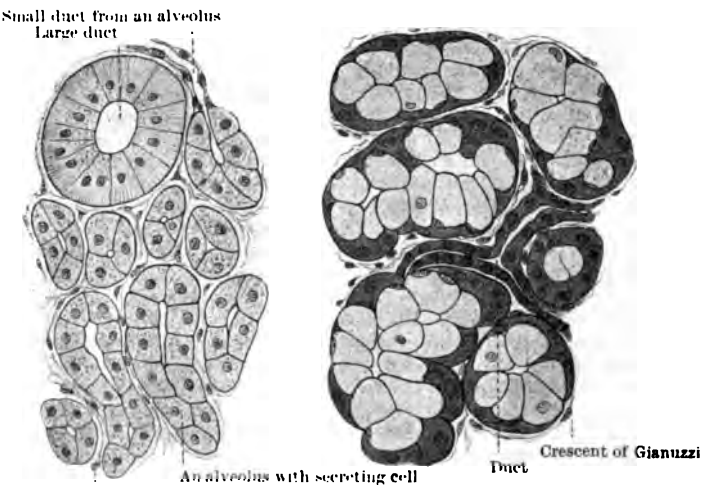


FIG. 714. SECTION OF A SEROUS GLAND ON THE LEFT, A MUCOUS GLAND ON THE RIGHT SIDE (Böhm and v. Davidoff).

In the serous gland the granular secreting cells and the centrally-placed nucleus should be noted. The relatively clear cells, with the dark crescents of Gianuzzi, are distinctive in the mucous gland.

The blood-vessels and lymphatics, on entering the gland, break up and run, branching as they go, in the connective tissue which conveys them to all parts of the gland.

Mucous and Serous Glands.—Two distinct varieties of salivary glands are found, the serous and the mucous, differing not only in the nature of their secretion, but also in the character of the epithelium lining their alveoli. In those of the mucous type (Fig. 714) the epithelial cells are large, clear, or faintly granular, and the nucleus lies as a rule near the base of the cell. In addition, many mucous glands, but not all, have small flattened or crescentic cells, distinctly granular, which stain strongly with ordinary stains, lying between the basement membrane and the bases of the chief cells. These are the *crescents* or *demilunes of Gianuzzi*.

In the acini or alveoli of serous glands, on the other hand (Fig. 714), the epithelial cells are distinctly granular, the granules staining well with ordinary stains; the nuclei are rounded and lie near the centre of the cells, and no demilunes are present.

In man the parotid and the small glands which open into the fossæ of the circum-

vallate papillæ alone are *serous*. The submaxillary and the apical gland of the tongue are *mixed*, the serous alveoli being the more numerous; whilst the sublingual, labial, buccal, and all other glands of the mouth, tongue, and palate are said to be *mucous*.

Stopped January 5th, 1911.

Salivary Glands.

This term is generally understood to include only the three large masses of glandular tissue found on each side of the face—namely, the parotid, submaxillary, and sublingual glands. But, as previously pointed out, numerous other small glands

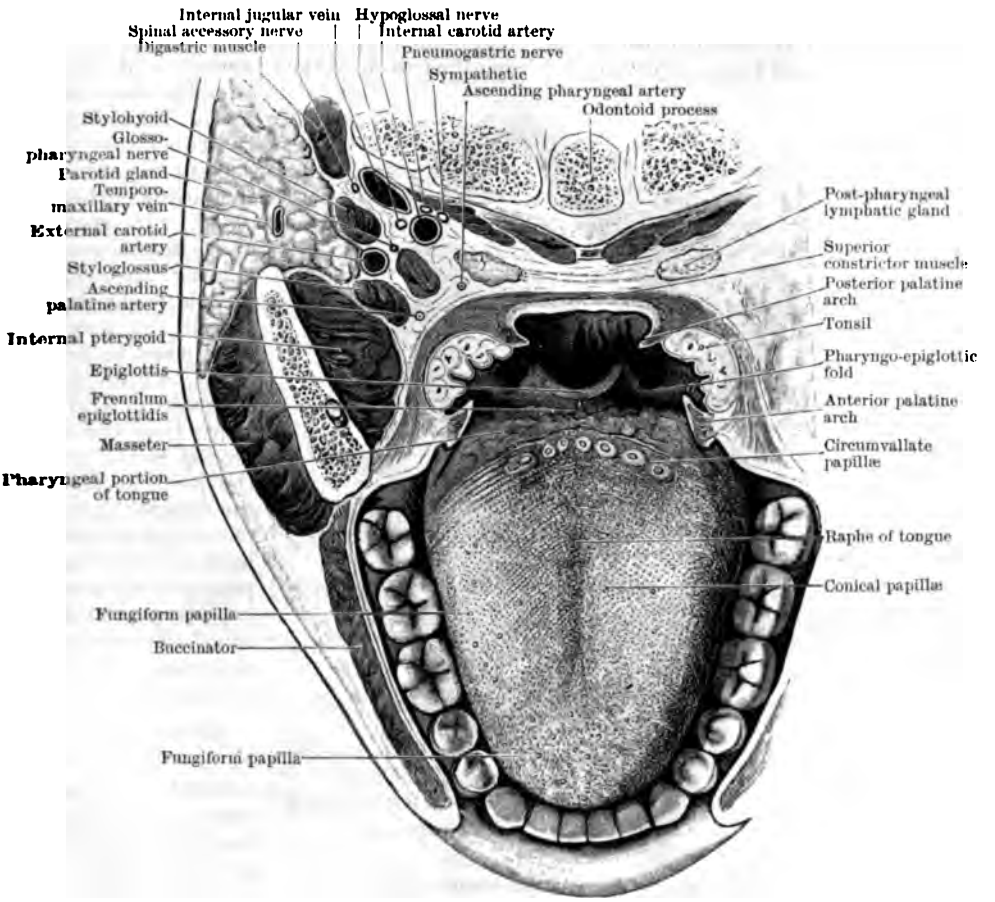


Fig. 715.—Horizontal Section through Mouth and Pharynx at the Level of the Tonsils.

The stylopharyngeus, which is shown immediately to the inner side of the external carotid artery, and the prevertebral muscles, are not indicated by reference lines.

of a similar nature are found in the lips, cheeks, palate, tongue, etc. These have already been sufficiently described, and require no further mention.

Parotid Gland (glandula parotis).—This, the largest of the salivary glands, is a distinctly lobulated mass of a yellowish or light reddish-brown colour, which is placed in a deep recess (the parotid recess) at the side of the head, below and in front of the ear (Fig. 716). It extends up to the zygoma, down to the angle of the jaw or even to a lower level, and backwards to the sterno-mastoid muscle. Internally it lies on the styloid process, and anteriorly its facial process is continued for a variable distance over the surface of the masseter.

When the gland is carefully removed without disturbing the surrounding parts, the recess which it occupies is seen to be a considerable space, between the ramus of the jaw in front and the sterno-mastoid muscle behind, with a floor formed of two sloping walls, an anterior and a posterior, which meet at an angle corresponding pretty

closely to the styloid process. Thus the recess is three-sided (Fig. 715), the third side corresponding to the parotid fascia covering the gland. Into this *parotid recess* the greater part of the parotid gland fits closely. From its anterior part, however, the variably-developed **facial process** is continued forward over the masseter muscle.

Parotid Fascia.—The parotid recess is covered over on the one hand, and lined on the other, by fascia. The covering layer is specially known as the parotid fascia, and both it and the lining layer are derived from the deep cervical fascia, which divides below to enclose the gland. The parotid fascia proper is connected above to the zygoma; behind, to the auditory meatus and anterior border of the sterno-mastoid; below, it is continuous with the deep cervical fascia, and in front it passes forwards over the masseter, and blends with the fascia of that muscle. The layer of fascia beneath the gland forms a lining for the recess, and is united above to the periosteum over the auditory meatus and back part of the glenoid fossa; internally it is connected to the styloid process; whilst below it joins the deep cervical fascia. Taken together, the two layers form a definite capsule which completely encloses the gland. In connexion with the lower and anterior part of this capsule is developed a special flat band, the **stylo-mandibular ligament**, which passes downwards and outwards from the styloid process to the angle of the jaw. It separates the anterior part of the parotid gland from the back of the internal pterygoid muscle: perhaps occasionally, also, from the upper and posterior part of the submaxillary gland.

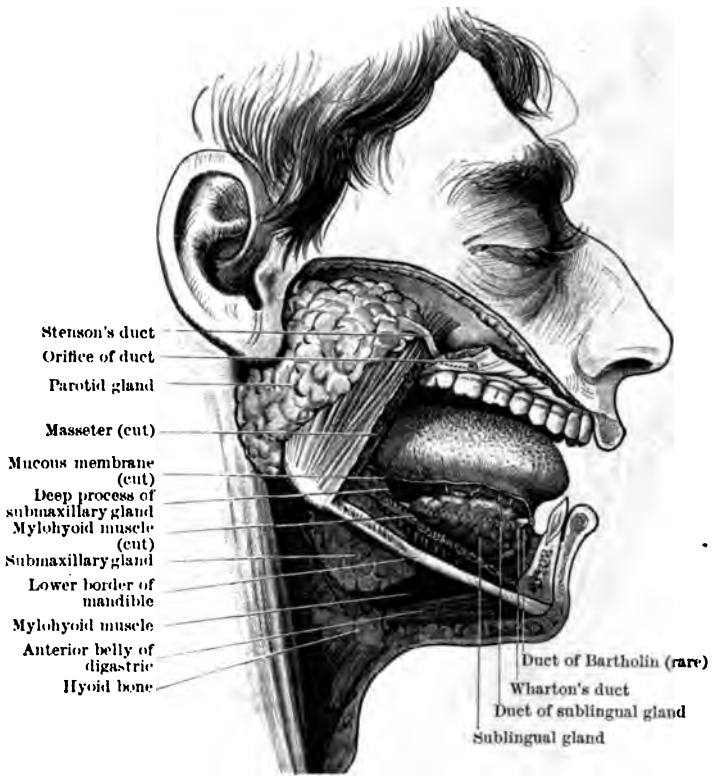


FIG. 716.—THE SALIVARY GLANDS AND THEIR DUCTS.

The greater portion of the body of the mandible has been removed to expose the sublingual and the deeper parts of the submaxillary glands. Four ducts of the sublingual gland are shown opening on the floor of the mouth over the gland, a fifth is shown opening into the anterior end of Wharton's duct. The course of Wharton's duct is shown by a dotted line.

Shape and Relations of the Parotid Gland.—Like the recess in which it lies, the main mass of the parotid gland is three-sided (Fig. 715), the three surfaces being superficial, anterior, and posterior.

The *superficial surface* is closely covered by the parotid fascia, and its lower part is also crossed by the highest fibres of the platysma. The *anterior surface*, approximately flat, lies in contact with the wide posterior surface of the internal pterygoid muscle; it is also related to the posterior border of the mandible and the masseter muscle, whilst from its superficial part the **facial process** is continued forwards over that muscle. The *posterior surface* lies from without inwards against (1) the anterior border of the sterno-mastoid and the auditory meatus, (2) the posterior belly of the digastric and the occipital artery, and (3) the spinal accessory nerve and carotid sheath—the internal jugular vein within the sheath being in very close relation. The *inner angle* formed by the meeting of the anterior and posterior surfaces corresponds to the styloid process and the styloid muscles (Fig. 715). *Above*, the gland is limited superficially by the zygoma; more deeply a thin process runs up into the posterior part of the glenoid

ossa. *Inferiorly* it usually reaches a little distance below a line prolonged horizontally backwards from the angle of the jaw, but its limit in this direction is variable.

Occasionally the parotid gland passes down a considerable distance below the angle of the mandible, lying here superficial to the posterior part of the submaxillary gland, from which it is separated by a thickened band of the deep cervical fascia, passing from the angle of the jaw to the fascia of the sterno-mastoid. At other times it does not quite reach the angle.

The **facial process** of the gland—often of considerable size—is a flat and somewhat triangular portion which runs forwards from the upper part of the gland, and overlaps the masseter muscle to a varying extent; from its most anterior part the parotid duct emerges, and a separated portion of this process, often found lying immediately above the duct, is known as the **socia parotidis** (glandula parotis accessoria).

Traversing the substance of the gland (Fig. 715) are found:—(1) the temporo-maxillary vein; (2) on a deeper plane, the branches of the facial nerve passing forwards; and (3) more deeply still, the external carotid artery which lies beneath the lower part of the gland, but is embedded in its deep surface above. Just before it emerges, the artery divides into its two terminal branches in the gland substance.

The **parotid** or **Stenson's duct** (ductus parotideus) leaves the anterior border of the gland at its most prominent part (Fig. 716). It first runs forwards across the masseter, usually accompanied by the socia parotidis which lies above it, and also by branches of the facial nerve; whilst the transverse facial artery is commonly some distance above, though its relation is variable. Having crossed the masseter, it turns abruptly round the anterior border of this muscle and runs inwards through the fat of the cheek, practically at right angles to the first part of its course, to reach the buccinator, which it pierces. Then passing for some distance (5 to 10 mm.) between the buccinator and mucous membrane, it opens into the vestibule of the mouth by a very small orifice, on a variably-developed papilla, opposite the crown of the second upper molar tooth.

The course of the duct, which is fairly constant, can be marked on the side of the face by drawing a line from the lower edge of the auditory meatus to a point midway between the ala of the nose and the red of the lip; the middle third of this line corresponds fairly accurately on the surface, to the course pursued by the duct.

The gland varies in weight from half an ounce to an ounce or more. Several small lobes or processes are found in connexion with it—viz. one running backwards between the sterno-mastoid and the digastric; a glenoid lobe of very small size, which lies in the posterior part of the glenoid cavity; a pharyngeal process (Fig. 715), which runs forwards and inwards between the styloid process and the external carotid artery towards the pharynx. A pterygoid extension running forwards between the two pterygoid muscles, although described, cannot properly be said to exist.

Stenson's duct measures from 1½ to 2½ inches (38 to 62 mm.) in length, and ⅛ inch (3 to 4 mm.) in diameter. The calibre of the duct is very much greater than that of its orifice, which only admits a fine bristle, and for this reason the duct may, to some extent, be looked upon as a reservoir for the saliva, as well as a duct for its conveyance. In the child it pierces the "sucking pad" on its way to the mouth.

Vessels and Nerves.—The **arteries** which supply the gland arise from the external carotid, and from the branches of this artery in relation to the gland.

The **veins** join the temporo-maxillary and its tributaries. The **lymphatics** pass to both the superficial and the deep cervical glands; there are also a few small parotid lymphatic glands, which lie on the surface of the upper and lower part of the parotid beneath the capsule. Some are said to be embedded in the substance of the parotid itself.

The **nerves** are derived (*a*) from the auriculo-temporal, and (*b*) from the sympathetic on the external carotid. The fibres of the sympathetic are mainly vaso-constrictor. Those of the auriculo-temporal convey to the gland secretory fibres from the glosso-pharyngeal.

Submaxillary Gland.—The submaxillary gland is next in size to the parotid, and resembles it in its lobulation and colour. It is placed partly in the submaxillary triangle and partly under cover of the posterior part of the mandible near its angle (Fig. 716).

In size and shape it may be compared to a small walnut with three flattened

sides. It is enclosed in a complete capsule derived from the deep cervical fascia: embedded in this capsule, and superficial to the gland, are found a few submaxillary lymphatic glands, which are of importance owing to their connexion with the lymphatics of the lips and of the anterior half of the tongue.

In considering the relations of the gland, it is well to remark that there is in this region a three-sided space bounded externally by the inner surface of the mandible below the mylohyoid ridge, internally and above by the mylohyoid muscle running inwards and downwards, and below by the skin and fascia passing from the margin of the jaw obliquely inwards and downwards to join the side of the neck. In this space the gland lies with external, internal, and inferior surfaces corresponding to the walls of the space.

The *superficial* or *inferior surface* looks downwards and outwards; it is covered by the deep cervical fascia and the platysma, and is crossed by the facial vein, which lies superficial to the gland, whilst the artery passes in part beneath it. The *external surface* rests against the inner aspect of the lower jaw (submaxillary fossa) for an inch and a half forward from the angle, to which latter it usually reaches behind. The *deep* or *internal surface* lies on the posterior part of the mylohyoid muscle, and behind this, on the hyoglossus and the posterior belly of the digastric with the stylohyoid; for the gland is not contained within the limits of the submaxillary triangle inferiorly, but passes down some little distance over the digastric muscle. From the deep surface, anterior to its middle, a narrow tongue-like **deep process** (Fig. 716) is continued forwards beneath the mylohyoid muscle along with the duct.

The *posterior end* of the gland, which is its most bulky portion, either abuts against, or lies very close to, the sterno-mastoid, and is often overlapped by the lower end of the parotid gland. The facial artery, on its way to the border of the mandible, lies in a groove in the upper and back part of the gland.

The **submaxillary** or **Wharton's duct** leaves the deep surface of the gland about its middle, and runs forwards beneath the mylohyoid muscle with the deep process, along the upper and inner aspect of which it is placed (Figs. 716 and 712). Pursuing its course forwards beneath the floor of the mouth, on the inner side of the sublingual gland, the duct crosses the hyoglossus and the genioglossus muscles, and finally opens on the floor of the mouth at the side of the frenulum linguæ, where its small orifice is placed on the summit of a soft papilla (caruncula sublingualis) close to its fellow of the opposite side.

While running forward beneath the floor of the mouth the duct, which is about two inches long (50 mm.), is crossed on its inferior aspect by the lingual nerve near the anterior border of the hyoglossus, that is opposite the 2nd molar tooth. The nerve at the time is arching from the posterior end of the mylohyoid ridge (against which it lies) inwards and forwards in order to reach the under surface of the tongue, and in this course it passes beneath the duct at the point indicated. As in the case of Stenson's duct, the calibre of Wharton's duct is much greater than that of the orifice by which it opens; for this reason it may likewise be looked upon as forming, to some extent, a reservoir for the saliva secreted by the gland.

Vessels and Nerves.—The **arteries** come chiefly from the facial and its submental branch: the **veins** are similarly disposed. The **nerves** are derived from the submaxillary ganglion (which lies above the deep process of the gland), and are composed of fibres from the chorda tympani, from the lingual, and from the sympathetic on the facial artery. The lymphatics pass to the submaxillary lymphatic glands.

Sublingual Gland.—This is an elongated almond-shaped mass, flattened from side to side, and much wider (from above downwards) in front than behind, which lies on the floor of the mouth beneath the plica sublingualis—a ridge of the mucous membrane produced by the prominent upper border of the gland. It is usually from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches (37 to 45 mm.) in length, whilst its bulk is about equal to that of two or three almonds.

It is placed between the mandible externally, the genioglossus internally, the mylohyoid muscle below, and the mucous membrane of the mouth above (Fig. 706).

Its detailed relations are as follows:—Its *outer surface* rests against the inner aspect of the body of the mandible above the mylohyoid ridge. Its *inner surface* is in contact with the genioglossus and the hyoglossus muscles, as well as with Wharton's duct, which runs forwards between the gland and the muscles. *Below*, it rests on the mylohyoid, and at its posterior part on the deep process of the submaxillary gland; whilst its upper

prominent border is covered only by the mucous membrane of the mouth, here raised up by the gland to form the plica sublingualis (Fig. 712). The anterior portion of the gland is much deeper and more bulky than the posterior half, and it meets its fellow in the middle line beneath the frenulum linguæ. The posterior extremity grows gradually more slender, and ends near the posterior part of the mylohyoid ridge, where it lies above the deep process of the submaxillary gland.

Its **ducts**, generally known as the **ducts of Rivinus** (ductus sublinguales minores), are numerous and of small size; they leave the upper part of the gland, and, after a short course, open on a series of papillæ, visible to the naked eye, which are placed along the summit of the plica sublingualis.

The gland is not enclosed in a distinct capsule, thus differing from the parotid and submaxillary glands; but its numerous lobules, which are smaller than those of the glands just mentioned, are held together by fine connective tissue, loosely, but still in such a manner as to make one more or less consolidated mass out of what was, in the embryo, a number of separate glands.

As a rule all the ducts open separately on the summit of the plica sublingualis, and apparently none of them join Wharton's duct. Frequently some of those from the anterior and more bulky part of the gland are larger than the others, but the presence of a large duct running alongside of Wharton's duct, and opening with or beside it (ductus major Rivini, duct of Bartholin), is very rare, and must be considered as an exceptional condition in man, although normal in the ox, sheep, and goat. The same may also be said of ducts from the sublingual, which are described as opening into the duct of Wharton.

Vessels and Nerves.—The **arteries** are derived from the sublingual branch of the lingual and from the submental branch of the facial. The **nerves** come from the lingual, the chorda tympani, and the sympathetic, through a branch of the submaxillary ganglion which joins the lingual, and is conveyed by it to the gland.

The **apical gland** of the tongue (Nuhn's) is described with the tongue, p. 1006.

Development of the Salivary Glands, Palate, and Tongue.

The general development of the lips, mouth, palate, and tongue is described on pages 37 to 42, and reference wil' be made here only to a few special points bearing upon this matter.

Several explanations of the formation of the **philtrum** or groove on the front of the upper lip have been put forward; most probably it is produced by the union of the median fronto-nasal process with the two maxillary processes (see p. 39), the floor of the groove being formed by the fronto-nasal process, and the ridges bounding the groove at the sides corresponding to the line of meeting of the fronto-nasal with the maxillary processes.

The **salivary glands** are developed as *solid* outgrowths of the buccal epithelium, one each for the submaxillary (the first developed) and the parotid, several for the sublingual gland. The outgrowths are at first simple; they subsequently divide, and finally develop alveolar enlargements on their extremities. By a separation of the lining cells, the ducts, and later on (about the 22nd week) the alveoli, become hollowed out, and present a lumen as in the adult.

The development of the **palate** is given at page 40; but it should be mentioned that, in order to account for the position which the fissure in cleft palate usually occupies, viz. between the central and lateral incisors, the theory has been advanced by Albrecht, that each premaxilla is made up of two separate segments, an inner (or endo-gnathion), containing the central incisor, and an outer (or meso-gnathion), containing the lateral incisor (the rest of the maxilla constituting the exo-gnathion). Between these two segments of the premaxilla (endo- and meso-gnathion) the cleft is said to run, and not between the premaxilla and maxilla as usually held.

Tongue.—The tongue is developed in the embryo, not on the floor of the primitive mouth, but upon the anterior wall of the pharynx, and in two parts, which are at first distinct but soon unite. The anterior two-thirds of the organ is formed from the **tuberculum impar**, a single median elevation, developed on the ventral wall of the pharynx, immediately behind the first, or mandibular, visceral arch. Behind the tuberculum impar, at first, lies a prominent elevation—the **furcula**, from the anterior part of which the epiglottis is formed—the two being separated by a distinct sulcus, the **sinus arcuatus** (see p. 37). Soon, however, the ventral extremities of the second and third visceral arches, growing downwards, unite across the middle line. The tuberculum is thus separated from the furcula, and the middle portion of the sinus arcuatus is divided into an anterior and a posterior part. The ventral ends of the two arches having fused, develop, after a little time, into a prominent semilunar ridge, the rudiment of the posterior

third of the tongue. This ridge embraces the back of the tuberculum impar, but is separated from it in part by the anterior division of the sinus arcuatus, which persists even in the adult as the foramen cæcum, with the sulcus terminalis running forwards and outwards on each side from it. Finally, the two rudiments of the tongue—the tuberculum impar and the semilunar ridge—become blended, the only indication of the original separation being the foramen cæcum, the sulcus terminalis, and the different character which the mucous membrane presents on the two divisions of the organ. At the foramen cæcum the downgrowth which gives rise to the isthmus of the thyroid gland takes place and a part of the thyro-glossal duct which in the early condition connects the two may in rare cases persist in the adult in connexion with the foramen.

THE TEETH.

The teeth are highly modified portions of the mucous membrane of the mouth specially developed to perform the important function of mastication, that is, the division and trituration of the food which takes place in the mouth before the *bolus* as the resulting mass is called, can be swallowed. Each tooth is a calcified papilla of the mucous membrane of the mouth, and consists like that membrane of two chief portions—namely, the dentine derived from the connective tissue, and the enamel from the epithelial layer of the mucous membrane. The **dentine** constitutes the chief mass of the tooth, whilst the **enamel** forms a cap for the portion which projects above the gum. There is also found in the teeth another special tissue—the **cementum or crusta petrosa**, a form of modified bone—which encases the roots, these latter being formed chiefly of dentine.

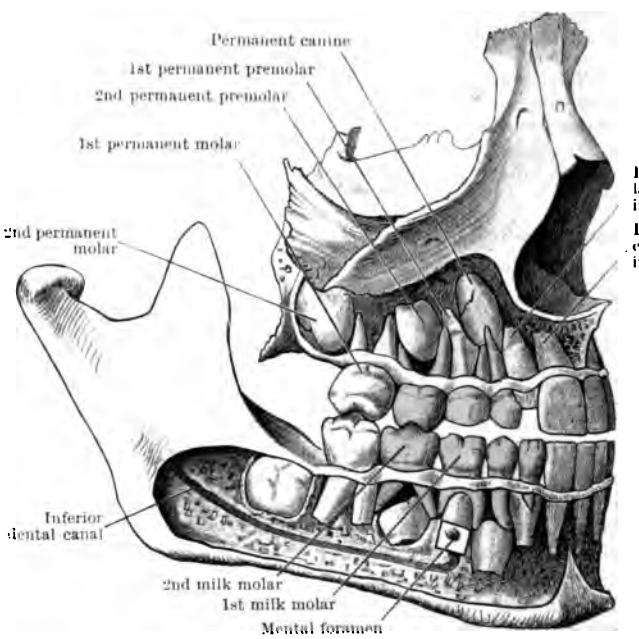


Fig. 717. Teeth of a Child over Seven Years old (modified from Testut).

By removing the bony outer wall of the alveoli, the roots of the teeth which have been erupted, and the permanent teeth which are still embedded in the mandible and maxilla, have been exposed. The milk teeth are coloured blue, the permanent teeth yellow. It will be seen that the first permanent molars have appeared, the central and lateral milk incisors have been replaced by the corresponding permanent teeth in the upper jaw, but the milk canine and molars have not yet been shed. In the lower jaw the central milk incisor has been replaced by the permanent central; the lateral has not yet been shed, but its permanent successor is making its way up to the surface on its lingual side. In addition, the canine and two molars of the milk set persist. The position of the crowns of the permanent teeth between the roots of the milk molars, and the deep situation occupied by the permanent canines, should be noted. Observe also the absorption of the root of the lower lateral incisor.

Dentine and enamel, but particularly the latter, are the hardest and most resistant structures in the body, and are thus specially fitted for the functions which they have to perform.

Temporary and Permanent Teeth.—The mouth of the infant at birth contains no teeth, although a number, partly developed, lie embedded in the jaws beneath the gum. Some six months later teeth begin to appear, and by the end of the second year a set, known as the **milk teeth**, twenty in number, has been "cut." Then follows a pause of about four years, during which no visible change takes place in the mouth, although in reality an active preparation for further development is going on beneath the gum.

At the end of this period, namely, about the sixth year, the next stage in the roduction of the adult condition begins. It consists in the eruption of four new eth—the first permanent molars—one on each side, above and below, behind those f the milk set. This is followed by the gradual falling out of the twenty teeth hich have occupied the mouth since the second year (Fig. 717), and the sub- itution for them of twenty new teeth, which take up, one by one, the vacancies reated by the dropping out of each of the milk set. Finally, the adult condition attained by the eruption of eight additional teeth—the 2nd and 3rd molars—wo on each side, above and below, behind those which have already appeared. All f these—the **permanent set**—have appeared by the end of the twelfth or thirteenth ear, except the four wisdom teeth, which are usually cut between the seventeenth nd twenty-fifth year, but are often delayed until a very much later period, and ccasionally never appear.

The set of teeth which, as indicated above, begin to appear in the infant about ne sixth month, are known as the **deciduous, temporary**, or **milk teeth** (dentes ecidui), whilst those which succeed them and form the adult equipment are the **ermanent teeth** (dentes permanentes).

The **milk teeth** are twenty in number, and are named as follows in each jaw, eginning at the middle line:—central incisor, lateral incisor, canine, first molar nd second molar; or more briefly, two incisors, one canine, two molars. This is con- eniently expressed by the "dental formula" for the deciduous teeth in man, which nows the number of each class of teeth above nd below on one side of the mouth, viz.:—

$$i.\ \tfrac{2}{2},\ c.\ \tfrac{1}{1},\ m.\ \tfrac{2}{2}.$$

The **permanent teeth**, thirty-two in umber, are named in each jaw, beginning t the middle line:—central incisor, lateral ncisor, canine, 1st premolar (or bicuspid), nd premolar (or bicuspid), 1st molar, 2nd nolar, and 3rd molar or wisdom tooth lens serotinus). The dental formula for he permanent set in man is thus:—

$$i.\ \tfrac{2}{2},\ c.\ \tfrac{1}{1},\ pm.\ \tfrac{2}{2},\ m.\ \tfrac{3}{3}.$$

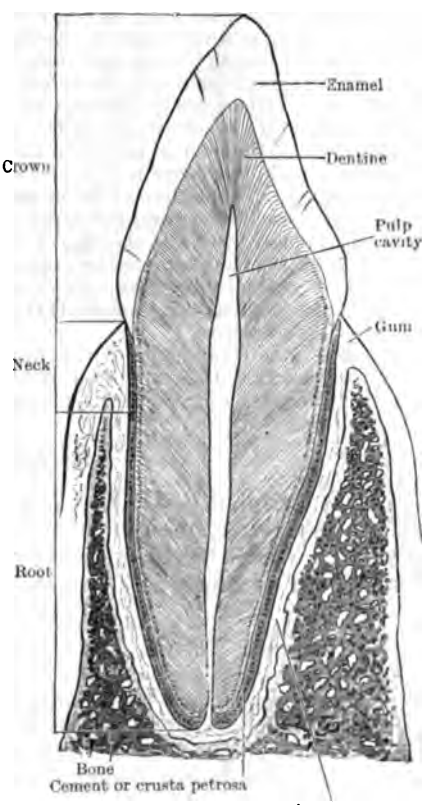


FIG. 718.—VERTICAL SECTION OF CANINE TOOTH to illustrate its various parts, and its structure.

General Form and Structure.—A tooth onsists (Fig. 718) of (1) the **crown** (corona entis), the portion projecting above the um, which varies in shape in the different eeth, and in all, except the incisors and anines, bears on its grinding surface a umber of tubercles or **cusps** (tubercula oronæ), varying in number from two to five n the different teeth; (2) the **neck** (collum entis), the faintly constricted part which is urrounded collar-wise by the gum, and hich connects the crown with (3) the **root** adix dentis), the portion of the tooth hich is embedded in the alveolus of the axilla or the mandible. In the majority f teeth, namely, in all except the molars, he root, as a rule, is single, or nearly so, nd consists of a long, tapering, conical, or attened piece, perfectly adapted to the lveolus in which it lies. In the molar teeth (and in some of the others occasion- lly) the root is divided into two or three tapering or flattened **roots** or fangs. t the apex of each root there can be made out, even with the naked eye, minute opening (foramen apicis) through which the vessels and nerves enter the ooth.

On making a section of a tooth (Fig. 718), it will be seen that the interior of

the body is occupied by a cavity of some size, generally called the **pul** (cavum dentis), owing to the fact that it is filled in the natural state by and sensitive tissue known as the **pulp**. This pulp cavity gradually below, and is prolonged into each root of the tooth as a slender tapering the **root canal** (canalis radicis), which opens at the apical foramen already to. Through these root-canals, which also contain some pulp, the ves nerves, which enter at the apex, pass to the interior of the tooth.

Short diverticula of the pulp cavity are prolonged into the bases of the the molar and premolar teeth, and in the incisors also there are similar sli longations of the cavity towards the angles of the crown.

The **roots** of the teeth are embedded in the sockets or **alveoli** of the which they are accurately adapted, and firmly united (Fig. 718) by a vascular layer of connective tissue—the **alveolar periosteum** (alveolo-denta teum or root-membrane). This is attached to the wall of the alveolus on hand and to the root of the tooth on the other, whilst above it is continu the connective tissues of the gum.

So accurately are the root and the alveolus adapted to each other ov whole extent, and so firmly does the periosteum bind them together, tha normal conditions, the tooth is quite firmly fixed in the bone, and no m of the root within the alveolus can take place; the vessels and nerves ent the apex are thus secured against pressure or strain.

When, however, the alveolar periosteum is inflamed it becomes swollen and exquisi tive; the tooth, as a result of the swelling, is pushed partly out of its socket, its crow above those of its neighbours, and strikes against the opposing tooth when the mouth giving rise to much pain and discomfort.

The **neck**, although a useful term, can scarcely be recognised as a distinct constricti permanent teeth; it corresponds to the line along which the gum and alveolar periost or along which the gum is united to the tooth; but, as already pointed out, the gum stop at the neck, but forms a free fold which surrounds the base of the crown collar-v short distance. The outline of the margin of the gum opposite the labial and lingual s the crown is usually concave, but opposite the proximal and distal sides of the tooth it and reaches much nearer to the edge of the crown than on the other surfaces.

In the incisors and canines the **pulp cavity**, which is about $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ the diameter of passes very gradually into the root canal (Fig. 718), so that it is difficult to say where and the other begins. The reverse is the case in the molars, whilst the premolars are variable in this respect.

Tartar is a hard calcareous deposit from the saliva (salivary calculus), often found on near their necks. It is composed of lime salts, and its deposit is largely determine presence of organisms (leptothrix, etc.) in the mouth.

THE PERMANENT TEETH.

The permanent teeth (Figs. 719 and 724) are thirty-two in number, sixte and sixteen below, or eight in each half of either jaw; and, although we c them under four heads—incisors, canines, premolars, and molars—the in teeth differ so much in their characters that each tooth will require a description.

Descriptive Terms.—Before describing the permanent teeth, it is requi certain terms which are employed to denote the surfaces of the teeth should be This is a matter of some importance, seeing that the terms inner and outer, ant posterior, cannot, owing to the curvature of the dental arches, be properly appli the teeth in the same sense. The terms given below have been adopted seeing t are free from the danger of misconception.

The part of a tooth which comes in contact with the teeth of the opposite jaw as the **grinding** or **masticating surface** (facies masticatoria, Fig. 721). The s contact with or looking towards its predecessor in the row is known as the **surface** (*facies medialis* in incisors and canines, *facies anterior* in premolars and the opposite surface, namely, that which looks towards its successor in the row, as the **distal surface** (*facies lateralis* in incisors and canines, *facies posterior* in m premolars). The surface which looks towards the tongue is the **lingual surfa** lingualis), and that looking in the opposite direction, *i.e.* towards the lips and c **labial surface** (facies labialis). The portion of a tooth which touches its neighbo same row is known as the **contact surface** (facies contactus).

Incisor Teeth (dentes incisivi, Figs. 719 and 720).—These teeth, four in number in each jaw, are used specially for cutting the food, hence their name. The **crown** of each is chisel-shaped, and presents an anterior or labial surface which is convex in all directions, a posterior concave surface, and a chisel-like edge, which, when first cut, is surmounted by three small tubercles separated by two grooves. These tubercles, however, are soon worn down, and the edge becomes straight or nearly so. Owing to the fact that the upper incisors overlap those in the lower jaw, the cutting edge is worn away, or becomes bevelled, on the posterior aspect in the former, but on the anterior aspect or summit in the latter. The upper, but particularly the upper central incisors, are of large size, and slope somewhat forwards;

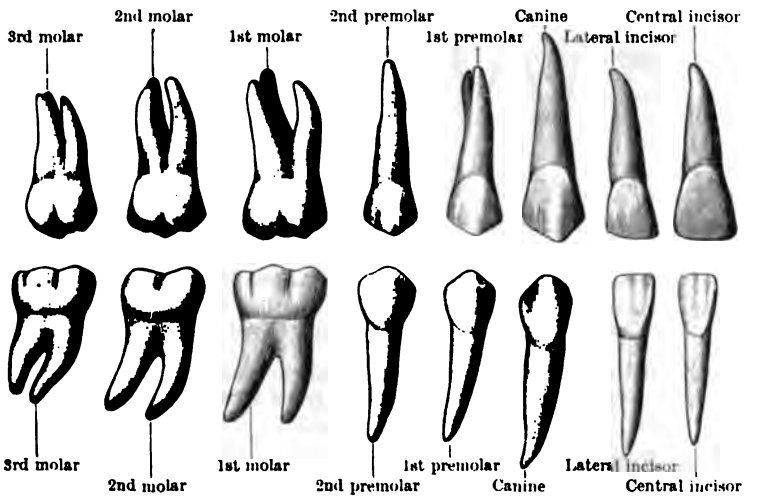


FIG. 719.—THE PERMANENT TEETH OF THE RIGHT SIDE, OUTER OR LABIAL ASPECT.
The upper row shows the upper teeth, the lower row, the lower teeth. The wide vertical "labial ridge" is distinct on the upper canine and premolar teeth.

whilst the lower incisors, which are all nearly equal in size, are much smaller—being the smallest of all the teeth—and are placed vertically. The roots of the incisors are single, though a groove is occasionally seen on each side, suggesting a division.

The central upper incisors are very much larger than the upper lateral incisors (Fig. 719), but in the lower jaw the opposite is the case, the lateral incisors being slightly the larger. In all incisors the outer (distal) angle of the crown is more rounded than the proximal. The posterior concave surface of the crown in the upper incisors is usually limited towards the gum by a ∧-shaped ridge (Fig. 720), known as the **basal ridge** or **cingulum**. The two limbs of the ∧ are continued up along the sides of the posterior surface, whilst the apex is turned towards the gum; and here, particularly in the lateral incisor, there is often developed a small **lingual cusp** (Fig. 720). The cingulum is rarely found on the lower incisors.

The roots of the upper incisors and canines are conical and rounded (the laterals and canines not so distinctly as the centrals, Fig. 723), whilst those of the lower jaw are flattened from side to side (proximo-distally).

Canine Teeth.—In the four canine teeth (dentes canini), which succeed the incisors in each row (Figs. 719 and 720), the **crown** is large and conical, corresponding closely in general form to a very large central incisor with its angles cut away, so that the crown assumes a pointed or conical shape. The labial surface is convex, the lingual usually somewhat concave. The root is single and long, particularly in the upper canine, the root of which is longer than that of any other tooth, and produces the canine eminence on the anterior surface of the upper jaw. The upper canines are larger than the corresponding lower teeth, behind which they bite; and they are sometimes known as the "eye teeth."

The upper canine presents on its lingual surface a well-marked cingulum, and often a distinct lingual cusp; in addition, there is usually a median ridge running from the point of the crown to the apex of the cingulum, which is separated from the lateral part of the cingulum on each side by a slight depression. These points are neither so well marked, nor so constant, in the lower as in the upper canine.

Of the two margins sloping away from the apex of the crown, the lateral is the longer in bo teeth. After it has been a little worn the lower canine is less distinctly pointed than the upper

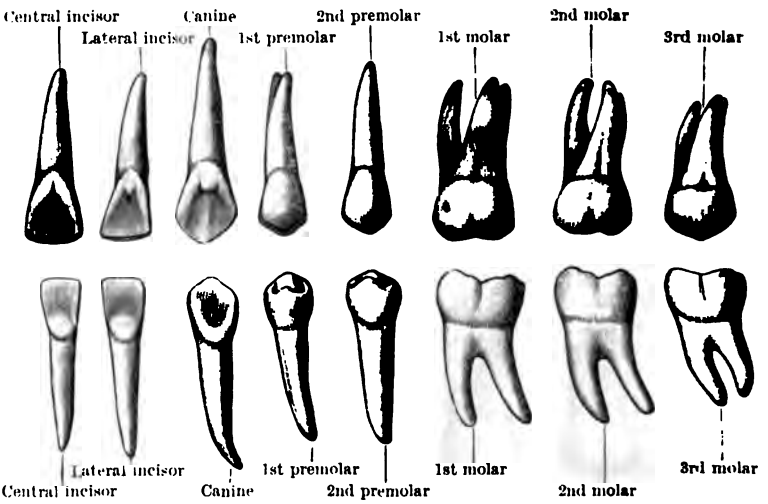


FIG. 720.—THE PERMANENT TEETH OF THE RIGHT SIDE, INNER OR LINGUAL ASPECT.

The upper row shows the upper teeth, the lower row the lower teeth. The cingulum is distinct on the upper incisors and both canines, the lingual cusp on the upper lateral incisor and the upper canine.

its root is also more flattened. On the labial surface of the crown, of both canines and premolars a wide low vertical ridge (labial ridge) can generally be made out (Fig. 719); it is most distinct on the canine and first upper premolar.

Premolar or Bicuspid Teeth (dentes premolares, Figs. 719 and 720).—Eight in number, two in each jaw above and below, the premolar teeth are placed behind the canines, and in front of the molars as indicated by the term "premolar." The crown which, unlike that of the incisors and canines, is flattened from before backwards (proximo-distally), is characterised by the presence of two cusps (Fig. 721), hence the term bicuspid often applied to the teeth. One of the cusps, the larger, is placed on the outer or labial, the other on the inner or lingual side. The labial and lingual surfaces are both convex. The root is single, but it is, as a rule, flattened from before backwards (proximo-distally) and grooved, showing in this a tendency to division, which often actually takes place in the first upper premolar. The upper premolars are easily distinguished by the fact that their two cusps are large and are separated from one another by a distinct antero-posterior fissure (Fig. 721); whilst in the lower premolars, on the other hand, the separation between the two cusps is not effected by a continuous fissure as in the upper teeth, but by two dimple-like depressions separated by a ridge, which joins the two cusps (Fig. 722). In the upper premolars, therefore, the two cusps are separated by a fissure, in the lower they are united by a ridge.

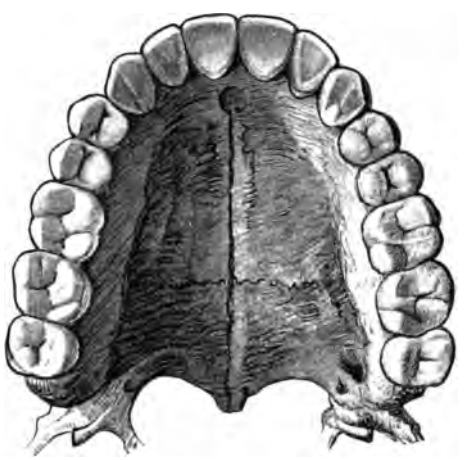


FIG. 721.—THE UPPER PERMANENT TEETH, viewed from below.

The cusps of the premolars and molars of the right side (left of picture) are particularly well shown. The ridge from the inner anterior (proximo-lingual) to the outer posterior (labio-distal) cusp is also distinct in the first and second molars. The second molars show four cusps, one of them small, although three only are frequently found.

The first upper premolar is often slightly larger than the second; the reverse is the case in the lower jaw. The outer or labial surface of the crown is usually somewhat larger than the

inner or lingual surface in all premolars. The upper are distinguished from the lower bicuspids, as pointed out above, by the fact that in the upper the two cusps are separated by a groove, in the lower they are united by a ridge; in the latter also the crowns are more circular (Figs. 715 and 722). It will further usually be found that the outer or labial surface of the crown is strongly sloped (bevelled) inwards, near the grinding surface, in the lower premolars. The first can usually be distinguished from the second by the fact, that, while the lingual cusp and surface are smaller than the labial in the first premolar, they are nearly of the same size in the second. In addition, the root of the first upper premolar is bifid or nearly so, and its labial ridge is fairly distinct, but is indistinct in the second. In the first lower premolar the lingual cusp and surface are very small, in fact the cusp is quite rudimentary. It should, however, be added that it is often extremely difficult to identify the various bicuspids. The differences may be expressed in tabular form thus:—

Premolars.

		Root.	Cusp and Surface.
Upper (have two cusps separated by a groove)	1st premolar	bifid, or nearly so	Lingual smaller than labial.
	2nd ,,	single	Lingual nearly as large as labial.
Lower (have two cusps united by a ridge)	1st premolar	single	Lingual much smaller than labial.
	2nd ,,	,,	Lingual nearly as large as labial.

Molar Teeth (dentes molares).—The molar teeth, also known as the **grinders** or **multicuspidati**, are twelve in number—three on each side above and below—and are distinguished as first, second, and third molars. The latter is also known as the wisdom tooth, owing to its late eruption. All the molars are characterised by the large size of the crown and the possession of three or more trihedral cusps on the masticating surface (Figs. 721 and 722). They are the largest of all the teeth, but they diminish in size from the first to the third, the last being, as a rule, the smallest of the three. In shape the crown is more or less quadrangular, with convex labial and lingual surfaces. The roots are either two or three in number, but frequently in the wisdom teeth they are united to a varying degree.

The molars of the upper and lower jaws differ so considerably in their further details that they must be considered separately. They may be most readily distinguished from one another by the fact that normally the **upper molars** possess three roots (Figs. 719 and 720), whilst the **lower molars** have two at most. The number of cusps, though not so reliable a guide as the form of the root, is also generally sufficient to distinguish them. In the upper molars there are either three or four cusps, whilst in the lower the number is most commonly five (see, however, page 1021).

In the **upper molars**, the **crown**, viewed from the grinding surface (Fig. 721), is rhomboidal in shape (*i.e.* quadrangular with the angles not right angles). The outer (labial) and the inner (lingual) surfaces are convex. The number of **cusps** is either four or three. On the *first* there are invariably four—two on the labial and two on the lingual side—the antero-internal (proximo-lingual) of these being connected with the postero-external (labio-distal) by an oblique ridge (Fig. 721), which is also found on the *second* and *third* molars when these bear four distinct cusps. The *second* upper molar has either four or three cusps in about an equal proportion of European skulls, whilst in the third the number is much more frequently three than four. The **roots** in the upper molars are three in number (except, occasionally, when the three roots of the wisdom tooth are confluent), two being external or labial, and the third internal or palatal (Figs. 719, 720, and 723).

In the **lower molars**, the **crown**, viewed from above (Fig. 722), is somewhat cubical. The outer and inner surfaces are convex, as in the upper molars. The *first*, as a rule, bears five cusps, two being on the outer side, two on the inner, and the fifth behind and external, that is, between the two posterior cusps and somewhat to the outer side. The *second* has usually only four cusps; a fifth, however, is sometimes present. The *third* has either four or five, the former number more frequently than the latter.

The **roots** of the lower molars are two in number, each wide, grooved, and

flattened from before backwards. One is placed anteriorly, the other posteriorly, and both are usually recurved in their lower portions (Fig. 719). As in the corre-

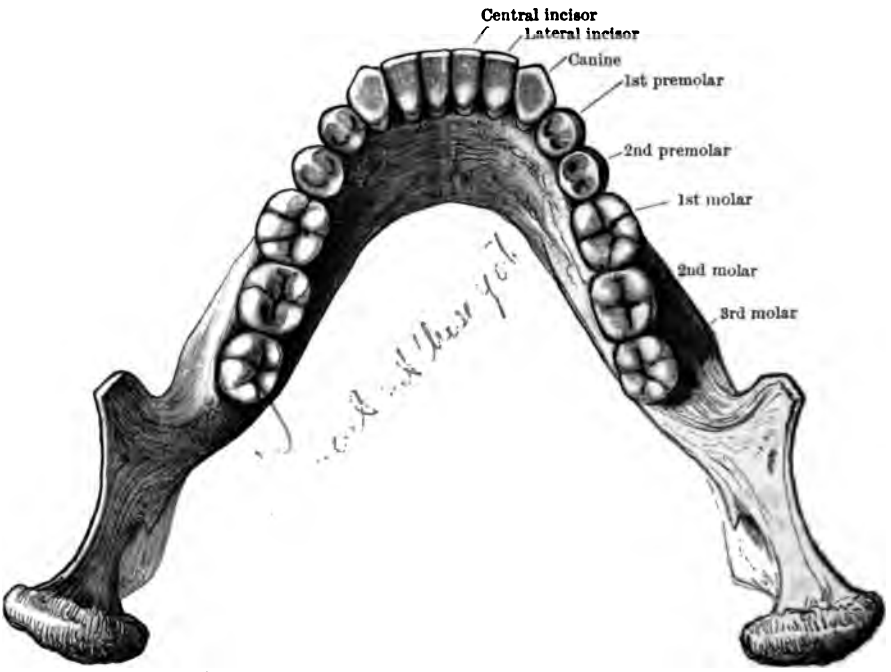


FIG. 722.—THE LOWER PERMANENT TEETH, viewed from above.

sponding teeth of the upper jaw, the roots of the lower wisdom teeth are often more or less united into a single mass.

The chief characters of the upper and lower molars may be summarised thus :—

Molars.

		1st Upper.	2nd Upper.	3rd Upper.
Upper	Cusps . .	4	3 or 4	3 or 4
	Roots . .	3	3	3 (or 1)
		1st Lower.	**2nd Lower.**	**3rd Lower.**
Lower	Cusps . .	5	4 or 5	4 or 5
	Roots . .	2	2	2 (or 1)

The molars diminish in size from before backwards. This remark applies particularly to the wisdom teeth, which are extremely variable in form and position among civilised races. The long axis of the upper molars has a general direction downwards and outwards; whilst that of the lower molars, which the former partly overlap, slopes upwards and inwards, with the result that the outer cusps of the lower molars lie in the groove separating the inner from the outer cusps of the upper teeth (Fig. 706, p. 996). As a further result of this overlapping, the outer edge of the crown is sharp and the inner edge rounded in the upper molars; whilst the inner edge is sharp and the outer edge rounded in the lower set. The cause of this is obvious. The outer margins of the upper molars overlap their fellows on the buccal side, whilst the inner margins of the lower molars overlap their fellows on the lingual side; these margins, therefore, are subject to comparatively little attrition, and consequently remain sharp. The other margin of each tooth, on the other hand, strikes against the groove on the crown of the opposing tooth, and consequently becomes worn and round.

The fissures which separate the cusps on the grinding surfaces of the molar teeth are generally continued as faint grooves on the labial and lingual surfaces.

Upper Molars.—The crowns, as already stated, are rhomboidal in shape, and when viewing their grinding surfaces, as in Fig. 721, if the planes of separation between them be prolonged, they would strike the middle line near the back part of the hard palate; in other words, their

mal and distal surfaces are not in transverse but in oblique planes, sloping strongly back- and inwards, and converging somewhat internally. A knowledge of this is useful in ining the side to which an upper molar belongs, as is the fact that the anterior labial root ader than the posterior (Fig. 723).

s regards the *number of cusps* (Fig. 721):—The first upper molar has four cusps in ically all skulls (99 per cent); occasionally, indeed, another, but very rudimentary, cusp is at on the lingual side of the antero-internal (proximo-lingual) cusp. The second molar has three or four in an almost equal proportion of Europeans, but more frequently four taking the of all nations together. (According to Topinard, four cusps are present in 66 per cent of all and in 58 per cent of European, Semitic, and Egyptian skulls; according to Zuckerkandl, in per cent of the lower races and 45·6 per cent of Europeans.) The third upper molar has three much more frequently than four amongst Europeans (four cusps only in 36 per cent, although four cusps more frequently in certain lower races). It should be remarked that, while there ractically always four cusps in the first molar, still there is a tendency to the disappearance ie postero-internal (disto-lingual) cusp, which tendency grows more pronounced as we ackwards to the second and third s. The other cusps are practically ant.

he three **roots** of the upper molars . 719, 720, and 723) are a large inner latal, sub-cylindrical in shape, and xternal or labial roots, smaller and ned from before backwards. The al fang, which is placed opposite osterior labial root, is often united ie of the others. The lower part e antrum of Highmore generally ids down between the palatal and wo labial fangs (Fig. 706, p. 996), he latter project on its floor more ently than the palatal root. In wisdom tooth the three roots are iently more or less united into a e conical process (Fig. 723).

ower Molars.—The **crowns** are massive than those of the upper rs, and are elongated antero-pos- rly (Fig. 722). A crucial groove ates the four chief cusps from one ier; this bifurcates behind to en- the fifth cusp, which lies slightly e outer side of the middle of the . The *number of cusps* present in ower molars is as follows:—The has usually five cusps (62 per cent l races, 61 per cent of Europeans); econd has four cusps, as a rule (five in only 24 per cent of all skulls); ower wisdom tooth has four cusps tle more frequently than five (five 3 per cent of all skulls), but like pper wisdom tooth it is extremely able.

'he **roots** of the lower molars 719), two in number, are flattened before backwards, and very wide. The anterior of these has two root canals; the posterior one (Fig. 723). The wisdom tooth has commonly two roots like its fellows; occasionally the are united. In determining the side to which a lower molar belongs, it should be remembered the lower part of the root is generally curved backwards, and also that the blunter margin e crown (see above) and the fifth cusp, if present, are on the outer side.

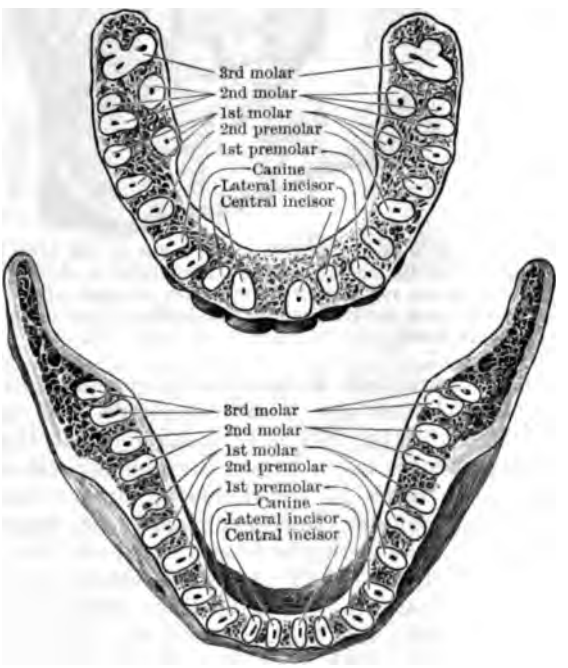


FIG. 723.—HORIZONTAL SECTIONS THROUGH BOTH THE UPPER AND LOWER JAWS to show the roots of the teeth. The sections were carried through the bones a short distance from the edge of their alveolar borders. The upper figure shows the upper teeth, the lower figure the lower teeth. Note the flattened roots of the lower incisors, the two root canals in the anterior root of each lower molar, and the confluence of the three roots of the upper wisdom teeth.

Arrangement of the Teeth in the Jaws.—The teeth are arranged in each jaw curved row—the **dental arch** (arcus dentalis)—of approximately a semi-oval (Figs. 721 and 722). The curve formed by the upper teeth, however, is wider that formed by the lower set, so that when the two are brought in contact upper incisors and canines overlap their fellows in front, and the outer cusps ie upper premolars and molars overlap the corresponding cusps of the lower h (Fig. 706, p. 996). It will also be seen that, as a rule, the teeth in one are not placed exactly opposite their fellows, but rather opposite the interval veen two teeth, in the other jaw (Fig. 724). This arrangement is brought it largely by the great width of the upper central incisors as compared with

their fellows of the lower jaw, which throws the upper canines and the succeeding teeth into a position behind (distal to) that of the same named teeth of the lower set. But as the lower molars are larger in their antero-posterior diameter than those of the upper row—and this remark applies particularly to the wisdom teeth—the two dental arches terminate behind at approximately the same point.

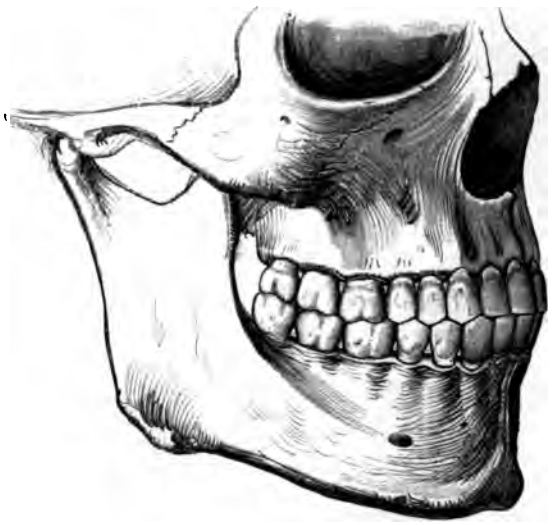


Fig. 724.—To show the relation of the upper to the lower teeth when the mouth is closed. The manner in which a tooth of one row usually strikes against two teeth of the opposite row, and the resulting interlocking of the teeth, is to be noted.

The upper dental arch is said to form an **elliptical**, the lower **a parabolic curve** (Figs. 721 and 722). The line formed by the grinding surfaces of the upper teeth, as seen on profile view (Fig. 724), is usually somewhat convex, owing largely to the failure of the wisdom tooth to descend into line with the others. Similarly the line of the lower teeth is as a rule concave.

In both jaws the crowns of the front teeth are higher (longer) than those of the molars.

Period of Eruption of the Permanent Teeth.—Although there is considerable variety in the *dates* at which the various permanent teeth appear above the gums, the *order* of eruption is practically constant in different individuals, and is as follows:—Before any of the temporary teeth are lost the first permanent molars appear behind the 2nd milk molars. Next the central milk incisors fall out, and their places are taken by the permanent teeth of the same name; then follow the remaining teeth in the following order: Lateral incisors, 1st premolars, 2nd premolars, canines, 2nd molars, and 3rd molars. It will be observed that the eruption of the canine is delayed until the two premolars, which succeed it in the row, are cut, so that it breaks the otherwise regular order of eruption. The 1st molar is sometimes popularly known, owing to the date of its eruption, as the "six-year-old tooth," and the 2nd molar as "the twelve-year-old tooth."

The dates at which the eruption usually takes place may be simply stated as follows for the lower teeth; those of the upper jaw appear a little later:—

1st molars	appear	soon after	the 6th	year.
Central incisors	appear	soon after	the 7th	year.
Lateral „	„	„	8th	„
1st premolar	„	„	9th	„
2nd „	„	„	10th	„
Canine „	„	„	11th	„
2nd molar	„	„	12th	„
3rd „	„	from the	17th	„ to

Variations in the Number of the Teeth.—The presence of an additional tooth is by no means uncommon. It may appear in connexion with the incisor, premolar, or the molar groups. Windle very properly draws a distinction between "supernumerary" or imperfect additions to the dentition and "supplemental" teeth which correspond in size with those with which they are associated. When a supplemental incisor appears it has an interesting bearing upon the solution of the much-debated point as to which incisor has disappeared from the primate dentition. The addition of a third premolar may be looked upon as a reversion to the condition present in the New World Apes and the Lemurs. The presence of a fourth molar has not infrequently been observed, and recently it has formed the subject of an instructive and suggestive paper by J. T. Wilson (*Journ. Anat. and Phys.*, vol. xxxix. part ii.).

The Milk Teeth.

The **deciduous, temporary,** or **milk teeth** (dentes decidui) are twenty in number, ten above and ten below, or five in each half of each jaw—namely, **two incisors, one**

ne, and two molars. They may be distinguished from the permanent teeth heir smaller size, their well-marked and constricted necks, and, in the case of molars, by the wide divergence of their roots (Fig. 725). Otherwise they espond so closely to the same named teeth of the permanent set, that they ire no separate description, except in the case of the molars. The first upper ır has but three cusps on its crown—two external and one internal; the lower molar has four—external and two internal, the crowns of both are ened from side to side. second molars of the upper have four, those of the r jaw five cusps each. In y case the second are much er than the first molars. cusps are sharper and are rated by deeper fissures fossæ than those of the ıanent teeth, whilst the s of the milk molars, pt for their greater di- ence, agree with those of permanent set.

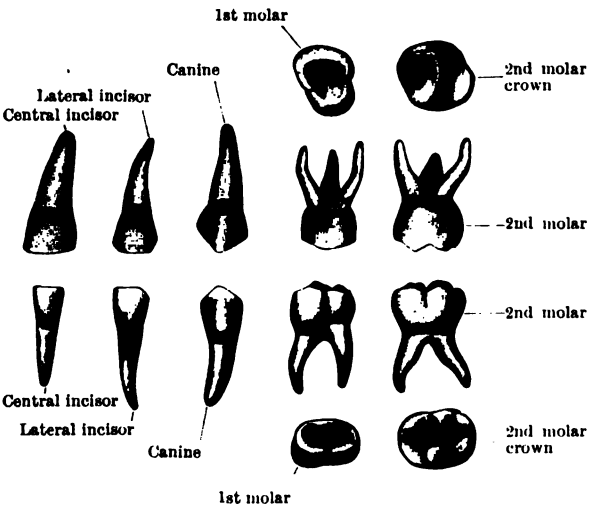


FIG. 725.—THE MILK TEETH OF THE LEFT SIDE.
The masticating surfaces of the two upper molars are shown above. In the second row the upper teeth are viewed from the outer or labial side. In the third row the lower teeth are shown in a similar manner; and below are the masticating surfaces of the two lower molars. In the specimen from which the first upper molar was drawn the two outer or buccal cusps were not distinctly separated, as is often the case.

he marked constriction at the of the milk teeth (Fig. 725) is o a great thickening of the cap ıamel on the crown, and its pt termination as the neck is ıed. The enamel, too, is much er as a rule than in the per- ıt teeth. It should be added the labial surface of the canines molars departs very markedly the vertical; it slopes strongly inwards towards the mouth cavity as it approaches the ling surface of the crown, which latter is, as a result, much reduced in width. he divergence of the fangs in the milk molars allows the crowns of the permanent premolars in between them before the milk molars are shed.

STRUCTURE OF THE TEETH.

ıs mentioned above, the teeth are composed of three special tissues, enamel, dentine, crusta petrosa, in addition to the pulp which occupies the tooth cavity. The chief of the tooth is formed of dentine, which surrounds the pulp cavity and extends from n to root; outside this is a covering of enamel on the crown, and a layer of crusta osa or cement on the root.

he **enamel** (substantia adamantina) is the dense, white, glistening layer which s a cap, thickest over the cusps, for the portion of each tooth projecting above the (Fig. 718). At the neck it ceases gradually, being here slightly overlapped by the a petrosa.

is composed chiefly of phosphate and carbonate of lime (phosphate of calcium 89·82 per carbonate of calcium 4·37 per cent, magnesium phosphate 1·34 per cent, a trace of calcium de, other salts ·88 per cent), and has generally been considered to contain about 3·6 per cent ganic substance; but this Tomes has recently shown to be inaccurate: "That which has ofore been set down as organic matter is simply water combined with the lime salts. ıel is to be regarded as an inorganic substance composed of lime salts, which have been ıited in particular patterns and formed under the influence of organic tissues, which have selves disappeared during its formation."

namel consists of calcified microscopic prisms (prismata adamantina), radiating from urface of the dentine, on which their inner ends lie, to the surface of the crown, hich they terminate by free ends. These prisms are hexagonal in shape, solid, and nsiderable length, for most of them reach from the dentine to the surface of the crown out interruption. The prisms, which are calcified themselves, are held together by the least possible amount of calcified matrix (Tomes). In old teeth the cap of enamel is

often worn away over the cusps, the dentine is then exposed, and is easily recognised i its yellowish colour, which contrasts strongly with the whiteness of the enamel.

Whilst adjacent enamel prisms are in general parallel to one another, they do n usually take a straight, but rather a wavy course, and in alternate layers they are oft inclined in opposite directions, thus giving rise to certain radial striations seen reflected light (Schreger's lines). Certain other pigmented lines, more or less parallel the surface, are also seen in the enamel (brown striæ of Retzius). They are due to tr pigmentation (Williams), and mark the lines of deposit of the enamel during its devel ment. The enamel prisms are more or less tubular in certain animals—viz. in marsupials except the wombat, in the hyrax, certain insectivora, and certain rodents.

Nasmyth's membrane (enamel cuticle) is an extremely thin ($\frac{1}{2000}$ of an inc cuticular layer which covers the enamel of recently-cut teeth, and is very indestructib resisting almost all reagents. Two chief views are held as to its origin. One that it the last formed layer of enamel, which has not yet been calcified, and therefore the fi product of the enamel cells. The other that it is produced by the outer layer of cells the enamel organ. This latter seems to be the more probable view.

Dentine (substantia eburnea) is the hard and highly elastic substance, yellowi white in colour, which forms the greater part of the mass of every tooth (Fig. 72 Like the enamel it is highly calcified, bu differs from enamel in containing a very co siderable amount of organic matter a water incorporated with its salts, which a chiefly phosphate and carbonate of lime.

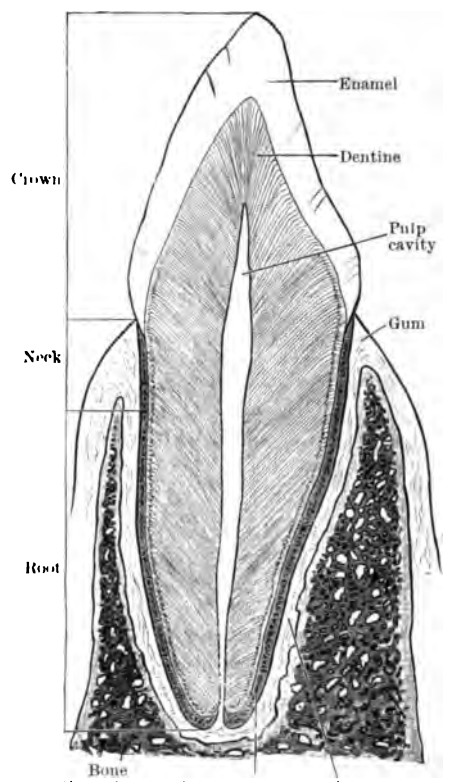


Fig. 726. Vertical Section of Canine Tooth, to illustrate its various parts, and its structure.

Fresh human dentine contains 10 per cent water, 28 per cent of organic and 62 per cent inorganic material. The organic matter is co posed chiefly of collagen, and to a less exten elastin. The organic matter consists of calcium phosphate (with a trace of fluoride), calcium carbonate, and (3) magnesium phosphat the percentages present in dried dentine bei 66·72, 3·36, 1·08 respectively.

Dentine consists of a highly calcifi organic matrix, which is itself practical structureless, although everywhere traver by tubes—the **dentinal tubes**—which gi to this tissue a finely striated appearan the striæ usually running in wavy lin The dentinal tubes begin by open mouths the wall of the pulp cavity, whence they r an undulating, and at the same time a sc what spiral course, towards the periphery the dentine. They give off fine anastomosi branches, and occasionally divide into t Somewhat reduced in size, they usually end the outer part of the dentine.

The tubules are generally described being lined by special sheaths (dentinal shea of Neumann) which are composed of a m resistant material, and possibly are calcifi It should be mentioned that the prese of these sheaths as separate structures doubted by some authorities, who hold that the part described as the sheath is onl modified portion of the dentinal matrix surrounding the tubules.

The dentinal tubules are occupied by processes, prolonged from the outermost cells the pulp—the odontoblasts. These processes are called after their discoverer, **Tom fibrils** (dentinal fibrils), and they are probably sensory in function.

The concentric **lines of Schreger**, frequently seen in the dentine, are due to bends in succes dentinal tubes taking place along regular lines parallel to the periphery of the dentine. Oth lines (the incremental lines of Salter), due to imperfect calcification, are found arching across t substance of the dentine, chiefly in the crown. There must also be mentioned **the interglobul spaces**, intervals left in the dentine, as a result of imperfect calcification, bounded by the fu calcified surrounding dentine, the contour of which is in the form of a number of small projecti

globules of dentine. These interglobular spaces are very numerous in the outer or "granular layer" of the dentine, particularly beneath the cementum (see Fig. 726).

The **crusta petrosa** or **cementum** (substantia ossea) is a layer of modified bone which encases the whole of the tooth except its crown. It begins as a very thin stratum, slightly overlapping the enamel at the neck. From this it is continued, increasing in amount, towards the apex, which latter is formed entirely of this substance. It is relatively less in amount in the child, and increases during life. In places the dentine seems to pass imperceptibly into the crusta petrosa (the "granular layer" of dentine marking the junction of the two, see Fig. 726), and some of the dentinal tubes are continuous with the lacunæ of the cementum. Like true bone, it is laminated, it possesses lacunæ, canaliculi, and, when in large masses, it may even contain a few Haversian canals.

The **tooth pulp** occupies the pulp cavity and the root canals of the teeth. It is composed of a number of branched connective tissue cells, the anastomosing processes of which form a fine connective tissue network, containing in its meshes a jelly-like material, in addition to numerous vessels and nerves, but no lymphatics. The most superficial of these cells form in the young tooth a continuous layer of columnar, epithelium-like cells, lying on the surface of the pulp against the dentine; they are known as **odontoblasts**, for they are the active agents in the formation of dentine. From the outer ends of the odontoblasts processes are continued into the dentinal tubes, where they have been already referred to as Tomes' fibrils. The vessels of the pulp are numerous, and form a capillary plexus immediately within the odontoblasts. The nerves form rich plexuses throughout the pulp, but their exact mode of ending is unknown.

The **alveolar periosteum** (alveolo-dental periosteum or root-membrane) is a layer of connective tissue free from elastic fibres, but well supplied both with blood-vessels and nerves, which fixes the root of the tooth in the alveolus, being firmly united by perforating fibres of Sharpey, to the crusta petrosa on the one hand, and to the bone of the alveolus on the other. It establishes a communication between the bone of the jaw and the cementum, and above it is continuous with the tissue of the gum. Its blood comes chiefly from the arteries, which subsequently enter the apical canals for the supply of the pulp, but in part also from the vessels of the bone and those of the gum (hence the relief obtained in dental periostitis by lancing the gum).

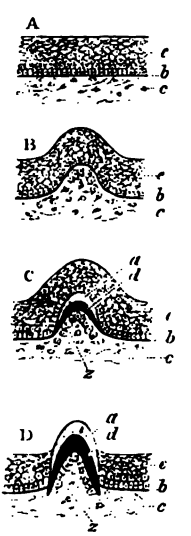
Development of the Teeth.

At the beginning of this chapter a tooth was described as a calcified papilla of the mucous membrane, composed of two chief parts—namely, the enamel formed by the epithelial layer, and the dentine by the connective tissue layer of the mucous membrane. The details of the process by which such a tooth is developed from the two layers of the mucous membrane are both numerous and intricate, and can be but briefly described here.

In lower vertebrates (sharks, rays, etc.), teeth which correspond essentially, both in structure and development, to those of mammals, are found on the surface of the body, and are known as **dermal teeth**. The following outline of the development of the dermal tooth of a shark may assist in rendering the development of the human teeth more intelligible:—

First, a **papilla** is formed from the corium or connective tissue layer of the skin (Fig. 727, B), which papilla is covered over by the epithelial layer.

Next the superficial (connective tissue) cells of the papilla begin to form a layer of **dentine** on the surface of the papilla (Fig. 727, C), which it soon encases, the remains of the papilla persisting in the interior as the future **pulp**. At the same time the deepest cells of the epithelium deposit a layer of **enamel**, outside the dentine, over the summit of the papilla (Fig. 727, C), and subsequently the two—enamel and dentine—become inseparably united, thus giving rise to the substance of the tooth.



A, Section of skin showing epithelium *c*, basement membrane *b*, and connective tissue layer *c*.

B shows the papilla of the connective tissue layer growing up covered by the epithelial layer.

In C the superficial cells of the papilla *z* begin to deposit dentine *d* over the papilla, and at the same time the deepest cells of the epithelium deposit enamel *a*.

D shows the tooth breaking through the epithelium and reaching the surface.

Fig. 727.—Diagram to illustrate the Development of a Dermal Tooth in the Shark.

In all figures—*a*, enamel; *b*, basement membrane; *c*, connective tissue layer of skin; *d*, dentine; *e*, epithelium; and *z*, superficial cells of papilla.

At a later period the epithelium covering the summit disappears and the tooth comes to the surface; this constitutes its **eruption (Fig. 727, D)**.

and in each case the two layers of cells—odontoblasts and enamel cells—which produced the deposits, retiring gradually from one another, as the space between them becomes occupied by the newly-formed dentine and enamel respectively (Fig. 728, V.).

The remains of the dentine papilla persist as the **pulp** of the tooth, which is covered even in the adult by the odontoblasts, and occupies the **pulp cavity**, *i.e.* the central part of the tooth to which the dentine formation has not extended.

6. Turning now to the jaw itself: The connective tissue of the gum surrounding the **tooth germ** (as the developing tooth with its enamel organ and dentine papilla are called) early becomes condensed and vascular (Fig. 728, V.), and later on forms a membranous **bag**—the **tooth-sac** or **follicle**—which completely shuts off the developing tooth from the surrounding structures. On the floor of this sac the tooth germ sits, the base of its dentine papilla being continuous with the tissue of the floor of the sac, and the young tooth being enclosed by the sac, as a kernel is enclosed by its shell.

7. Reverting to the tooth: When the crown is completed the deposit of dentine, but not of enamel, is continued downwards to form the **root**. This latter is composed chiefly of dentine continuous above with that of the crown, and like it formed by the odontoblasts of the dentine papilla. As the dentine is deposited, and the root is being built up, the connective tissue of the tooth-sac comes to surround the root more closely, and deposits on its surface, after the manner of a periosteum, a layer of bone, the **cementum** or **crusta petrosa**. The cementum having been formed, the connective tissue of the sac then persists as the **alveolar periosteum**. The development of the root takes place very slowly, and its lower end is not completed as a rule for some time after the eruption of the tooth has taken place.

8. During the development of the teeth the ossification of the jaw has been going on, and as it grows up on each side, the young teeth, enclosed in their tooth-sacs, come to lie in an open bony groove, which is subsequently divided by septa into compartments—the **alveoli**—for the individual tooth-sacs. The bone continuing to grow after birth, these compartments become more perfect, but are never entirely closed in over the crowns of the teeth. During the eruption of the teeth the upper and anterior part of these bony cells is absorbed; subsequently, however, it is reformed around each tooth when it has taken its final position.

9. **Eruption.**—Long before the root is completed, the crown, by some force which is not properly understood, but which does not seem to depend on additions to the root, is pushed through the top of the tooth sac, and—the upper and anterior wall of the roomy alveolus having been absorbed at the same time—onwards through the gum until the mouth is reached. Later on, when the tooth has assumed its final position, the alveolus, as already stated, is re-formed, and closely embraces the completed root.

10. After the enamel organs of the milk teeth have been formed on the inferior aspect of the dental lamina, as described above, the neck of epithelium by which the lamina is still connected with the surface becomes broken up into a cribriform sheet. Its free posterior border, on the other hand, continues to grow backwards in the tissue of the gum towards the cavity of the mouth (Fig. 728, III. and IV.), and at a later date there appear on its under surface, near the free edge, and behind the several developing milk teeth, the enamel organs—or so-called "reserve germs"—for the corresponding **permanent teeth**, which are developed from these in exactly the same manner as the milk teeth described above.

In connexion with the development of the **permanent molars**, which have no corresponding teeth in the milk set, there takes place a prolongation backwards of the posterior extremity of the dental lamina into the tissue of the jaw, behind the last milk molar. On the inferior aspect of this prolongation, which has no direct connexion with the surface epithelium, enamel organs are formed for the permanent molars, and their further development goes on in the manner described for the other teeth.

The *dates* at which some of the chief events in the development of the teeth occur may be briefly given:—The thickening of the epithelium, the first sign of the future teeth, begins about the sixth week of fœtal life, and the dental lamina is completed by the end of the seventh week.

The dentine papillæ for the eight front teeth appear and become surrounded by their enamel organs about the tenth week, and the papilla for the first permanent molar about the seventeenth week.

The first traces of calcification, and the formation of the tooth-sacs, take place about the fifth month of fœtal life.

Eruption of Deciduous Teeth.—The period at which the eruption of the milk teeth takes place is extremely variable, and no two observers seem to agree upon the question.

The following, according to Tomes, may be taken as representing the average. The lower central incisors appear first, usually between the sixth and ninth months; then follows a rest of a few months. Next come the four upper incisors, followed by a rest of a few months. Then the lower lateral incisors and the four first molars erupt, succeeded by a rest of a few months. Next appear the canines, and finally the four second molars, which are all cut by the end of the second year.

The following statement is simple, and perhaps is sufficient for all ordinary purposes. The temporary teeth usually appear in the following order: Central incisors, lateral incisors, first molars, canines and second molars; the eruption commences between the sixth and the ninth month, and is usually completed by the twenty-fourth—the lower teeth, as a rule, preceding the upper.

Formation of Enamel and Dentine.—Different opinions are held as to the method in which the **enamel** is produced by the enamel cells. One view maintains that it is secreted and cast out by the enamel cells (Kölliker). According to the other view, part of the substance of the cells is actually converted or transformed into enamel (Tomes). In connexion with this latter view, which seems to receive more support at present, Tomes has discovered that there projects from the base of each enamel cell, towards or into the most recently formed enamel, a fibrillar process, which has received the name of **Tomes' process**, and he holds that the enamel is formed by calcification taking place in or around the process.

Similarly, two views are held as to the production of **dentine** by the **odontoblasts**; one is that the odontoblasts secrete the matrix of the dentine, and the other, that their substance is actually converted into the matrix. The odontoblasts, when active, are branched columnar-shaped cells, and from their outer ends one or more processes extend towards and into the dentine; between these processes a matrix appears—produced probably by the odontoblasts—and soon this matrix becomes calcified. In this way the dentine is formed, and the process is repeated until its full thickness is attained. The branches of the odontoblasts, encased in dentine, just mentioned, are the Tomes' fibrils already described; the canals in which they lie are the dentinal tubes; and the fibrils themselves are concerned in the production of the sheaths of Neumann which line the tubes.

The **tooth-sacs**, when fully developed, are large and distinct fibrous bags which lie in the alveoli of the maxilla and mandible, and are continuous above with the tissue of the gum. On the lingual side of the sacs of the milk teeth are found the germs of the permanent teeth, surrounded by their own sacs. These latter are at first very small, and are partly embedded in the posterior wall of the temporary tooth-sacs, but subsequently they come to lie in distinct but incomplete bony cavities of their own. The bone surrounding the tooth-sacs, temporary and permanent, is always wanting over the summit of the sac, and the band of connective tissue by which the sac is connected with the overlying gum tissue, through the deficiency, is known as the **gubernaculum dentis**.

These points are easily demonstrated on the lower jaw of a child at birth, particularly when the tissues have been allowed to soften a little. If, in such a specimen, the gum and periosteum be reflected upwards from the outer and inner surfaces of the mandible, and freed as far as the upper border of the jaw, the gum, with the tooth-sacs depending from it like small bags, can be pulled away out of the bony groove of the jaw; and if the operation has been successfully performed, the tooth-sacs of the three front permanent teeth may be seen, varying in size from a small pin's-head to a hemp-seed, hanging down behind the upper part of the corresponding temporary sacs. As already explained, the tooth-sacs are produced simply by a condensation of the connective tissue around the developing tooth, the condensation going on to the formation of a distinct membranous bag.

Formation of Alveoli and Eruption.—At first the developing teeth lie in an open bony groove or channel between the outer and inner plates of the young jaw. This groove is subsequently divided up into separate compartments for the sacs of each of the temporary teeth. As development proceeds these compartments or alveoli surround the sacs more completely, but never actually close over the summit. When the eruption of the temporary teeth is about to take place, the anterior wall and roof of the alveolus are absorbed: the tooth passes through the sac and appears above the gum, and then the alveolus, which up to this was much too large to give actual support, is re-formed more closely around the tooth. Meanwhile the root, which was only partly formed at the time of the eruption, continues to be added to, possibly for a few years more, and, as it grows, the alveolus is completed around it. When the permanent tooth, or as much of it as is then formed, is about to be erupted, it makes its way from its own bony cell through the posterior wall of the alveolus of its temporary predecessor: the root of the temporary tooth undergoes absorption at the same time, but quite independently of pressure from the permanent tooth. The alveolus, now occupied by both teeth, is again much enlarged by absorption, particularly in front: what remains of the temporary tooth is shed: the

permanent tooth passes onwards through the enlarged alveolus, and, making its way to the surface, appears above the gum. After some time, when the tooth has taken its final position, the alveolus is again re-formed, first around its neck, and later on, as the root is built up, around it also, and thus the tooth is permanently fixed.

What the force is which causes the eruption, is a question that has not been answered satisfactorily. That the growth of the root pushes up the crown was formerly the favourite explanation. For several reasons, unnecessary to detail, this view is now discarded, and a theory which attributes the impelling force to the blood pressure is looked upon with more favour, although even this is not altogether satisfactory. (See Tomes' *Dental Anatomy*, 5th Edition, page 211.)

Morphology of the Teeth.

In most vertebrates below mammals all the teeth are alike in form; such a dentition is said to be **homodont**. In the majority of mammals, on the other hand, the teeth are arranged in groups of different size and form; such a dentition is **heterodont**.

Again, mammals have, neglecting exceptional cases, but two functional sets of teeth; they are consequently said to be **diphyodont**. Most vertebrates below mammals, on the other hand, have a continuous succession of teeth throughout life, and hence are said to be **polyphyodont**.

Seeing that practically all lower vertebrates are provided with simple conical teeth, the evolution of the many-cusped mammalian molar has given rise to much speculation. The jaws of the earliest fossil mammals found are furnished with tri-tubercular teeth, the three tubercles being placed in an antero-posterior line; by a rotation of two of the cusps out or in, as the case may be (a condition found in certain other fossil skulls), we arrive at a tri-tubercular form, from which the transition to an ordinary mammalian molar is not difficult. As to how the tri-tubercular tooth arose from the simple cone, two different views are advanced: one, that it was formed by the union of several conical teeth as a result of the shortening of the jaw and the crowding of the teeth together; the other, that the single conical tooth developed on its crown two subsidiary cusps, one in front and the other behind, and that these cusps growing larger, the tooth assumed the tri-tubercular form.

The complete or **typical mammalian dentition**, in its highest development, as in the horse, is represented by the following formula: i, $\frac{3}{3}$, c. $\frac{1}{1}$, pm. $\frac{4}{4}$, m. $\frac{3}{3}=44$. In the dentition of man, therefore, one incisor and two premolars are wanting. Different views are held as to which teeth have been suppressed—most probably they are the second incisors, and the first and second or first and last premolars.

In general it may be said that the **dentition of the lower races** differs from that of the higher, in that the dental arches are squarer in front, the teeth larger and more regular, the canines stronger, the wisdom teeth better developed, and the cusps on the molars more perfect, in the lower than in the more civilised races. It may be mentioned, however, that the teeth of a savage man, if seen in the mouth of a European, would be looked upon as an "exceedingly perfectly-formed set of teeth" (Tomes).

To express the proportionate size of the crowns of the premolars and molars to that of the skull in different races, Flower compared the distance from the front of the first premolar to the back of the last molar, *in situ*, with the distance from the front of the foramen magnum to the naso-frontal suture (basi-nasal length), in the form of a "dental index"—

$$\text{Thus: } \frac{\text{Length of teeth} \times 100}{\text{Basi-nasal length}} = \text{Dental index,}$$

and by this means he has divided the various races into **microdont** (index 42 to 43, Europeans, Egyptians, etc.), **mesodont** (index 43 to 44, Chinese, American Indians, Negroes, etc.), and **macrodont** (index 44 and upwards, Australians, Melanesians, etc.).

THE PHARYNX.

The **pharynx** is the expanded upper portion of the digestive tube which lies behind, and communicates with, the mouth, the larynx, and the nasal cavities (Fig. 729). It serves for the passage of both air and food, conveying the former to the larynx and the latter to the œsophagus.

It extends from the base of the skull above to the level of the sixth cervical vertebra below (Fig. 730), where, opposite the lower border of the cricoid cartilage, it passes into the œsophagus; its total length varies from 5 to $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches (12·5 to 14·0 cm.).

When in its natural state within the body, the pharynx is expanded laterally and compressed in the opposite direction, so that its anterior and posterior walls approach one another, and its sides are reduced to little more than mere borders. Although its cavity is much reduced by this approximation of the anterior and posterior walls, there is always left, above the orifice of the larynx, a sufficient

space for the entrance of air to the lungs. Below the laryngeal orifice, on the other hand, the anterior and posterior walls are in contact, and the cavity, except during the passage of food, is reduced to a transverse slit (Fig. 730).

As usually seen in the dissecting-room, when distended for dissection, the pharynx is of an elongated oval form, tapering rapidly below. This form, however, is due entirely to the artificial conditions under which it is placed.

Taken as a whole, the pharynx is a tube, the anterior wall of which is wanting. The place of this wall is occupied by the nasal, oral and laryngeal cavities, as well as by the base of the tongue; and to the lateral boundaries of all these parts the sides of the tube are connected. In this way it comes to be attached from above downwards to the following more or less fixed points:—(1) The Eustachian tube and internal pterygoid plate; (2) the pterygomaxillary ligament, the posterior end of the mylohyoid ridge on the inner aspect of the lower jaw, and the mucous membrane of the mouth; (3) the base of the tongue and the hyoid bone; and (4) the thyroid and cricoid cartilages of the larynx. Above, it is firmly fixed by its aponeurosis to the periosteum of the basi-occipital and petrous portion of the temporal bones; and in addition the raphe of the constrictors is attached to the pharyngeal tubercle of the occipital bone. Below it becomes continuous with the œsophagus. Behind and at the sides, the pharynx is connected merely by loose areolar tissue to the surrounding parts.

FIG. 729.—THE ANTERIOR WALL OF THE PHARYNX WITH ITS ORIFICES, SEEN FROM BEHIND.

The specimen from which the drawing was made was obtained from a formalin-hardened body, by removing the posterior wall of the pharynx while leaving the anterior wall undisturbed. The following points should be noted: the greatest width of the pharynx, above, at the lateral recesses; the posterior nares, with the inferior turbinated bones seen through them; the levator cushion; and the pharyngeal portion of the tongue.

The pharynx presents the following **relations**:—*In front*, as already described, are the nasal cavities, the mouth, base of tongue, and larynx, all of which are seen on its anterior wall (Fig. 729). *Behind*, it is separated by loose areolar tissue (known as the **retro-pharyngeal space**) from the prevertebral fascia and muscles, which intervene between it and the six upper cervical vertebræ. *At the sides* are placed the carotid sheaths with their contents, whilst the styloid process with its muscles, and the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, running downwards and forwards, form lateral

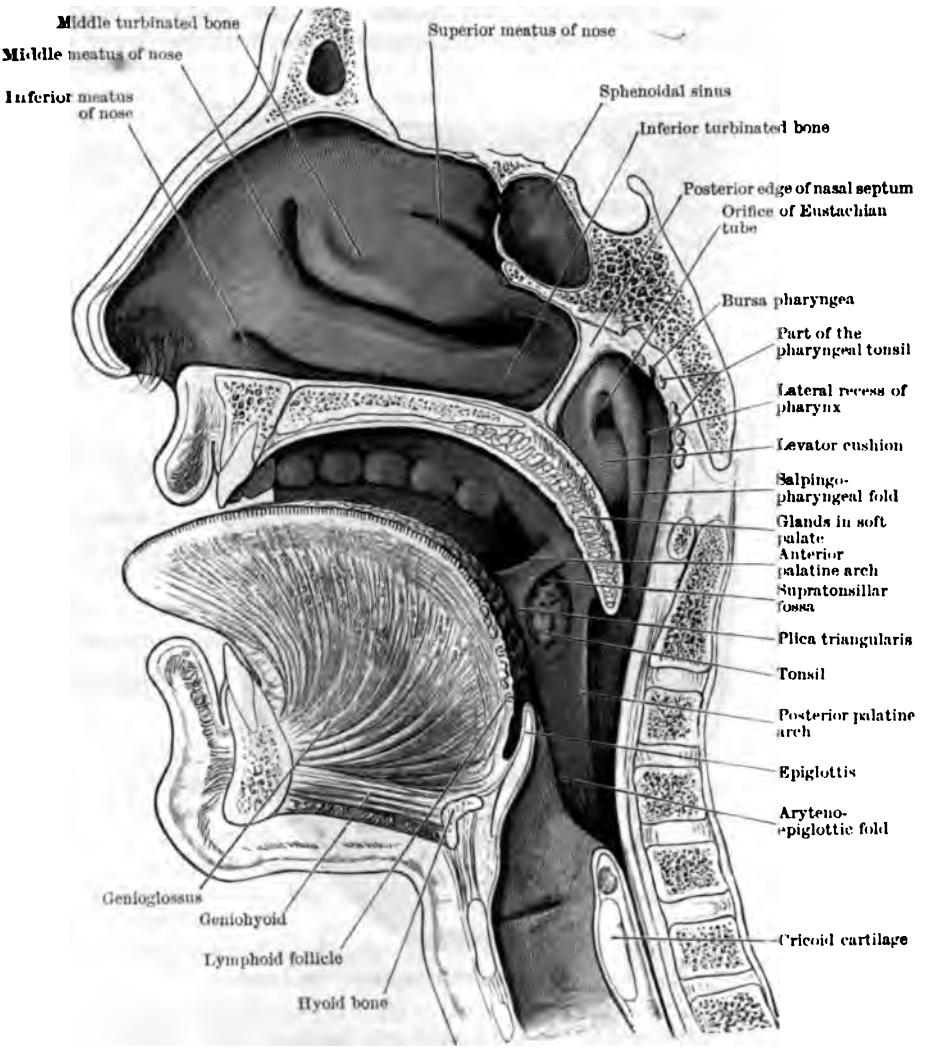


FIG. 730.—SAGITTAL SECTION THROUGH MOUTH, TONGUE, LARYNX, PHARYNX, AND NASAL CAVITY.

The section is slightly oblique, and the posterior edge of the nasal septum has been preserved. The specimen is viewed slightly from below, hence in part the low position of the inferior turbinated bone.

relations in its upper part. *Above*, the pharynx is united to the basi-occipital and the petrous portion of the temporal bones, as already described; and *below*, it joins the œsophagus.

The **cavity of the pharynx** is widest above in the naso-pharynx, immediately behind the Eustachian tubes (Fig. 729), where it extends out on each side, over the upper border of the superior constrictor, in the form of a pouch—the **lateral recess**. Its width is also considerable opposite the upper part of the thyroid cartilage, but it rapidly diminishes below the laryngeal orifice, and is narrowest at its termination in the œsophagus.

The cavity is interrupted above by the soft palate, a movable muscular sheet

which is attached in front to the hard palate, and laterally to the side walls of the pharynx. This sheet, sloping obliquely backwards and downwards, cuts into the cavity of the pharynx (Fig. 730), and, falling short of the posterior wall, incompletely divides it into two, namely, an upper part or **naso-pharynx** (pars nasalis), and a lower part or pharynx proper, which is further subdivided—perhaps unnecessarily—into the **oral pharynx** (pars oralis) lying behind the mouth and tongue, and the **laryngeal pharynx** (pars laryngea) behind the larynx.

The aperture left behind the soft palate and the posterior wall of the pharynx, through which the naso-pharynx communicates with the lower divisions

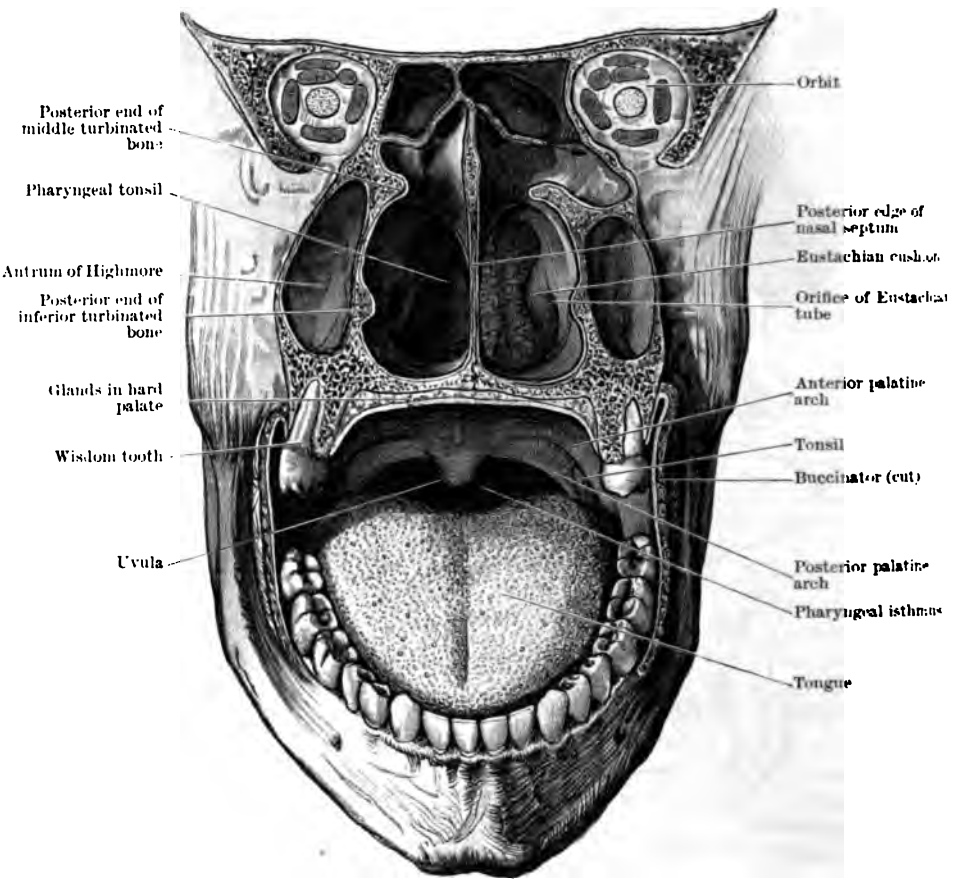


FIG. 731.—THE NASO-PHARYNX FROM THE FRONT.

A coronal section was made through the upper part of the head; this passed immediately in front of the posterior edge of the nasal septum, and extended into the mouth below. Through the posterior nares the naso-pharynx is seen. The prominence of the posterior margin of the Eustachian orifice, and the lymphoid nodules constituting the pharyngeal tonsil, should be noted. The palatine arches, the tonsils, and an unusually wide pharyngeal isthmus, are also seen.

of the cavity, may conveniently be called the **pharyngeal isthmus** (isthmus pharyngo-nasalis).

The pharynx presents *seven openings* through which it communicates with neighbouring cavities (Fig. 729). These are the two posterior nares (choanæ) on the anterior wall, and the two Eustachian tubes on the sides, of the naso-pharynx; the isthmus of the fauces leading into the mouth from the oral pharynx; the orifice of the larynx on the anterior wall of the laryngeal portion of the cavity; and finally, the opening of the œsophagus at its lower end.

Naso-pharynx (Figs. 730 and 731).—Although described as a part of the pharynx, this portion of the cavity should be regarded as an annex to the respiratory portion of the nasal cavities rather than as a subdivision of the pharynx proper, for, both

natomically and functionally, it is all but completely marked off from the gestive tube. It differs from the rest of the pharynx in that its cavity remains, nder all conditions, a distinct open chamber incapable of obliteration, owing to ne fact that all its walls, with the single exception of the floor, are practically nmovable.

The chamber of the naso-pharynx is irregular in shape, and is enclosed by *six alls*—namely, anterior, posterior, two lateral, and a floor—together with a roof or ault formed above by the approximation of the anterior and posterior walls.

The *anterior wall*, which slopes upwards and backwards, is entirely occupied by ne two posterior nares, with the nasal septum between them (Fig. 729).

The *posterior wall* is inclined upwards and forwards, and forms the **vault of the harynx** (fornix pharyngis) above by meeting the anterior wall at a rounded angle. In the upper part of the posterior wall, at and above the level of the Eustachian rifices, there is seen, particularly in early life, a considerable accumulation of ymphoid tissue, associated with a thickened and folded condition of the mucous nembrane in the child. This is the **pharyngeal tonsil** (tonsilla pharyngea, Figs. 30 and 731). In old age it becomes very indistinct, or completely disappears; whilst in the child it is often increased in size, and occasionally, when greatly ypertrophied, blocks up the naso-pharynx almost completely.

In connexion with the lower part of the pharyngeal tonsil, there is found, constantly n the child and occasionally in the adult, a small median recess which runs upwards and ackwards in the wall of the pharynx for some distance, and is known as the **bursa haryngea** (Fig. 730).

Three leading views are held as to the nature of the bursa pharyngea, namely—. That it is the remains of Rathke's pouch, from which the anterior lobe of the pituitary ody is formed. 2. That it is a crypt connected with the formation of the pharyngeal onsil. 3. That it is an independent outgrowth of the mucous membrane. The last view s perhaps most generally accepted.

The *floor* of the naso-pharynx is formed by the upper surface of the soft palate Fig. 730), which in its anterior part is a direct continuation backwards of the floor f the nasal cavity, whilst posteriorly it slopes strongly downwards and backwards. etween the floor and the posterior wall is left the aperture referred to above as ne pharyngeal isthmus, through which the naso-pharynx communicates with the st of the pharyngeal cavity. By the action of the palatal muscles the floor can e raised or depressed, and these changes of position are accompanied by corresponding terations in the size and shape of the cavity.

Each *lateral wall* of the naso-pharynx (Fig. 730) is occupied in the greater part its extent by the opening of the Eustachian tube, behind which is seen a ertical slit-like depression leading into a recess, the **lateral recess** of the pharynx, **fossa of Rosenmüller.**

The **pharyngeal orifice of the Eustachian tube** (ostium pharyngeum) is a considerable pening, usually of a somewhat triangular form, with a characteristic infundibular funnel-like appearance (Fig. 730). It is bounded above and behind by a rominent rounded ridge, the **Eustachian cushion** (torus tuberius). This ridge due to the projection of the cartilage, which surrounds the Eustachian assage above and behind, but is absent below and in front. The prominence the posterior, as contrasted with the anterior margin of the orifice, and the irection of the tube itself, which runs strongly forwards as well as inwards raced from the tympanum), greatly facilitate the introduction of a Eustachian atheter.

The exact position of the orifice is of importance in connexion with this latter peration. It is situated on the side-wall of the naso-pharynx, a short distance bout $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch) behind the posterior end of the inferior turbinated bone, and nmediately above the level of the hard palate (Figs. 730 and 731).

A slight ridge of the mucous membrane descends from the lower end of the Eustachian shion on the side-wall of the pharynx, and gradually becomes lost. This is known as ne **salpingo-pharyngeal fold** (plica salpingo-pharyngea). Another less developed ridge, ne **salpingo-palatine fold** (plica salpingo-palatina), passes from the anterior border of

the Eustachian orifice downwards and forwards to join the palate. In front of the latter lies an indistinct groove, the **naso-pharyngeal groove**, which indicates the separation of the nasal cavity from the naso-pharynx.

The levator palati muscle in descending runs parallel to the Eustachian tube, and along its lower border. As it enters the palate, it produces, particularly when in a state of contraction, an elevation just below the Eustachian orifice, known as the **levator cushion** (torus levatorius, Figs. 729 and 730), which in its outer portion abuts against the lower part of the orifice, and forms its base when that opening assumes its usual triangular shape.

Occasionally the Eustachian orifice is of an oval or slit-like form, with sloping edges, but the triangular shape described above is much more commonly found.

Immediately behind each Eustachian orifice is seen the **lateral recess of the pharynx** (recessus pharyngeus, fossa of Rosenmüller), a nearly vertical, slit-like depression of considerable depth (Figs. 729 and 730), which runs outwards in the form of a flattened pouch or diverticulum.

The lateral recesses project out over the upper margin of the superior constrictor, and beneath the petrous portion of the temporal bone, corresponding to the position of the sinus of Morgagni on each side. The recess is the remains of the inner or pharyngeal portion of the second visceral cleft, the lower part of which is represented in the supratonsillar fossa.

Oral Pharynx (pars oralis).—This is the portion of the pharyngeal cavity which lies behind the mouth, and intervenes between the soft palate above and the superior aperture of the larynx below. Its *anterior wall* is occupied by the isthmus of the fauces, leading into the mouth; and below this by the pharyngeal portion of the tongue, almost vertical in direction. Its *lateral wall* (Fig. 730) presents a triangular area (sinus tonsillaris), bounded in front by the anterior palatine arch, behind by the posterior palatine arch, and below by the sides of the tongue in its pharyngeal portion. This area is occupied in the greater part of its extent by the **tonsil**, above which is found a depression, the **supratonsillar fossa** (Fig. 730), which is of considerable interest clinically.

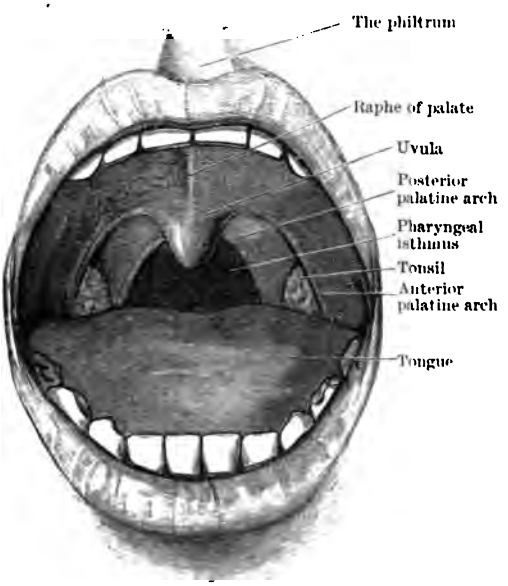


Fig. 732.—Open Mouth showing Palate and Tonsils.

It also shows the two palatine arches, and the pharyngeal isthmus through which the naso-pharynx above communicates with the oral portion of the pharynx below.

The **posterior palatine arch** (arcus pharyngo-palatinus, posterior pillar of the fauces) is a prominent fold of mucous membrane, containing the palato-pharyngeus muscle in its interior, which springs above from the posterior edge of the soft palate, and, passing downwards and slightly backwards, ends below on the side-wall of the pharynx (Fig. 730). The two posterior palatine arches form the lateral boundaries of the pharyngeal isthmus, which passage they can modify both in size and shape by the contraction of their contained muscles.

The anterior palatine arch is described on page 1000.

The **pharyngeal isthmus** (isthmus pharyngo-nasalis) is the very oblique and somewhat triangular orifice through which the oral pharynx communicates with the naso-pharynx (Fig. 732). It differs considerably in size and shape in different individuals, being in some so small that the naso-pharynx can be explored from the mouth only with very great difficulty; whilst in others it is of much larger dimensions (Fig. 731) and affords ample space for the rhinoscopic examination of the naso-pharynx and the back part of the nasal cavities.

crypts of the tonsil. These crypts are most numerous in the upper part of the mass, where, in particular, they form a series of irregular inter-communicating passages.

The *outer* or *attached surface* is enclosed in a distinct fibrous capsule connected with the pharyngeal aponeurosis, outside which lie the superior constrictor of the pharynx and the internal pterygoid muscles (Fig. 733).

The ascending palatine artery, running upwards and backwards between the stylo-glossus and stylo-pharyngeus, lies in close relation to the outer surface of the tonsil—separated only by its capsule and the superior constrictor—as does also the tonsillar artery, which is often represented by a branch of the last. More external still lies the internal pterygoid and the ramus of the jaw; whilst the internal carotid artery, with the large cranial nerve trunks, is placed $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 inch behind and to its outer side (Fig. 733).

The size of the tonsils is extremely variable, but as a rule, in early life, they measure something under 1 inch (20 to 22 mm.) from above downwards, about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch (18 to 20 mm.) antero-posteriorly, and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch (12 to 15 mm.) from within out.

In the child and young adult there is usually seen a thin triangular fold of mucous membrane, **the plica triangularis** (His), which stretches from the anterior palatine arch backwards for a variable distance over the tonsil (Fig. 730). Its apex is directed upwards towards the soft palate, its base towards the tongue, and its free margin crosses the tonsil, to which it often adheres in later life. In this latter condition the plica encloses a more or less distinct space situated between itself and the tonsil, in which diseased processes are often set up.

Above the tonsil, as already mentioned, is found a variably-developed depression, the **supratonsillar fossa**, which occasionally is of considerable size, and then extends either upwards into the soft palate or forwards and downwards beneath the plica triangularis. This fossa is frequently the seat of suppurative changes, and is consequently of considerable clinical importance.

The supratonsillar fossa, like the lateral recess of the pharynx, is the remains of the pharyngeal portion of the second visceral cleft. The palate in its growth backwards crosses the cleft, which it divides into two parts—namely, the pharyngeal recess above, and the supratonsillar recess below the soft palate.

In the severe hæmorrhage which has been known to follow excision of an enlarged tonsil, and which has been erroneously attributed to the wounding of the internal carotid artery, the blood is derived chiefly from enlarged branches of the ascending palatine, tonsillar, or ascending pharyngeal vessels.

The **arteries** of the tonsil are derived from the ascending palatine and tonsillar branches of the facial, the ascending pharyngeal of the external carotid, and the dorsalis linguæ of the lingual. The **veins** pass to the tonsillar plexus, on the outer side of the tonsil, which is an offshoot of the pharyngeal venous plexus.

Nerves.—The tonsil receives a special branch from the glosso-pharyngeal; this unites with branches from the pharyngeal plexus in a small **plexus tonsillaris** which supplies the organ.

The **lymphatics** are extremely numerous, and pass down to join some of the submaxillary lymphatic glands near the angle of the jaw.

Laryngeal Portion of the Pharynx (pars laryngea).—This division of the pharyngeal cavity lies behind the larynx (Fig. 729). It is wide above, where it is continuous with the oral portion, and maintains a considerable width until within about an inch of its termination, when behind the cricoid cartilage it narrows rapidly and passes down to join the œsophagus. Except during the passage of food, the anterior and posterior walls of this latter part are in contact, and its cavity is reduced to a mere transverse slit (Fig. 730).

The *anterior wall* of the laryngeal portion of the pharynx is formed in its whole extent by the back of the larynx, of which the following parts are seen within the pharyngeal cavity (Fig. 729):—The epiglottis above; below this the superior aperture of the larynx, bounded at the sides by the aryteno-epiglottic folds: outside these folds is seen on each side a deep recess, the **sinus pyriformis** (recessus piriformis, Fig. 729). Lower down still, the back of the arytenoid and cricoid cartilage, covered by muscles and mucous membrane, are visible.

Its posterior and *lateral walls* are directly continuous with the corresponding walls of the oral pharynx, and present no features which require special notice.

A prominent fold of the mucous membrane, extending from the side of the epiglottis, runs up along the lateral wall, upon which it ends near the posterior palatine arch. This, the **pharyngo-epiglottic fold**, is often described as a lateral glosso-epiglottic fold (see p. 1002).

The **sinus pyriformis** is a deep depression, seen on each side between the aryteno-epiglottic fold and the ala of the thyroid cartilage. When viewed from above, as

laryngoscopic examinations, it appears of a pyriform shape, the wider end being ected upwards and forwards. When viewed from behind, the recess is boat- ıped and elongated in the vertical direction. Its outer wall is formed by the roid cartilage and thyro-hyoid membrane, covered by mucous membrane; its ıer wall by the aryteno-epiglottic fold, and slightly below by the upper part of cricoid cartilage.

Vessels and Nerves of the Pharynx.—The **arteries** of the pharynx are derived from—1, ascending pharyngeal; 2, the ascending palatine branch of facial; 3, the posterior palatine, n the internal maxillary, with a few twigs from the dorsalis linguæ, tonsillar (of facial), ian, and pterygo-palatine of the internal maxillary. The **veins** go to the pharyngeal venous xus, which is found between the constrictors and the bucco-pharyngeal aponeurosis. The xus communicates with the pterygoid plexus above and with the internal jugular or facial u below.

The **lymphatics** of the pharynx pass chiefly to the upper set of deep cervical glands. Those m the upper part of the posterior wall join a few post-pharyngeal glands which are found on h side between the pharynx and the rectus anticus major muscle. These latter glands, which large in the child, small in the adult, but apparently always present (Fig. 733), are of con- erable clinical interest, as they often form the starting-point of post-pharyngeal abscess.

The **nerves** of the pharynx, both motor and sensory, are derived chiefly from the pharyngeal xus, which is formed by branches of the vagus, glosso-pharyngeal, and sympathetic. The t palate and the neighbourhood of the tonsil are supplied by the posterior and external atine branches of Meckel's ganglion. The tonsil receives a branch from the glosso-pharyngeal ect. The vault of the pharynx, and the region around the Eustachian orifice, as well as the fice itself, are supplied by the pharyngeal branch of Meckel's ganglion. Finally, the superior yngeal nerve supplies the mucous membrane of the back of the larynx, where it forms the erior wall of the laryngeal portion of the pharynx.

Structure of the Pharyngeal Wall.—The pharyngeal wall is made up of following layers:—(1) The thick mucous membrane, which is plentifully supplied th racemose mucous glands and lymphoid tissue, and is lined by stratified squamous thelium, except in the naso-pharynx, where the epithelium is columnar and ciliated. Outside the mucous membrane lies a layer of firm connective tissue, the pharyngeal neurosis, which is closely associated with the muscles, and receives the insertions of ny of their fibres. This layer blends with the periosteum of the base of the skull eriorly, and is united to the Eustachian tube, the margins of the posterior nares, and other fixed points to which the pharynx is connected anteriorly. It is thickest above, the sinuses of Morgagni, where the muscular coat is wanting, and where it forms the ef constituent of the pharyngeal wall. Below, it gradually grows thinner as the lower l of the pharynx is approached. (3) External to the pharyngeal aponeurosis lies the scular coat, formed of the three constrictors with the stylo- and palato-pharyngeus. e muscular coat is covered externally by (4) the bucco-pharyngeal fascia, a thin and, in ces, ill-defined layer of fascia which surrounds the constrictors of the pharynx, and passes ward above to cover the outer surface of the buccinator. It is connected behind to the pre- tebral fascia by loose connective tissue (the retro-pharyngeal space), and it is similarly nected by areolar tissue to the other structures with which the pharynx comes in contact.

The racemose glands of the mucous membrane, which are of the mucous type, are y numerous in the walls of the naso-pharynx and in the soft palate, where they form hick continuous layer. They are also numerous about the aryteno-epiglottic folds and the back of the arytenoid muscles in the laryngeal portion of the pharynx. Over the t of this cavity, though numerous, they are not so thickly placed as in the regions just ntioned. The lymphoid tissue, either in a diffuse form or collected into lymphoid licles, is found throughout the whole of the mucous membrane. As already pointed t, it is particularly abundant on the upper portion of the posterior wall of the naso- arynx, where it forms the pharyngeal tonsil.

The pharyngeal aponeurosis, which is thick above and thin below, and the bucco- aryngeal fascia, which is thin above and stouter below, are practically blended into one er above, near the base of the skull, where the muscular coat is absent. Lower wn they are separated by the constrictors, and become two distinct sheets. They strengthened in the middle line posteriorly by a fibrous band descending from the aryngeal tubercle.

Development of the Pharynx and Tonsil.

For the development of the pharynx from the anterior portion of the foregut, and the mation and fate of the visceral arches and clefts which are found in its wall, the reader referred to the chapter on General Embryology, p. 34.

The anterior palatine arch is derived from the second visceral arch, behind whicl the embryo, lies the pharyngeal portion of the second visceral cleft. This cleft is cro by the palate in its growth backwards; the part above the palate is represented in the a by the lateral recess of the pharynx and the part below it by the sinus tonsillaris. F the lower and greater part of the sinus tonsillaris the tonsil is developed; the upper of the sinus persists, however, as the supratonsillar fossa. The tonsil at first is a sm depression of the mucous membrane. About the fourth month of fœtal life downgro of the epithelium take place, which are afterwards converted into the tonsillar cry Subsequently lymphoid cells accumulate around the downgrowths and form the lympl tissue, which constitutes the mass of the organ.

The upper and anterior part of the naso-pharynx is derived from the stomatode the remainder of the cavity from the foregut.

THE ŒSOPHAGUS.

The **œsophagus** or **gullet** is the portion of the digestive canal which interve between the pharynx above and the stomach below. With the exception of pylorus, it is the narrowest, and at the sa time one of the most muscular parts of whole alimentary tube.

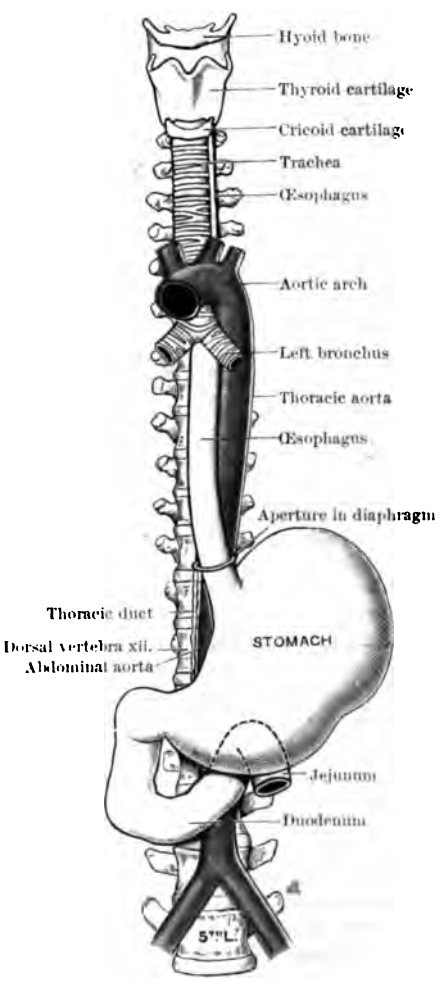


Fig. 734.—Diagram to show the Course of the Œsophagus.

It extends from the termination of pharynx, at the lower border of the cric cartilage and opposite the sixth cerv vertebra, to the cardiac orifice of the stom opposite the eleventh dorsal vertebra. tween these two points it traverses the lo part of the neck, the whole length of thorax, and, having pierced the diaphra it enters the abdomen, and immedia afterwards joins the stomach. In course it does not adhere to the me plane of the body, but twice leaves it, curves to the left. The first of these cu tures corresponds to the lower part of neck and the upper part of the thorax, wh the œsophagus projects beyond the margin of the trachea to the extent o or ¼ inch (4 to 6 mm.). It returns to middle line about the level of the ao arch. Lower down, behind the pericardi it again passes to the left, and at the s time forwards, in order to reach the o phageal opening in the diaphragm (wh is placed in front and to the left of aortic opening), and it maintains this di tion until the stomach is reached.

In addition to the curvatures just scribed, it is also curved in the ante posterior direction, in correspondence w the form of the vertebral column u which it, in great part, lies.

In *length* it usually measures about t inches (25 cm.).

Its *breadth*, where the tube is wid varies between half an inch (13 mm.) in t empty contracted condition and an inch or more (25 to 30 mm.) in the fu distended state.

When seen in sections of the frozen body (Fig. 735), the œsophagus usua

her as a flattened tube with a slit-like cavity, or as an oval or nal with a more or less stellate 'he former condition is more the neck, owing to the pressure iea, and the latter in the thorax. exposed in the ordinary post- imination soon after death, it has appearance of a solid muscular than of a hollow tube.

)phagus presents two distinct *con-*)ne situated at its beginning, the e point where it is crossed by the ius. Both constrictions are of ze, and will admit without injury ent with a maximum diameter of mm.). At each of these points flattened from before backwards.

hagus varies in length in different in-)m 8 to 14 inches (20 to 35 mm.). The a the upper incisors to the beginning agus averages about 6 inches (15 cm.). ife the cervical portion is said, under cumstances, to be closed and flattened backwards by outside pressure, whilst portion may be open owing to the ssure in the thorax. The passage into is also said to be open (Mickulicz), but ful.

.t the two constrictions, when the tube is ed, is 23 mm. transversely, and 17 mm. eriorly. The other parts vary in ween 26 and 30 mm. (Jonnesco).

st curvature to the left the divergence opposite the third dorsal vertebra. nclination to this side begins about the al vertebra, and continues to the end of us, being considerably increased as the approached.

)ns of the Œsophagus. — The Fig. 735) differ so widely in the horax that they must be described for each of these regions.

neck. — *In front* lies the trachea posterior membranous wall of œsophagus is loosely connected tissue—and in the groove at each en the two, the recurrent laryngeal nds to the larynx (Fig. 735, A). the vertebral column and the li muscles, from which the œso- separated by the prevertebral ne cervical fascia. *At the sides* the carotid sheaths with their vessels, and the lateral lobes of d body. Owing to the deviation e to the left in the lower part of its relation to the carotid sheath id body is much more intimate on)n the right side.

thorax. — The œsophagus passes y through the superior and pos-

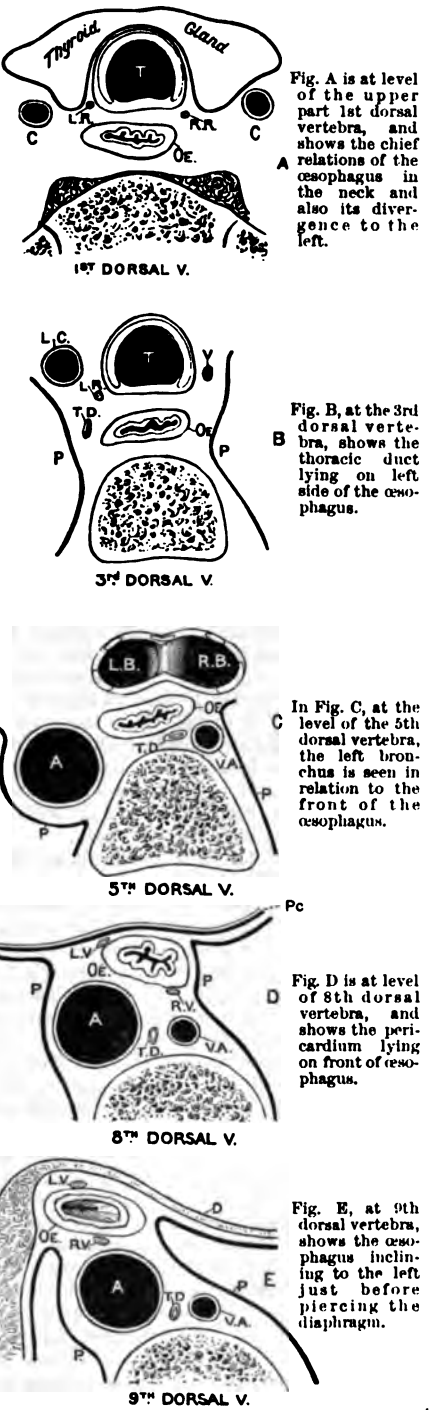


Fig. A is at level of the upper part 1st dorsal vertebra, and shows the chief relations of the œsophagus in the neck and also its divergence to the left.

Fig. B, at the 3rd dorsal vertebra, shows the thoracic duct lying on left side of the œsophagus.

In Fig. C, at the level of the 5th dorsal vertebra, the left bronchus is seen in relation to the front of the œsophagus.

Fig. D is at level of 8th dorsal vertebra, and shows the pericardium lying on front of œsophagus.

Fig. E, at 9th dorsal vertebra, shows the œsophagus inclining to the left just before piercing the diaphragm.

FIG. 735.—TRACINGS FROM FROZEN SECTIONS TO SHOW THE RELATIONS OF THE ŒSOPHAGUS at the levels of the 1st, 3rd, 5th, 8th, and 9th dorsal vertebræ respectively.

A, Aorta; C, Common carotid artery; D, Diaphragm; L.B, Left bronchus; L.C, Left subclavian artery; L.R, Left recurrent nerve; L.V, Left vagus; Oe, Œsophagus; P, Pleura; Pc, Pericardium; R.B, Right bronchus; R.R, Right recurrent nerve; R.V, Right vagus; T, Trachea; T.D, Thoracic duct; V.A, Vena azygos major.

terior mediastina, in the former lying close to the vertebral column, but in the latter advancing somewhat into the thoracic cavity and coming into contact with the back of the pericardium. The trachea still lies *in front* as far as its bifurcation. Immediately below this the œsophagus is crossed by the left bronchus (Fig. 735, C), and in the rest of its thoracic course it lies in the closest relation to the back of the pericardium. *Behind*, it rests on the longus colli muscle and the vertebral column in the upper part of the thorax; but below the bifurcation of the trachea, as already explained, it advances into the cavity of the posterior mediastinum, and is soon separated from the spine by the vena azygos major, the thoracic duct, the upper six aortic intercostal arteries of the left side, and in its lower part by the aorta as well.

On its *left side* lie the thoracic duct, the pleura, and the left subclavian artery in the upper part of the thorax; the aorta in the middle region, and lower down the pleura again, for a little way, before the œsophagus pierces the diaphragm. On the *right side* the tube comes into relation with the arch of the azygos vein, whilst below this the pleura clothes it.

The two pneumogastric nerves, after forming the posterior pulmonary plexuses behind the roots of the lungs, descend to the œsophagus, where they form, by uniting with one another and with the branches of the sympathetic, the **plexus gulæ** or **œsophageal plexus**. Lower down the left nerve winds round to the front, whilst the right turns to the back, and in this relation they pass with the tube through the diaphragm to reach the stomach.

Relation of the Aorta to the Œsophagus.—The arch of the aorta, passing back to reach the vertebral column, lies in relation to the left side of the œsophagus; consequently the descending thoracic aorta lies at first to its left; lower down, however, as the aorta passes on to the front of the vertebral column, and the gullet inclines forwards and to the left, the œsophagus comes to lie at first in front, and then, as the diaphragm is approached, it lies not only in front, but also somewhat to the left of the artery (Figs. 734 and 735).

Relation of the Thoracic Duct to the Œsophagus.—The thoracic duct, lying to the right of the aorta below, is not directly related to the œsophagus (Fig. 735, E); but higher up (Fig. 735, D and E) it lies behind it. About the level of the aortic arch the duct passes to the left, and above this (Fig. 735, B and A) will be found resting against the left side of the œsophagus, which it accompanies into the neck.

Relation of the Pleural Sacs to the Œsophagus.—Above the level of the aortic arch and the arch of the vena azygos major, between which the tube descends, the pleuræ, though not lying in immediate contact with the œsophagus, are separated from it only by a little connective tissue, and on the left side also, behind the subclavian artery, by the thoracic duct (Fig. 735, B). Here, in thin bodies, the pleura is very close to the œsophagus, and the thoracic duct, lying on its left side, may occasionally be seen through the pleural membrane. Below the arch of the azygos vein the pleura clothes the right side of the œsophagus—and very often even a considerable portion of its posterior surface too, thus forming a deep recess behind it—almost as low down as the opening in the diaphragm. On the left side, below the level of the aortic arch, the pleura comes in contact with the gullet, only for a short distance, just above the diaphragm (Fig. 735, E).

Divisions. Both a diaphragmatic (Jonnesco) and an abdominal part of the œsophagus are described. The **diaphragmatic portion**, said to be about half an inch in length (1 to 1·5 cm.), corresponds to the portion of the tube which lies in the œsophageal orifice (or canal) of the diaphragm. The plane of this orifice is very oblique or almost vertical, and its abdominal opening looks forwards and to the left, and but little downwards. Above and in front, where it is bounded either by the posterior edge of the central tendon or by a few decussating fibres of the muscular portion of the diaphragm, which meet behind the tendon, the œsophageal orifice has practically no length, and consequently the œsophagus here passes into the abdominal cavity immediately after leaving the thorax. At the sides and behind, on the other hand, the decussating bands from the two crura, which embrace the orifice, are so arranged that they turn a flat surface (not an edge) towards the opening, and thus, posteriorly and laterally, the orifice or canal is of some length; and on these aspects there is a portion of the tube in contact with the diaphragm for a distance of 1 to 1½ cm. But this contact takes place not around a horizontal line, but in a very oblique plane corresponding to that of the orifice. On the whole, it is perhaps more satisfactory not to describe a separate diaphragmatic portion, but to say that the œsophagus pierces the diaphragm very obliquely, and that at the sides and behind it is in contact with the walls of the orifice for a distance of half an inch or more.

The œsophagus, in passing through the orifice, is connected to its boundaries by a considerable amount of strong connective tissue, but it is extremely difficult, or impossible, to demonstrate any direct naked-eye connexion between the œsophageal muscular fibres and those of the diaphragm.

The anterior or right boundary of the œsophageal orifice, formed of fibres derived from both crura of the diaphragm, is strongly developed and prominent, and usually lies in the œsophageal groove, on the back of the left lobe of the liver, which groove is rarely due to the pressure of the œsophagus alone.

The **abdominal portion** of the œsophagus is very short, for immediately after piercing the

order to allow of the expansion of the tube during swallowing. It connects the mucous membrane loosely to the muscular coat, and admits of the former being thrown into folds when empty. In this coat are contained the numerous racemose mucous glands which open into the cavity of the œsophagus (Fig. 738).

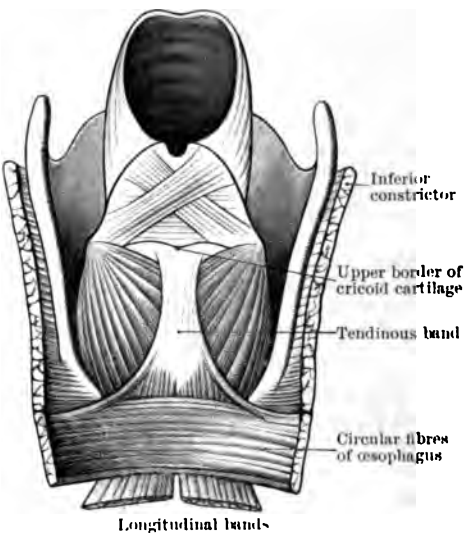


FIG. 737.—THE LOWER PART OF THE PHARYNX AND THE UPPER PART OF THE (ESOPHAGUS have been slit up from behind, and the mucous membrane removed to show the muscular fibres. The two longitudinal bands are seen coming round to the front to be attached by a common tendon to the upper border of the cricoid cartilage. See explanation of last figure.

The **mucous membrane** is of a greyish pink colour, much paler than that of the pharynx, and of a firm and resistant texture. It is covered by a thick stratified, squamous epithelium, on the surface of which the openings of numerous glands are found. Below, its junction with the gastric mucous membrane is indicated by a distinct, irregularly dentated or crenated line, which runs transversely round the tube. In carefully preserved specimens the smooth mucous membrane of the œsophagus above this line contrasts strongly with the mammillated gastric mucous membrane below.

Owing to the inelasticity of this coat, and the fact that it is but loosely connected to the muscular coat by the submucosa, it is thrown into a series of longitudinal folds when the œsophagus is empty and contracted; hence the stellate lumen often seen in sections of the gullet.

Glands. — Numerous racemose mucous glands, large enough to be distinctly seen with the naked eye, are found in the submucosa. They are pretty evenly distributed over the whole tube, and do not appear to be more numerous towards either end (Coffey). In addition to these, other glands, resembling closely those of the cardiac end of the stomach, are found in the mucous membrane of certain portions of the œsophagus. They are entirely confined to the mucosa, and do not extend beyond the muscularis mucosæ. These glands are specially numerous at both the upper and lower ends of the tube (Coffey, Schäfer).

FIG. 738.—STRUCTURE OF THE (ESOPHAGUS, transverse section (after Horsley).

Vessels and Nerves. Its **arteries** consist of numerous small branches derived, in the neck, from the inferior thyroid, in the thorax, from the bronchial arteries and thoracic aorta, and in the abdomen, from the coronary artery of the stomach, and also from the left phrenic.

The **veins** form a plexus on the exterior of the œsophagus, from which branches pass, in the lower part of the tube, to the coronary vein of the stomach, and, higher up, to the azygos, and thyroid veins. There is thus established on the lower part of the œsophagus a free communication between the portal and systemic veins.

The **lymphatics** pass to the inferior set of deep cervical glands in the neck, and to the posterior mediastinal glands, many of which, of large size, are seen around the tube, in the thorax.

The **nerves** are derived from the recurrent laryngeal, and from the cervical sympathetic in the neck, from the pneumogastrics and sympathetic in the thorax.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE (ESOPHAGUS.

The œsophagus is developed from the foregut lying between the pharynx and the dilatation which represents the future stomach. At first, owing to the flexure of the head

the formation of the lateral, posterior, and, to a less extent, of the anterior walls; and almost as much of the cavity of the abdomen as of the thorax lies under shelter of the ribs.

Owing to the fact that the boundaries of the abdomen are formed chiefly of muscles, it follows that its walls are capable of contraction to a very considerable extent, and the size of the cavity can consequently be altered in all directions. Its chief changes in form are due to the descent or elevation of the diaphragm, the contraction or relaxation of the anterior and lateral walls, and the raising or lowering of the pelvic floor.

Within the muscles forming its walls, the abdomen is lined by an envelope of

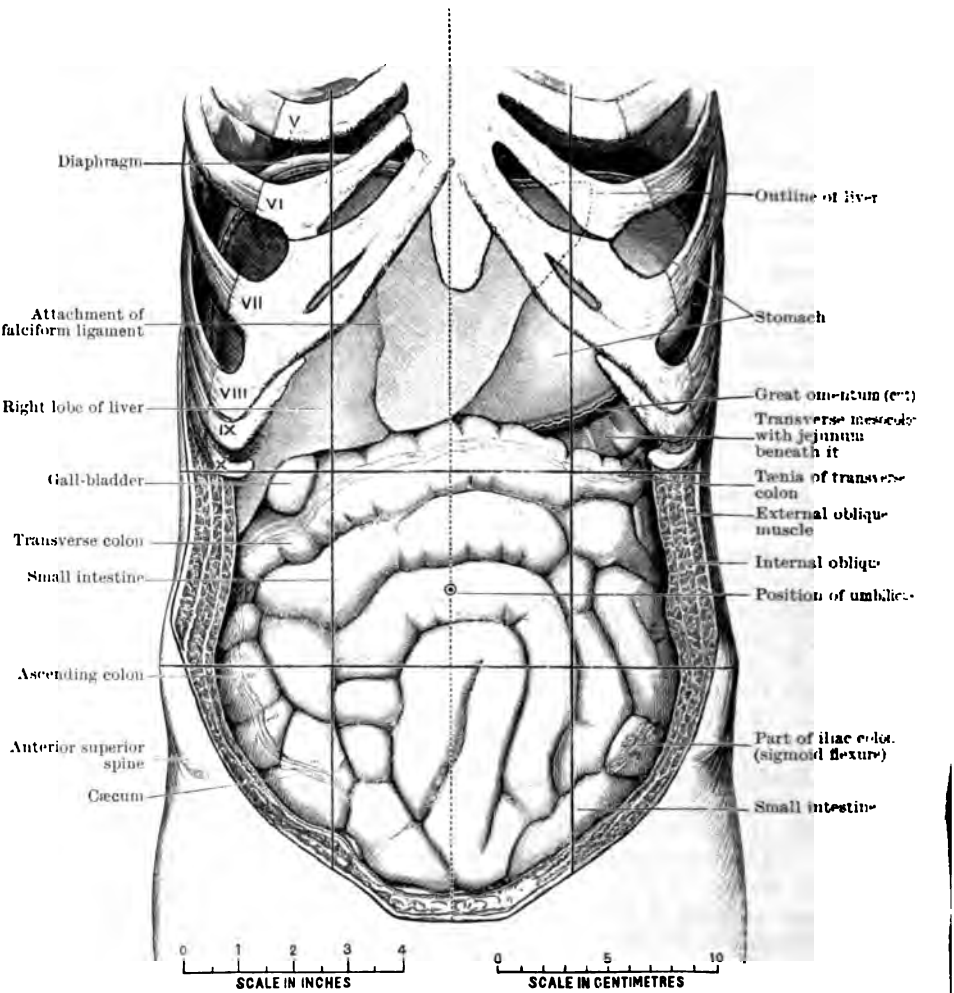


FIG. 739.—THE ABDOMINAL VISCERA IN SITU, as seen when the abdomen is laid open and the great omentum removed (drawn to scale from a photograph of a male body aged 56, hardened by formalin injections).

The ribs on the right side are indicated by Roman numerals; it will be observed that the eighth costal cartilage articulated with the sternum on both sides. The subcostal, intertubercular, and right and left Poupart lines are drawn in black, and the mesial plane is indicated by a dotted line. The intercostal muscles and part of the diaphragm have been removed, to show the liver and stomach extending up beneath the ribs. The stomach is moderately distended, and the intestines are particularly regular in their arrangement.

fascia, which separate the muscles from the extraperitoneal connective tissue and peritoneum. This aponeurotic layer is distinguished in different localities as:—(1) the *transversalis fascia* on the anterior and lateral walls, lining the deep surface of the transversalis muscle and continuous above with the fascia clothing the under surface of the diaphragm; (2) the *iliac fascia* on the posterior wall, covering the psoas and iliacus muscles; (3) the anterior layer of the *lumbar*

the symphysis pubis. In the erect position it usually makes an angle of about 55 to 60 degrees with the horizontal. The two portions of the abdominal cavity which the brim separates meet at an angle, the abdomen proper running almost

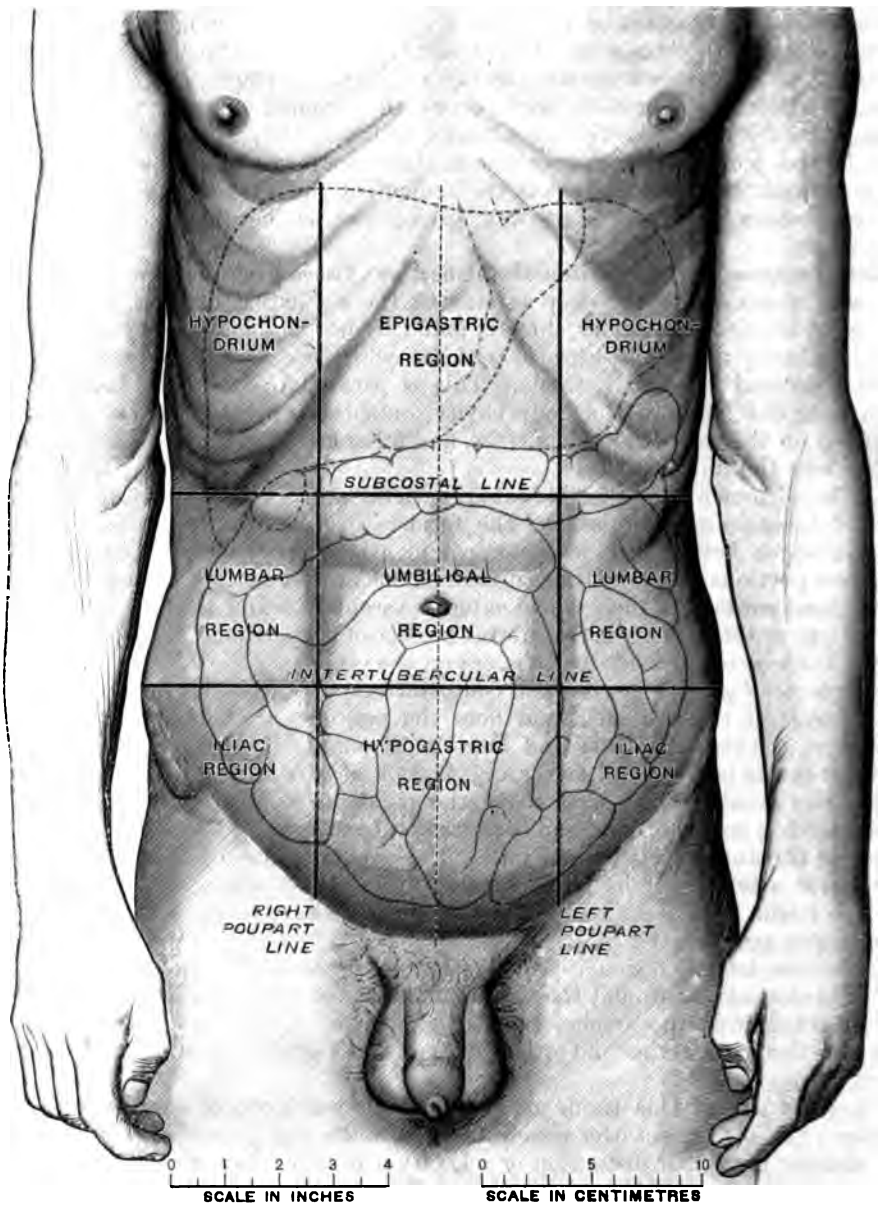


FIG. 740. - THE FRONT OF THE BODY, showing the subdivisions of the abdominal cavity and the position of the chief viscera. (From a photograph of the body represented in the preceding figure.) The viscera in Fig. 739 have been traced in red on this figure. The photographs for these two figures and for Fig. 7[illegible] were taken from the same body, under precisely similar conditions; consequently the relations of the deeper parts to the surface are correctly obtained by superimposing the pictures as in this illustration. The liver occupies a slightly lower position than usual.

vertically upwards from it, whilst the pelvic cavity slopes backwards and slightly downwards.

The **pelvic cavity** is bounded in front and at the sides by the portions of the innominate bones below the level of the iliopectineal line. These bony walls are partly clothed, in front and laterally, by the obturator internus muscles, and internal to these by the parietal portion of the pelvic fascia, as low down as the white line. The posterior

THE PERITONEUM.

The arrangement of the peritoneum is so complicated, and its relations to the abdominal contents so intricate and detailed, that it will be expedient to postpone its complete description until the various organs, with their special peritoneal relations, have been separately considered. Nevertheless, it will be necessary to give here a general account of the disposition of the membrane, and to refer to the three varieties of folds which it forms in passing from organ to organ, or from these to the abdominal wall.

The **peritoneum** (tunica serosa) is the serous sac which lines the abdominal cavity and invests most of the abdominal viscera, to a greater or less degree. Like the pleurae, the tunica vaginalis of the testicle, and other serous sacs, its walls are composed of a thin layer of fibrous tissue, containing numerous elastic fibres, and covered over on the side turned towards the cavity of the sac by flattened endothelial cells. Like them, too, the peritoneum in the male is a completely closed bag, but in the female this is not the case, for the abdominal end of each Fallopian tube opens into the sac, whilst the other end of that tube communicates with the interior of the uterus, and thus, indirectly, with the exterior. Normally the membrane secretes only sufficient moisture to lubricate its surface, otherwise the sac is perfectly empty, and its opposing walls lie in contact, thus practically obliterating its cavity.

The use of these lubricated and highly polished serous linings, found in the abdomen and certain other cavities, is to facilitate the movements of the contained viscera during any changes in size or form which they or their containing cavity may undergo. As a result of this arrangement, notwithstanding the tonic pressure of the abdominal wall on its contents, the stomach and intestines are free to move with the greatest ease and the least degree of friction, when any change takes place either in the organs themselves or in their surroundings.

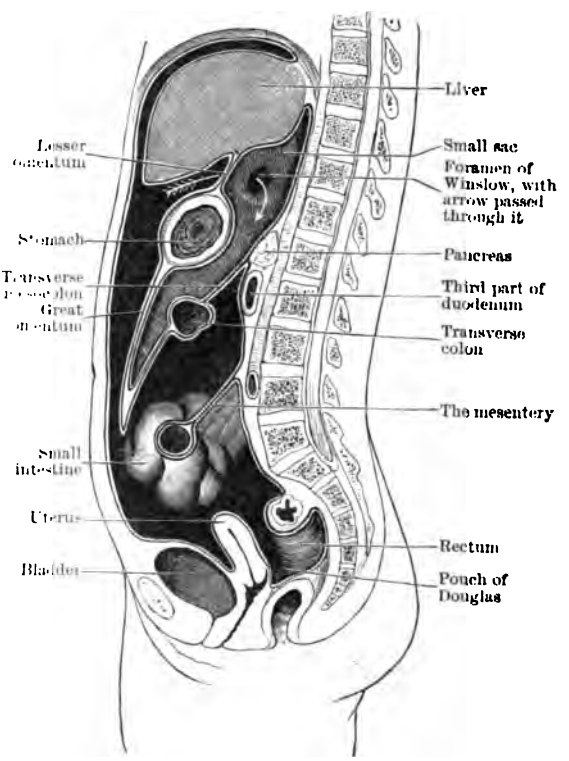


FIG. 741. DIAGRAMMATIC MESIAL SECTION OF FEMALE BODY, to show the peritoneum on vertical tracing. The great sac of the peritoneum is black and is represented as being much larger than in nature; the small sac is very darkly shaded; the peritoneum on section is shown as a white line; and a white arrow is passed through the foramen of Winslow from the great into the small sac.

The peritoneum is a thin glistening membrane, which may aptly be compared to a coat of varnish applied to the inner aspect of the abdominal walls, and to the surface of the contained viscera, except where these are directly applied to the walls or to one another. It forms throughout its entire extent a continuous and distinct sheet, but it is united so intimately to the viscera, and follows the irregularities of their walls so closely, that it appears at first sight to be a superficial layer of these walls, rather than a separate membrane. Outside the peritoneum lies the extra-peritoneal connective tissue—already described—which connects it more or less intimately to the fascial lining of the abdominal walls and to the abdominal viscera.

If we trace the peritoneum as a continuous layer, beginning in front, we find

however, to the stomach: (2) the *lesser* or *gastro-hepatic omentum*, which extends from the lesser curvature of the stomach to the liver; and (3) the *gastro-splenic omentum*, which passes from the stomach to the spleen.

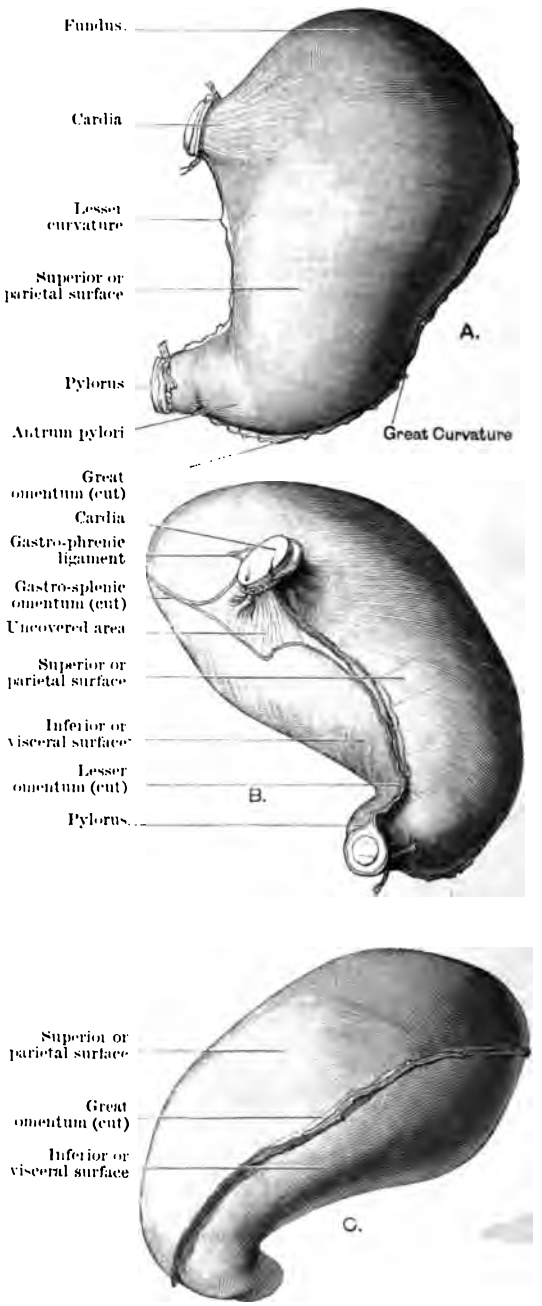


FIG. 743. - MODERATELY DISTENDED STOMACH, viewed, A, from front; B, from inner or right side; and C, from the outer or left side. (From photographs of the stomach shown in Figs. 739 and 744. The contents of the stomach were carefully removed through an artificial opening, and replaced with gelatine, the stomach remaining *in situ* throughout the operation. After the jelly hardened, its exact orientation was carefully noted, and pins indicating the vertical, horizontal, and transverse planes having been inserted, the organ was removed and photographed.)

(*b*) **Mesenteries** are folds of peritoneum which unite portions of the intestine to the posterior abdominal wall, and convey to them their vessels and nerves. There are several mesenteries, *e.g.*, the *mesentery proper*, which connects the jejunum and ileum to the posterior abdominal wall, the *transverse mesocolon*, the *pelvic* (or "*sigmoid*") *mesocolon*, and occasionally others.

(*c*) **Ligaments** are peritoneal folds which pass between abdominal viscera other than portions of the digestive tube, or connect them to the abdominal wall. As examples of these may be mentioned most of the ligaments of the liver, the so-called "false ligaments" of the bladder, and the broad ligaments of the uterus.

This term is also applied to several small folds which connect portions of the intestinal tube to the parietes, but do not convey to them their vessels and nerves. The gastro-phrenic and phreno-colic ligaments are examples of these.

THE STOMACH.

The **stomach** (ventriculus) is the large dilatation found on the digestive tube immediately after it enters the abdomen (Figs. 743 and 744). It constitutes a receptacle in which the food accumulates after its passage through the œsophagus, and in it take place some of the earlier processes of digestion, resulting in the conversion of the food into a viscid soup-like mixture, known as chyme. The chyme as it is formed is allowed to escape intermittently through the pylorus, into the small intestine, where the digestive processes are continued.

Although the form of the stomach varies considerably under different conditions, in general it is of an irregularly pyriform shape, with the wide or cardiac end directed backwards and to the left, and a narrow pyloric end which runs to the right to join the duodenum. In addition to its *two ends*, the stomach presents for examination the following parts: (*b*) *tw*

addition, that its long axis lies in an almost horizontal plane. With distension there comes a general enlargement of the various diameters, an elongation of the whole organ, with a consequent passage of its pyloric portion to the right beneath the liver, the development of the antrum pylori, and an inclination of its axis from behind downwards and forwards, without any rotation.

Natural Form of the Stomach.—As seen in male bodies the viscera of which have been hardened by the intravascular injection of formalin, the *empty stomach*, as already stated, presents an attenuated or slender pear-shaped appearance, and is sharply bent on itself, particularly at the junction of the cardiac and pyloric portions. As a rule it is somewhat flattened from above downwards in its cardiac portion, but preserves in its whole length, more or less, an irregularly rounded or cylindrical form. Its long axis is directed, in the cardiac portion, from behind forwards and to the right with a slight inclination downwards; then it bends almost at a right angle, and in the pyloric portion runs to the right towards the pylorus.

Even in the empty condition, the cardiac portion retains, as a rule, an appearance of rotundity, and never assumes a completely collapsed and flattened form; although it sometimes is very much contracted, and approaches the tubular form of the pyloric portion.

The collapsed, flat-walled, and flaccid bag, often pictured as the empty stomach, does not represent its true condition during life, but is rather the result of post-mortem softening, relaxation, and pressure. The stomach, like the bladder, and like other hollow viscera with muscular walls, is not an inert bag, but an extensile living organ capable of expansion and contraction, which adapts the size of its cavity to the amount of its contents. When food enters, it expands, the expansion being proportionate to the amount of food that enters; and when the food passes away or is absorbed, it contracts, until its cavity is reduced to little more than a stellate lumen.

In the gradual passage of the stomach from the empty to the distended condition we may recognise three stages. *First stage.*—This commences with an enlargement of the fundus, and is followed by an expansion of the whole cardiac portion, which passes upwards and also to the left towards the diaphragm, displacing the coils of the transverse colon, which lie here when the stomach is empty. The pyloric portion for 3 or 4 inches still remains contracted and cylindrical. In this condition the stomach is frequently found after death. *Second stage.*—As distension goes on the lesser curvature opens out, the pyloric portion (with the exception of its last inch) expands, but its junction with the cardiac portion usually remains distinct, until distension is almost complete. *Third stage.*—A further general expansion of the whole stomach takes place; the diameters of both cardiac and pyloric portions, as well as the length of the organ, are increased; and the great curvature presses forwards against the anterior abdominal wall in front, where the restraining influence of the ribs is absent. The pyloric end for about 1 inch (2·5 cm.) from the pylorus remains narrow (constituting the pyloric canal of Jonnesco), but to the left of this it bulges forward, forming the antrum pylori, which is most distinct at the great curvature. By the increase of the organ in length the antrum is carried a considerable distance to the right beneath the liver—even further than the pylorus itself—so that the terminal part of the stomach is bent backwards and to the left, in order to reach the pylorus, which latter very rarely passes more than one and a half or two inches to the right of its normal position, namely, in the empty condition, within half-an-inch (12 mm.) of the middle line. Finally, as it fills, the stomach becomes gradually more oblique, so that in the distended state the long axis of the posterior two-thirds of the organ is directed forwards, downwards, and to the right, and forms an angle of about 40° to 45° with both the horizontal and sagittal planes (Fig. 743), whilst its anterior third is still more oblique.

There is, however (as pointed out by Jonnesco), no distinct rotation of the organ on its long axis—no turning of the great curvature more forwards, nor of the so-called anterior surface more upwards.

In the change from the distended to the empty state these stages are reversed; the whole stomach is contracted, or drawn in, from all directions towards the lesser curvature; this latter is bent upon itself to an acute angle, and the long axis of the organ, becoming less oblique, approaches the horizontal.

Although this description of the shape and direction of the stomach is at variance with the generally accepted accounts, it is based upon the examination of a considerable number of specially-hardened bodies, and has been found to apply so generally, that it is advanced here as the condition most frequently found in the male immediately after death, and as, in all probability, giving a near approximation to the conditions present during life. It must, however, be admitted that, in the female, as a result of tight lacing, the stomach is often found to assume an abnormal vertical position; but this condition is associated with displacement of other abdominal organs in the neighbourhood, and cannot be looked upon as normal.

[In the present edition it has been thought right to leave the above description of the stomach as it was originally written by Professor Birmingham. Subsequent investigation has served to show the accuracy of his views in so far as the various stomach forms which he describes are concerned, and the shape which he ascribes to the empty condition of the organ, and which he was the first to describe has been proved beyond dispute to be frequently met with in properly prepared subjects. The question, however, which is being at present discussed is whether this stomach-form, in which the cardiac part forms a more or less capacious sac, and the pyloric part is tubular and thick-walled, is not rather to be associated with a particular stage in the digestive act. From investigations on the cat by means of Röntgen rays, Cannon has shown that during

The **upper** (or parietal) **surface of the stomach** is more convex and more extensiv than the lower. It lies, when the organ is distended, in contact with the roof an anterior wall of the stomach chamber, and thus comes into relation with the unde surface of the left lobe of the liver on the right, the vault of the diaphragm on th left, and the anterior abdominal wall in front (Fig. 739). When the stomach i

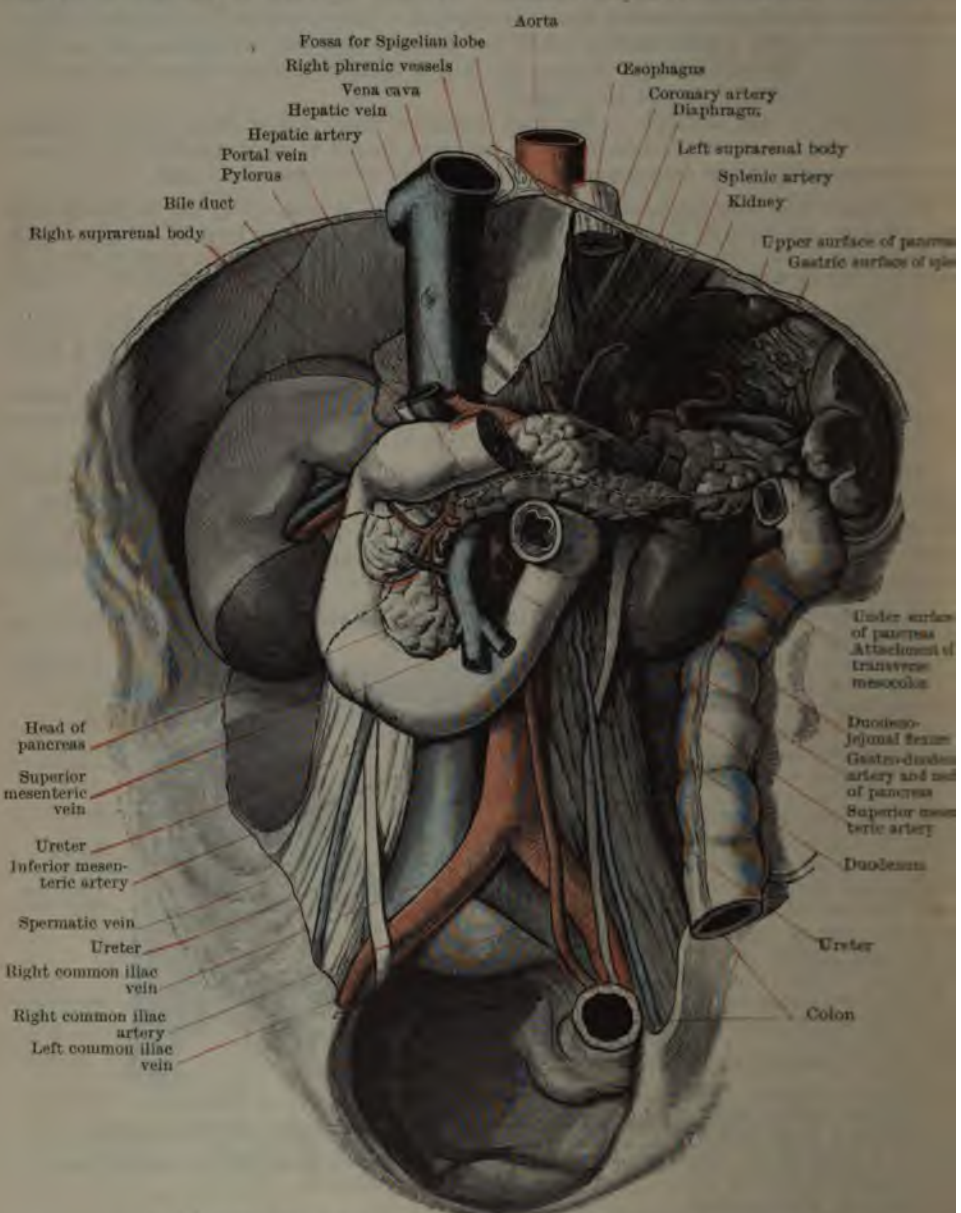


FIG. 746.—THE VISCERA AND VESSELS ON THE POSTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL.

The stomach, liver, and most of the intestines have been removed. The peritoneum has been preserved on t right kidney, and also the fossa for the Spigelian lobe. In taking out the liver, the vena cava was l behind. The stomach bed is well shown. (From a body hardened by chromic acid injections.)

empty, on the other hand, the transverse colon, as just explained, doubles up ov it, and separates this surface from the roof of the chamber.

The **lower** (or visceral) **surface**, more flattened than the upper, rests upon th stomach bed, and comes into relation with the following parts:—Behind, at th fundus, with the diaphragm and gastric surface of the spleen; in front of this wit

stomach. It is situated at the upper end of the lesser curvature, to the right of the fundus, and nearer the upper than the lower surface of the stomach (Fig. 743, B). The cardia is very deeply placed, and lies about four inches behind the sternal end of the seventh left costal cartilage, at a point one inch from its junction with the sternum. Posteriorly it corresponds to the level of the eleventh dorsal vertebra.

Owing to the fixation of the œsophagus by its passage through the diaphragm, and the close connexion between the stomach and the diaphragm, near the cardia where the peritoneum is absent, this is the most fixed part of the whole organ. The object of this immobility is evidently to maintain a clear passage for the food entering the stomach. The orifice is oval rather than round, with its long axis very oblique; and although the presence of a valvular arrangement at the cardia has been advocated by several authorities, it is difficult to find satisfactory proof of its existence in hardened bodies. It seems more probable, on the whole, that no such arrangement naturally exists here. On the other hand, the muscular margins of the œsophageal opening in the diaphragm, and the circular fibres of the lower end of the œsophagus, which are particularly well developed, afford, by their simultaneous contraction, an effective means of closing the œsophagus immediately above the cardia, and thus of preventing regurgitation of the contents of the stomach.

The **pyloric orifice** or **pylorus** is the aperture through which the stomach communicates with the duodenum. It is marked on the surface by a slight constriction, most evident at the curvatures; and in the interior by a prominent thickening of the wall—the pyloric valve (valvula pylori)—produced by a special development of

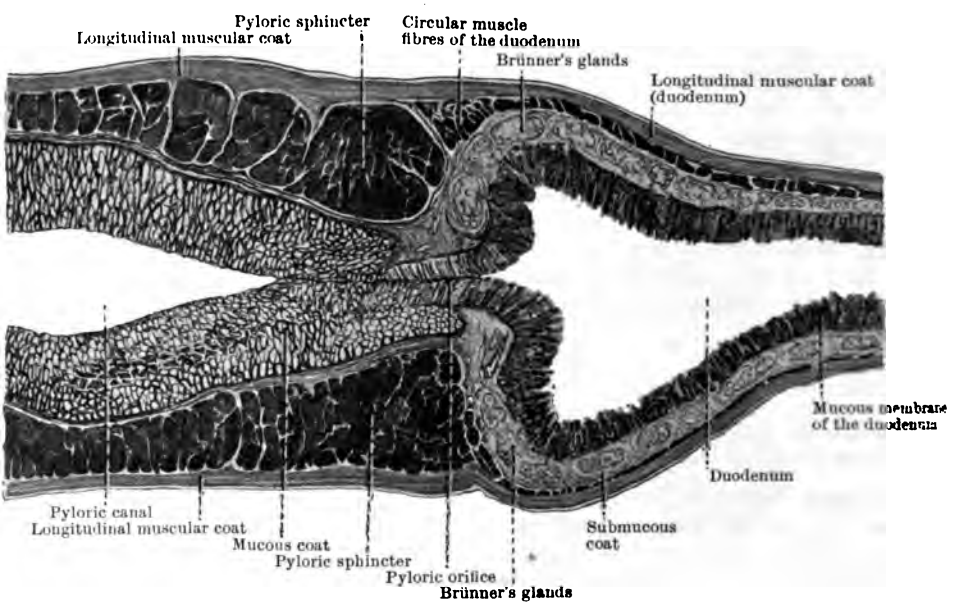


FIG. 747.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE PYLORIC CANAL AND COMMENCEMENT OF THE DUODENUM IN A NEW-BORN CHILD. (From Stiles.)

the circular muscular fibres, known as the pyloric sphincter (musculus sphincter pylori). When examined post-mortem in the ordinary way, the aperture, viewed from the duodenal side, is somewhat oval in form, and closely resembles the external os uteri (Cunningham). When seen from the opposite side, it presents an irregular or stellate appearance, owing to the fact that the rugæ of the gastric mucous membrane are continued up to the orifice.

The pylorus rests on the neck of the pancreas below and behind, and is overlapped by the liver above and in front. Its average position can be marked on the surface of the body by the intersection of two lines; one drawn horizontally halfway between the top of the sternum and the pubic crest (Addison), the other drawn vertically a little way ($\frac{1}{2}$ inch, 12 mm.) to the right of the middle line.

During the earlier stages of gastric digestion the sphincter pylori is strongly contracted and the aperture firmly closed, but it opens intermittently to allow of the passage of properly digested portions of the food. As digestion advances the sphincter probably relaxes somewhat; but in hardened bodies a really patent pylorus is rarely or never found, which would seem to

pancreas is pushed downwards from the horizontal until it almost assumes a vertical positio The narrowing and inversion of the lower margin of the thoracic framework at the sam time constricts the stomach about its middle, and often leads to a bilocular condition.

Hour-glass or Bilocular Stomach.—This is a condition of the organ, by no means rar in which the stomach is more or less completely separated into two divisions—a cardiac an a pyloric—the normal arrangement in certain rodents and other animals. As a rule the form division is the larger, but occasionally the two are nearly equal, or the pyloric portion ma exceed the cardiac in size. Sometimes the condition is temporary, and the result of a vigorou contraction of the circular muscular fibres at the seat of constriction. In other cases it is pe manent, and may be due to cicatricial contraction after gastric ulcer, or to some other pathologic condition. The condition is more frequent in the female than the male, and is rarely found i the fœtus or child.

Structure of the Stomach.

The stomach wall is composed of four coats—namely, from without inwards: (1 peritoneal, (2) muscular, (3) submucous, and (4) mucous (Fig. 749).

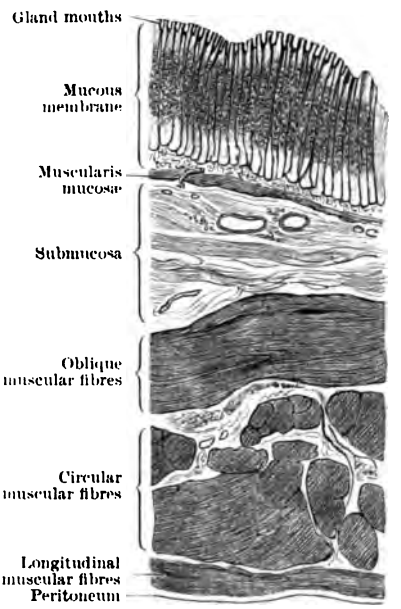


Fig. 749.—Section through Wall of Stomach, Cardiac Portion (slightly modified from Stöhr).

Peritoneal or **Serous Coat** (tunica serosa).—Th coat is formed of the peritoneum, the relations o which to the stomach have already been describe It is closely attached to the subjacent muscula coat, except near the curvatures, where the co nexion is more lax; and it confers on the stomac its smooth and glistening appearance.

Muscular Coat.—The muscular coat, which composed of unstriped muscle, is thinnest in th fundus and body, much thicker in the pylori portion, and very highly developed at the pylorus It is made up of three incomplete layers—a external of longitudinal, a middle of circular, and a internal of oblique muscular fibres.

The *external layer* (stratum longitudinale) co sists of longitudinal fibres, continuous with those o the œsophagus, on the one hand, and those of th duodenum on the other (Fig. 750, A). They ar most easily demonstrated on the lesser curvature where they can be traced down from the right sid of the œsophagus. Over the great curvature an on the two surfaces they are present as an extremel thin and irregular sheet. Towards the pylorus th longitudinal fibres grow much thicker, and als much tougher and more closely united, but the do not take any part in the formation of the pylori valve.

A specially-condensed band of these can be often made out both on the front and bac at the antrum pylori, the form of which is said to be due to their presence. These bands ar known as the pyloric ligaments (ligamenta pylori).

The *middle layer* (stratum circulare) is composed mainly of circular fibres, continuou with the more superficial of the circular fibres at the lower end of the œsophagus (Fig 750, B). They do not commence as a series of circular bundles surrounding the fundus as usually described. On the contrary, they begin as a set of U-shaped bundles whic loop over the lesser curvature at the right of the cardia, and pass downwards and to th left on both surfaces. Further to the right these looped fibres are succeeded by circle which surround the organ completely. Traced towards the narrow end of the stomach the circular bundles grow thicker, and at the pylorus they undergo a further increas giving rise to the pyloric sphincter which surrounds the orifice as a thick muscular ring.

On the gastric side the pyloric sphincter passes gradually into the thick circular fibre of the pyloric portion of the stomach. On the opposite side it ceases abruptly, only it outer part being continued into the circular fibres of the duodenum (Fig. 751).

The *internal layer* (fibræ obliquæ) is composed of fibres which are arranged on th fundus and adjacent parts of the stomach, in much the same manner as those of th middle layer are on the body and pyloric portion of the organ (Fig. 750, C). Continuous above with the deeper circular fibres of the lower end of the œsophagus, they begin as

Blood-vessels.—The **arteries** of the stomach are all derived ultimately from the cœliac axis. The *coronary* arises from this trunk direct. Having reached the lesser curvature and given off an œsophageal branch, it divides into two large branches, which run, one on each side, along this curvature, and join below with two similarly disposed arteries derived from the *pyloric* branch of the hepatic. From the two arches thus formed, four or five large branches pass to each surface of the stomach, and soon pierce the muscular coat. Along the great curvature several smaller branches reach the stomach from the *right and left gastro-epiploic arteries*, which are branches respectively of the gastro-duodenal and the splenic, and run in the great omentum close to its attachment to the stomach. Finally, four or five *vasa brevia*, branches of the splenic, are distributed to the fundus of the stomach, which they reach by passing forwards between the layers of the gastro-splenic omentum. At first the arteries lie beneath the peritoneum; very soon, however, they pierce the muscular coat, which they supply, and reaching the submucosa, break up to form a close network of vessels. From these arise numerous small branches, which enter the mucous membrane and form capillary plexuses around the glands as far as the surface.

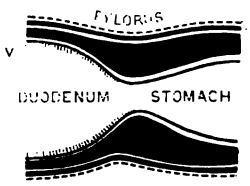


FIG. 751.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW FORMATION OF PYLORUS. P, Peritoneum; L, Longitudinal layer of muscular fibres; C, Circular layer; M, Mucous membrane; V, Villi. It will be seen that the pyloric narrowing is due practically entirely to a gradual thickening of the circular muscular fibres, which stops abruptly at the pyloric orifice.

The **veins** begin in the capillary plexuses around the glands: uniting, they form a network in the submucosa, from which arise branches that pierce the muscular coat, and finally end in the following veins: the *right gastro-epiploic*, which joins the superior mesenteric; the *left gastro-epiploic*, and four or five veins corresponding to the *vasa brevia arteries*, which join the splenic; the *coronary* or *gastric vein*, which runs along the lesser curvature towards the cardia, receives an œsophageal branch, and then turns down and runs beside the coronary artery to join the portal trunk; and the *pyloric vein*, corresponding to the same named artery, which also joins the portal. These veins contain numerous valves, which, though competent to prevent the return of blood in the child, are rarely so in the adult.

The **lymphatics** arise in the mucous membrane around the gastric glands; they then join a plexus of valved vessels in the submucosa, from which the chief trunks pass with the blood-vessels to the curvatures, being joined on the way by the efferent vessels of a subperitoneal lymphatic plexus. They are connected with the superior gastric glands along the lesser curvatures, the inferior gastric glands along the great curvature, and the splenic glands, which they reach with the vasa brevia. Finally, the efferent vessels of all these join the cœliac glands.

The **nerves** are derived from the two *pneumogastrics* and from the *solar plexus* of the sympathetic. The pneumogastric nerves pass down through the diaphragm with the œsophagus, the left lying on its front, the right on its back; in this way they reach the upper and lower surfaces of the stomach respectively. Here they unite with the sympathetic fibres from the cœliac plexus (an offshoot of the solar plexus), which pass to the stomach with the branches of the cœliac axis. The nerve fibres, which are chiefly non-medullated, form two gangliated plexuses, those of Auerbach and Meissner, in the muscular and submucous coats respectively.

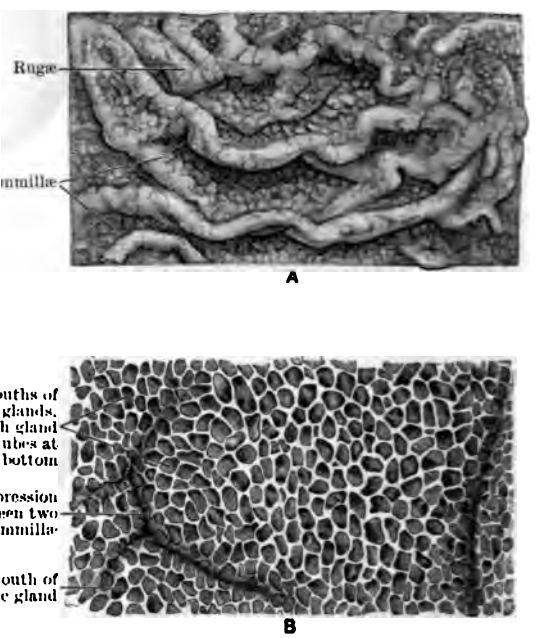


FIG. 752.—THE MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF STOMACH. A, Natural size; B, Magnified 25 diameters. In A the rugæ and the mammillated surface are shown. In B the gland mouths (foveolæ gastricæ), with the gland tubes leading off from some of them, and the ridges separating the mouths (plicæ villosæ) are seen.

The development of the stomach is described with that of the intestines on p. 1105.

INTESTINES.

As the coats of the remaining portions of the digestive tube agree in many particulars, it will be convenient to describe the general structure of the intestines

muscularis mucosæ, which is not visible to the naked eye. The mucous membrane is very vascular, particularly in the small intestine. It is thicker in the duodenum than in the jejunum, and thicker in this latter than in the ileum.

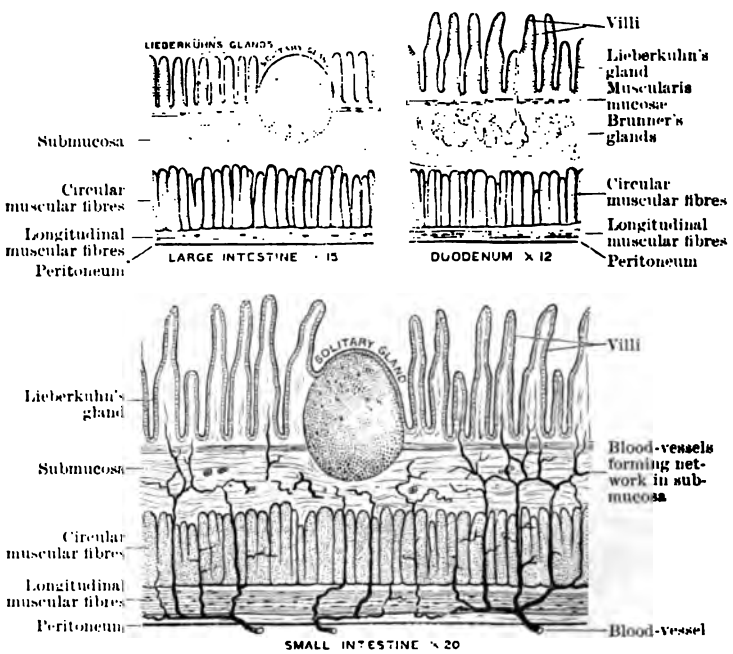


FIG. 754.—DIAGRAM to show the structure of the small and large intestine and the duodenum.

Throughout both the small and large intestines the substance of the mucous membrane is closely beset with innumerable small (microscopic) tubular glands, known as the **glands or follicles of Lieberkühn** (glandulæ intestinales). In shape they are minute straight tubes—like diminutive test-tubes—with their mouths opening on the surface, their closed ends lying in the deeper part of the mucous coat, and their cavities lined by columnar epithelium. They open on the surface between the villi of the small intestine, and are present also on the valvulæ conniventes. In the large gut their orifices are found all over the surface of the mucous membrane.

Certain special developments of the mucous coat, found in particular regions of the intestinal tube, must next be considered: these are the (1) villi; (2) valvulæ conniventes; (3) solitary glands; and (4) agminated glands, or Peyer's patches.

Villi (villi intestinales).—If the mucous membrane of any part of the small intestine be examined, it is seen to present a soft, velvety, or fleecy appearance (Fig. 755, B); this is due to the presence of an enormous number of minute processes, known as villi, which cover its surface.

Villi are minute cylindrical or finger-like projections of the mucous membrane (Fig. 754), about $\frac{1}{50}$th or $\frac{1}{40}$th of an inch (1·2 to 1·6 mm.) in height, and barely visible to the naked eye, which are closely set all over the surface of the mucous membrane of the small intestine. Beginning at the edge of the pyloric valve, they are said to be broader but shorter in the duodenum, and to grow narrower as they are followed down through the intestine to the ileo-cæcal valve, at the edge of which they cease. They are found, not only on the general surface of the mucous membrane, but also upon the valvulæ conniventes, and, while they are not present over the solitary glands, they are found in the intervals between the individual nodules of the Peyer's patches.

They are connected with the absorption of the products of digestion which takes place in the small intestine.

Valvulæ Conniventes (plicæ circulares).—When the intestine is empty and contracted, its mucous membrane may in places be thrown into effaceable folds or rugæ, which disappear on distension. But in addition to these, there are found in certain portions of the small intestine a series of large, permanent folds, which are not effaceable; these are known as valvulæ conniventes (Fig. 755). They are usually more or less crescentic in shape, and resemble a series of closely-placed shelves running transversely around the gut. They rarely form more than two-thirds of a circle; sometimes, however, they present a circular or even a spiral arrangement, the spiral extending little more than once round the tube, as a rule.

the small intestine they are found on the valvulæ conniventes, as well as upon the general surface of the mucous membrane between them.

Peyer's Patches, or **Agminated Glands** (noduli lymphatici aggregati, tonsillæ intestinales).—A Peyer's patch consists of a large number of lymphoid nodules grouped closely together so as to form a slightly elevated area, usually of an oblong form, on the surface of the mucous membrane (Fig. 756). In length they vary from half an inch (12 mm.) or less to three or four inches (100 mm.), and in width they commonly measure from a third to half an inch (8 to 12 mm.). Their number is variable, but in the average condition about 30 or 40 are found. They are best marked in young subjects, where they form considerable elevations above the general surface, and may be as many as 45 in number. After middle life they atrophy, and in old age, although usually to be found, they are indistinct, occasionally being marked by little more than a dark discoloration of the mucous membrane. They are invariably situated along the free surface of the intestine opposite the line of mesenteric attachment, with their long axis corresponding to that of the bowel. Consequently, in order to display them, the tube must be slit up along its attached or mesenteric border.

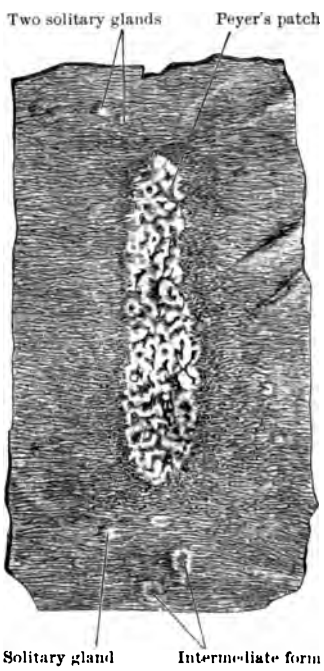


FIG. 756.—PEYER'S PATCH AND SOLITARY GLANDS, from intestine of child two years old (natural size).

Near the lower border are seen a few small patches made up of two or three lymphatic nodules; they are marked "intermediate form."

Peyer's patches are entirely confined to the small intestine, being largest and most numerous in the ileum, particularly in its lower part, where they usually assume an oblong shape; in the lower half of the jejunum they are small, circular, and few in number; in its upper part they are rare; and, although their presence has been noted in the lower portion of the duodenum, they may be said to be as a general rule absent from this division of the intestine.

The valvulæ conniventes stop at the margins of Peyer's patches, and are not continued across them; but villi are found on the surface of the patches, in the intervals between the lymphoid nodules.

The chief bowel lesion in typhoid fever is found in Peyer's patches and the solitary glands.

When the surface of a Peyer's patch from a child's intestine (in which these structures are particularly well developed) is carefully examined, it is seen to be made up, not of a series of separate, rounded nodules grouped together, but rather of a number of wavy, irregular, and branching ridges connected with one another by cross branches (Fig. 756), the whole recalling in miniature the appearance of a raised map of a very mountainous district in which the chief chains run irregular courses, and are joined to one another by connecting ridges.

Small patches, intermediate in form between solitary glands and Peyer's patches, and consisting of two or three lymphoid nodules, are also usually present.

THE SMALL INTESTINE.

The **small intestine** is the portion of the digestive tube which is placed between the stomach and the beginning of the large intestine. It commences at the pylorus, where it is continuous with the stomach, and ends at the ileo-cæcal valve by joining the large intestine. It occupies the greater portion of the abdominal cavity below the liver and stomach (Fig. 740), and is found in the umbilical, hypogastric, and both lumbar regions; also, but to a less extent, in the other regions of the abdomen, and in the pelvic cavity.

In *length*, the small intestine usually measures over 20 feet. According to Treves, it is 22½ ft. in the male, 23 in the female, whilst Jonnesco gives the average length at 24 ft. 7 ins., or 7½ metres. In form it is cylindrical, with a *diameter* varying from nearly two inches (47 mm.) in the duodenum to a little over an inch (27 mm.) at the end of the ileum; there is thus a gradual diminution in its size from the pylorus to the ileo-cæcal valve.

portion and the adjoining two-thirds of the inferior or third portion, are placed
the umbilical region. With the exception of the terminal ascending portion of t
third part, the whole of the duodenum lies to the right of the middle line.

Its length is usually about 11 inches (27·5 cm.), its first portion being the shorte
and its third portion the longest. Its diameter varies considerably, and may

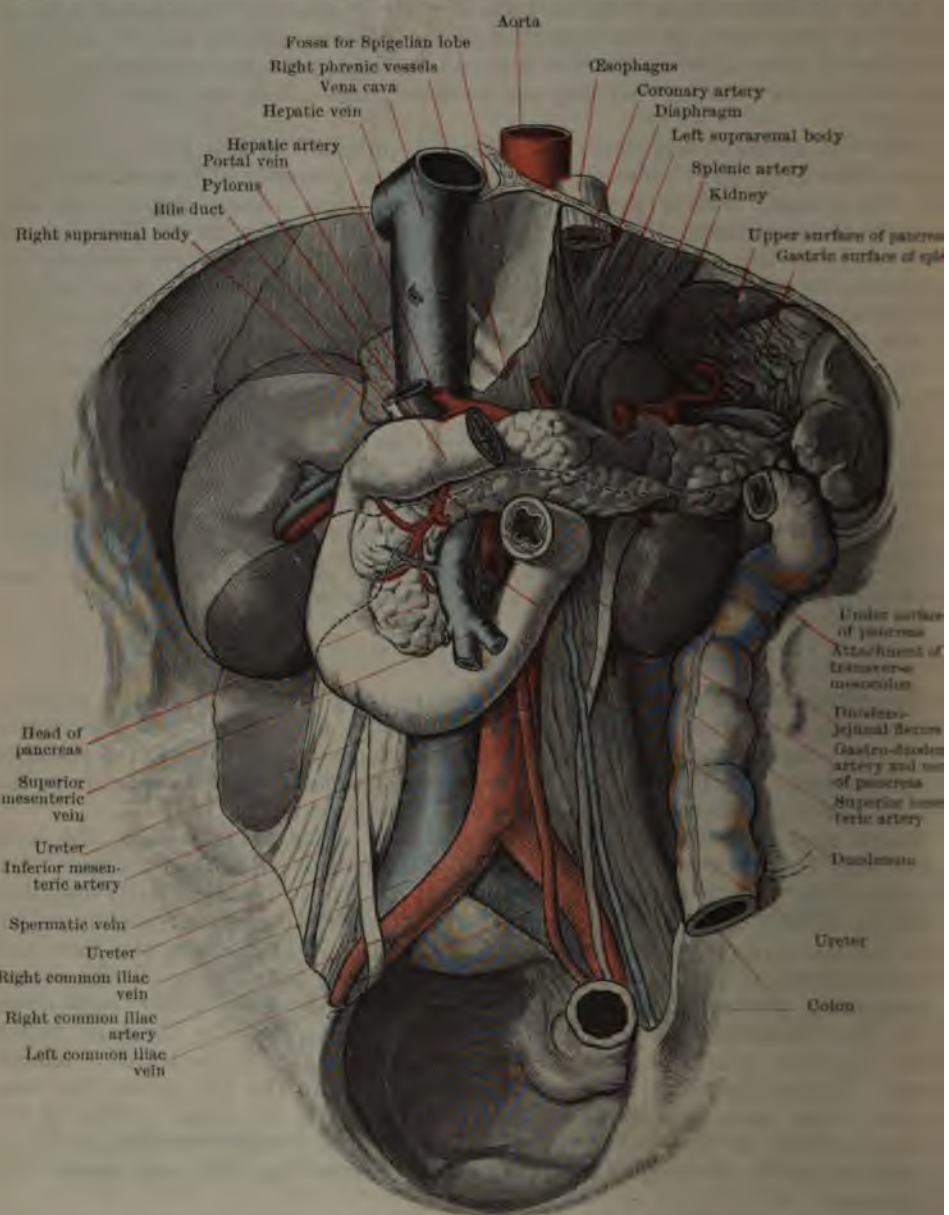


FIG. 757.—THE VISCERA AND VESSELS ON THE POSTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL.

The stomach, liver, and most of the intestines have been removed. The peritoneum has been preserved on the right kidney, and the fossa for the Spigelian lobe. In taking out the liver, the vena cava was left behind. The stomach-bed is well shown. (From a body hardened by injection of chromic acid.)

stated to average about 1½ inches when empty, but it may be as much as t
inches when distended.

Relations.—The **first or superior portion** (pars superior) begins at the pylor
opposite the first lumbar vertebra. From this it runs to the right, and th
backwards, beneath the liver when the stomach is empty, but directly backwar

into line with the second or terminal half, which is always directed backwards. Hence the whole of the first portion of the duodenum is directed backwards when the stomach is full.

The **second or descending portion** (pars descendens) begins at the neck of the gall-bladder, passes down behind the transverse colon, and ends at the right side of the third or fourth lumbar vertebra. In length it measures 3½ or 4 inches (8·7 to 10 cm.).

In front, it is crossed about its middle by the beginning of the transverse colon (Fig. 758). Above the colon, it is in contact with the narrow end of the gall-bladder and below it with the coils of the small intestine. *Behind*, it is connected by areolar tissue to the inner part of the right kidney, with its ureter and renal vessels: it is also related, as a rule, to the right psoas muscle below the kidney (Fig. 757). To its *outer or right side* lies the liver (here presenting the duodenal impression) above, and often the ascending colon below. To its *inner side* are the inferior vena cava and the head of the pancreas, this latter overlapping it somewhat in front.

The common bile duct, after passing down behind the first portion of the duodenum, descends between the head of the pancreas and the second portion, nearly as far as its middle; here it is joined by the pancreatic duct, and the two, piercing the wall of the duodenum obliquely, open by a common orifice on its inner aspect, about 3½ to 4 inches (8·7 to 10 cm.) beyond the pylorus.

Peritoneal relations.—There is no peritoneum on the posterior or deep surface of this part, whilst its superficial or anterior surface is covered, except where it is crossed by the colon (Fig. 758).

When the beginning of the transverse colon is completely covered by peritoneum, and has a mesentery (a condition which often seems to be determined by a liver large in the vertical direction), the whole of the anterior surface, with the exception of the insignificant area between the two layers of the transverse mesocolon, is covered by the peritoneum.

On the other hand, when this part of the colon has no mesentery, it lifts the peritoneum off the front of the duodenum, and leaves a considerable "uncovered area," which is united by areolar tissue to the back of the colon.

The **third or inferior portion** (pars inferior) begins at the right side of the third or fourth lumbar vertebra. From this it first runs more or less transversely to the left across the vena cava (Fig. 757) for one or two inches, and then passes very obliquely, or even vertically, upwards in front of the aorta and left psoas muscle. Finally, having reached the lower surface of the pancreas, it bends forwards, and passes into the jejunum. Owing to the different directions which they take, we can recognise two divisions, a transverse and an ascending terminal, in this portion of the duodenum (Fig. 757).

In front, it is crossed (about the junction of its two divisions) by the superior mesenteric vessels, and also by the root of the mesentery (Fig. 758). On each side of this it is covered by coils of small intestine. *Behind*, its horizontal portion lies on the vena cava; its ascending portion on the aorta, the left renal vessels, and the left psoas muscle, all of which separate it from the vertebral column. *Above*, it is closely applied in its whole extent to the head of the pancreas. The *left side* of the *ascending terminal part*, which is free, lies in contact with some coils of the small intestine.

Peritoneal relations.—The third portion of the duodenum is covered by peritoneum on its anterior surface throughout, except where it is crossed by the superior mesenteric vessels and the root of the mesentery which contains them (Fig. 758). In addition, its ascending terminal portion is also clothed by this membrane on its left side; and here are usually found one or two small peritoneal pouches known as the **duodenal fossæ**.

The attachment of the root of the mesentery begins above quite close to the duodeno-jejunal flexure, on the front of the duodenum; from this it runs down on the anterior aspect of the ascending terminal part, and finally leaves the duodenum about the union of the two divisions of its third portion.

Duodenal Fossæ.—In the neighbourhood of the ascending part of the third portion of the duodenum are found three well-known fossæ of the peritoneum which are of some surgical interest; these are the superior and inferior duodenal and the paraduodenal fossæ (Fig. 759). Other rarer forms are occasionally present.

mucous membrane. In the lower part of the duodenum the folds are large, prominent and transversely set.

On the inner aspect of the descending part, about its middle—namely, 3 or 4 inches (7·5 to 10 cm.) beyond the pylorus—is seen a prominent papilla at which the bile and pancreatic ducts open by a common orifice (Fig. 760). This is known as the **bile papilla** (papilla duodeni carunculæ major of Santorini).

The papilla is placed beneath, and projected by, a prominent, hood-like valvular fold, which is continuous inferiorly with the mucous membrane of the duodenum. From its lower margin a firm ridge of mucous membrane (the plica semilunaris duodeni) extends for a considerable distance across the inner wall of the duodenum above the papilla, and directs its apex somewhat downwards (Fig. 760). The papilla is pyramidal in shape, and at its summit is placed the orifice of the bile duct, which is usually situated at the bottom of a pit. The whole bears a close resemblance to the papilla of the duodenum.

Nearly always a little higher up, but invariably on the ventral side of the bile papilla (sometimes separated from it by a distance of 1 inch), is seen a second and smaller papilla, the caruncula minor of Santorini, at the point of which is placed the very small orifice of the accessory pancreatic duct. This second papilla seems to be constantly present, although sometimes so small that it may escape detection unless carefully sought for. When well developed, it may have a valvular fold connected with it, like those of the bile papilla.

Structure of the Duodenum.—The **peritoneal coat**, which is incomplete, has already been described in detail, in connexion with each division of the duodenum.

The **muscular coat** is well developed, and is pierced by the bile and pancreatic ducts, but otherwise calls for no special description.

The **submucosa** differs from that of the rest of the small intestine, in that it contains, especially in the upper half of the duodenum, the **glands of Brunner** (glandulæ duodenales). These are small acinotubular glands, closely resembling the pyloric glands of the stomach, which lie in the submucous coat, and send their ducts through the muscularis mucosæ to open on the surface between Lieberkuhn's glands, or sometimes into these glands themselves (Fig. 754). They can be exposed by removing the peritoneal and muscular coats, and also some of the submucosa, when they appear as little rounded or flattened masses of a reddish gray colour, varying in size from $\frac{1}{50}$th to $\frac{1}{12}$th of an inch in diameter (·5 to 2·0 mm.). They form an almost continuous layer as far as the opening of the bile duct: beyond this they diminish progressively, and completely disappear near the duodeno-jejunal flexure.

The **mucous membrane**, which is thicker in the duodenum than in any other part of the small intestine, is covered throughout with broad short villi. Its other characteristics have been already fully described.

Various Forms of Duodenum.—Three different types of duodenum have been described: (1) The **annular**, in which the curves separating the various portions are open, and the two extremities come fairly close to one another. (2) The **U-shaped**, in which the transverse part of the third portion is very long, and the ascending portion nearly vertical; and (3) the **V-shaped** duodenum, in which the transverse part of the third portion is very short or absent.

Duodenal Pouch.—A diverticulum of the duodenum, arising from its left side just above the opening of the bile duct, and running into the substance of the pancreas, is occasionally found. It is possibly connected with one of the outgrowths of the duodenum from which the pancreas is developed in the embryo.

Vessels and Nerves.—The duodenum receives its blood from the superior and inferior pancreatico-duodenal arteries, branches of the gastro-duodenal and superior mesenteric arteries respectively. The blood is returned by the corresponding veins, the superior of which opens into the superior mesenteric, and the inferior into the beginning of the portal vein.

The **lymphatics** pass to a set of glands placed along the pancreatico-duodenal arteries, and thence to the cœliac glands.

The **nerves** come from the solar plexus of the sympathetic.

Duodeno-jejunal Flexure.—When the ascending terminal portion of the duodenum reaches the under surface of the pancreas, at a point opposite the left side of the first or second lumbar vertebra, it turns abruptly forwards, downwards and to the left, and passes into the jejunum. This abrupt bend is known as the **duodeno-jejunal flexure**. Unlike the rest of the duodenum, which is subject to considerable variations in position in different individuals, the duodeno-jejunal flexure is fixed by a thin band of unstriped muscle, which is attached above to the strong connective tissue around the cœliac axis, as well as to the left crus of the diaphragm, and below joins the muscular coat of the duodenum at the flexure. This band is known as the **suspensory muscle of the duodenum** (musculus suspensorius duodeni—Treitz).

the intestine. The root is attached to the posterior abdominal wall alo an oblique line, extending approximately from the left side of the seco lumbar vertebra to the right iliac fossa (Fig. 761). In this course its li of attachment passes from the duodeno-jejunal flexure down over the front the terminal part of the duodenum, then obliquely across the aorta, the inferi vena cava, the ureter, and psoas muscle, to reach the right iliac region.

The opposite border of the mesentery is frilled out to an enormous degree, that, while the root measures but 6 or 7 inches, the free border is extended some 20 feet, thus resembling a fan, one border of which may be twenty or thir times as long as the other. The length of the mesentery, measured from its r to the attached edge of the intestine directly opposite, usually measures at longest part about 6 inches (8 or 9 inches, Treves and Lockwood).

Between the two layers of the mesentery (Fig. 753) are contained (*a*) t intestinal branches of the superior mesenteric vessels, accompanied by the mesente nerves and lymphatics; (*b*) the mesenteric lymphatic glands, which vary from to 150 in number; (*c*) a considerable amount of fatty connective tissue, continuo with the extra-peritoneal areolar tissue; and (*d*) the intestine itself.

The peritoneum from the right side of the mesentery passes out on the posterior abdomi wall to clothe the ascending colon, and, above, it is connected by a fold with the transverse a colon. That of the left side, similarly, passes across the parietes to the descending and il colons.

The mesentery begins above, immediately beyond the ending of the duodenum—that is, the angle of the duodeno-jejunal flexure—and it ends below in the angle between the ileum a ascending colon. It is very short at each end, but soon attains the average length. Its long part goes to the portion of the small intestine situated between two points, one six feet, the oth eleven feet from the duodenum (Treves).

Whilst the root of the mesentery pursues at its attachment an almost straight line from one e to the other, if cut across a very short distance from the posterior abdominal wall, it will here found to form a wavy or undulating line. Further out still this condition becomes more and mo marked; and finally, if the bowel be removed by cutting through the mesentery close to its atta ment to the intestinal wall, it will be seen that its free edge is not only undulating, but is frilled plaited to an extreme degree. When shown in this way, it is found that the plaiting or foldi is not quite indiscriminate, but that the main folds, of which there are usually six, run alte nately to the right and left. As a rule, the first fold runs to the left from the duodeno-jeju flexure, and goes to a coil of jejunum which lies under the transverse mesocolon, and helps support the stomach (this coil has been already referred to, page 1053). The second fold pas to the right, the third to the left, and so on up to the fifth and sixth, which are usually sm From the margins of these primary folds secondary folds project in all directions, and from the again even a third series may be formed.

This order is of course by no means constant, but if the intestine be removed from a harden body in the way suggested, without disturbing the mesentery, it will be found to be arrang with more or less regularity, on some such plan as that indicated.

Arrangement of Coils of Small Intestine.—Although the greatest variety found in the disposition of the small intestine, and it is impossible to state in wh regions of the abdomen the different parts of the tube will be found, still it m be said that in general the jejunum (as might be expected from the position which it begins) is placed above and to the left, in reference to the ileum, whi latter lies below and to the right. Again, the upper part of the jejunum is usual situated to the left of the duodeno-jejunal flexure, in contact with the und surface of the pancreas and transverse mesocolon; and, similarly, the terminal p of the ileum almost always lies in the pelvis, from which it passes up over t right side of the pelvic brim to reach the ileo-cæcal orifice. Another portion the small intestine is not uncommonly found in the pelvis; this is the part wi the longest mesentery, and lies between two points, six and eleven feet respective from the duodenum (Treves).

Differences between Jejunum and Ileum.—If the small intestine be follow down from the duodenum to the cæcum no noticeable change in appearance w be found at any one part of its course, to indicate the transition from jejunum ileum: for the one passes insensibly into the other. Nevertheless, a gradual chan takes place, and if typical parts of the two, namely, the upper portion of t jejunum and the lower portion of the ileum, be examined, they will be found present characteristic differences, which are set forth in the following table:—

seen projecting on its surface. Peyer's patches are particularly large and numer the ileum: they are fewer, smaller, and usually circular, in the jejunum. Finall mucous membrane forms valvulæ conniventes, which are much more prominent i jejunum; they are smaller and fewer in the upper part of the ileum, and usually disa a little below its middle.

THE LARGE INTESTINE.

The ileum is succeeded by the large intestine (intestinum crassum, begins on the right side, some 2½ inches below the ileo-cæcal junction, and prises the following parts:—

1. The **cæcum,** a wide, short cul-de-sac, consisting of the portion of the bowel below the ileo-cæcal junction. It lies in the right iliac region, and its inner and back part a worm-shaped outgrowth, the **vermiform process,** is longed (Fig. 761).

2. The **ascending colon** extends from the cæcum, up in the right side c abdomen, to the liver: here the gut bends to the left, forming the **hepatic fl** which connects the ascending colon to the transverse colon

3. The **transverse colon** is a long loop of intestine which arches acros abdominal cavity in an irregular manner. It ends at the lower extremity spleen, where it turns downward, forming the **splenic flexure,** and passes int descending colon.

4. The **descending colon** runs down on the left side, from the splenic fl to the iliac crest.

5. The **iliac colon** extends from the crest of the ilium to the brim of the p where it is succeeded by the pelvic colon.

6. The **pelvic colon** is a large loop of intestine which is usually found i pelvis. The iliac and pelvic portions of the colon taken together are comm described as the *sigmoid flexure* of the colon.

7. The **rectum,** the terminal part of the large bowel, succeeds the pelvic and ends at the **anal orifice.**

In its course the large bowel is arranged in an arched manner around small intestine, which lies within the concavity of its curve (Fig. 739).

In *length*, the great intestine is equal to about one-fifth of the whole intes

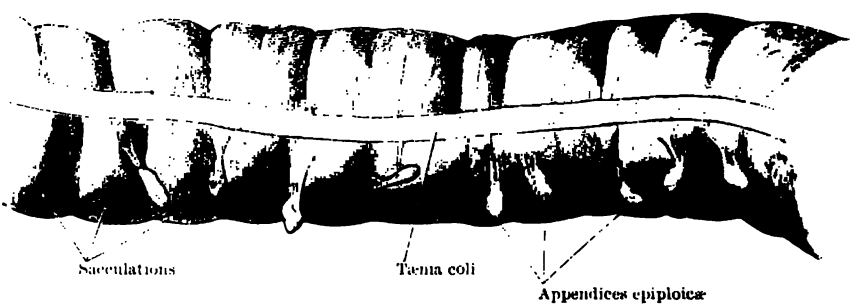


FIG. 762.—LARGE INTESTINE.

A piece of transverse colon from a child two years old. The three chief characteristics of the large inte sacculations, tæniæ, and appendices epiploicæ—are shown.

canal, and usually measures between 5 and 5½ feet (180 to 195 cm.). Its *br* is greatest at the cæcum, and from this—with the exception of a dilation a rectum—it gradually decreases to the anus. At the cæcum it measures, distended, about 3 inches (75 mm.) in diameter; beyond this it grad diminishes, and measures only 1½ inch (37 mm.) or less in the descending iliac divisions of the colon.

The large intestine, with the exception of the rectum and vermiform appe may be easily distinguished from the regularly cylindrical small intestine b the presence of three longitudinal bands—the **tæniæ coli**—running along its su (Fig. 762, *b*) by the fact that its walls are sacculated; and (*c*) by the pre of numerous little peritoneal processes, known as **appendices epiploicæ,** proje

Nerves.—The nerves come from the superior mesenteric plexus, an offshoot of the solar plexus, and from the inferior mesenteric, a derivation of the aortic plexus. The arrangement is similar to that of the nerves of the small intestine.

THE CÆCUM AND APPENDIX.

Cæcum.—After leaving the pelvic cavity, as already described, the terminal portion of the small intestine passes upwards, backwards, and to the right, and opens, by the ileo-cæcal orifice, into the large intestine some 2½ inches from its lower end. The portion of the large gut which lies below the level of this orifice is known as the **cæcum** (caput cæcum coli). *In shape* (Fig. 763) it is a wide, unsymmetrical, or lop-sided cul-de-sac, furnished with the tæniæ and sacculations usually found in the large intestine. Its lower end or *fundus* is directed downwards and inwards, and usually rests on the front of the right psoas muscle, close to the brim of the pelvis; whilst the opposite end is directed upwards and outwards, and is continued into the ascending colon.

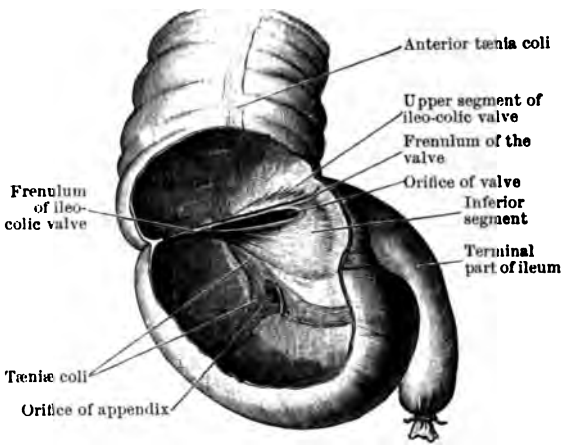


FIG. 763.—CÆCUM SHOWING ILEO-CÆCAL VALVE.
The cæcum has been distended with air and dried, and a portion of its anterior wall has been removed.

Its unsymmetrical form is due to the fact that the outer and inner portions of the organ undergo an unequal development in the child. The inner (or inner and posterior) section lags behind, whilst the outer (or outer and anterior) division grows much more rapidly, and, projecting downwards, soon comes to form the lower end or fundus of the cæcum. As a result the original extremity of the gut, with the vermiform process springing from it, is hidden away behind and to the inner side of the fundus.

In *length* the distended cæcum usually measures about 2½ inches (60 mm.); whilst its *breadth* is usually more, and averages about 3 inches (75 mm.).

Position.—It is situated, when normal, almost entirely within the right iliac region of the abdomen, immediately above Poupart's ligament; but its lower end projects inwards in front of the psoas and reaches the hypogastrium (Fig. 769). On the other hand, it is sometimes found, even when quite healthy, high up in the right lumbar region (owing to the persistence of the fœtal position), or hanging over the pelvic brim and dipping into the pelvic cavity to varying extents.

In the great majority of cases the cæcum is completely covered by peritoneum on all aspects, and lies quite free in the abdominal cavity. In a small proportion, namely, about 6 or 7 per cent of bodies, the posterior surface (probably as a result of adhesions) is not completely covered, but over a greater or less portion of its extent is bound down to the posterior abdominal wall by connective tissue.

Relations.—*Behind*, the cæcum rests on the ilio-psoas muscle; generally, too, on its own vermiform process and the external iliac artery. *In front*, it usually lies in contact with the anterior abdominal wall; sometimes, however, when the cæcum is empty, the small intestine intervenes. Its *outer side* is placed immediately above the outer half of Poupart's ligament (Fig. 769), whilst the *inner side* has the termination of the ileum lying in contact with it. On the inner and posterior aspect, but more on the former than the latter, the small intestine joins the cæcum. On the same aspect, and usually about 1¼ inches (31 mm.) lower down, the vermiform process comes off.

The *interior* of the cæcum corresponds in general appearance to that of the large intestine; but it presents two special features on the posterior part of its inner wall, namely, the **ileo-cæcal orifice, guarded by the ileo-cæcal**

Structure of the Ileo-cæcal Valve.—Each segment of the valve is formed by a fold of the mucous membrane of the gut, and consists of a layer of connective tissue and muscular fibres covered on both surfaces with epithelium. The muscular fibres are continuous with those of the ileum on the one hand and of the large intestine on the other. The fold of mucous membrane is formed to such a degree that the edges of the segments are in contact with one another, and the cavity of the ileum is separated from that of the large intestine.

In the ileal specimen the outer segment usually projects into the cavity of the cæcum, so that the free edge of the aperture appears to be placed between the ileum and the outer surface of the valve.

There is little doubt as pointed out by Symington that the action of the ileo-cæcal valve is largely due to the manner in which the ileum enters or traverses the wall of the large intestine, the oblique passage of the ileum through the wall of the latter, would probably tend to prevent a return of the cæcal contents. In the great majority of cases, when in position within the body, the ileum is perfectly protected from such a return. After the parts are removed, and the ileum distended with fluid, the latter passes through the valve, and reaches the small intestine. Still, the efficiency of such a test, applied when the parts are deprived of their natural supports, cannot be considered.

The size of the segments of the valve, as seen in the dried condition, varies considerably, and in rare instances the valve is incomplete, or even the absence of both has been recorded. But these are probably cases of failure through examining the parts under such adverse conditions.

Development of Cæcum and Appendix.—The cæcum first appears in the embryo, about the fifth week, as a small outgrowth of the wall of the primitive gut (mid-gut), at the point where it is to divide into small and large intestines. At this time the outgrowth is of the same diameter throughout, and is perpendicular to the intestines in diameter. About the eleventh week, while the large and small intestines are still of the same width, it has increased very considerably in length, being equal to about five times the diameter of the small intestine, and thus relatively as long as in the adult; but even at this early date the basal portion, for about one-fifth of its length, is quite as wide as the intestine, whilst the remaining four-fifths of the outgrowth, the future appendix, is only about one-half or one-third the diameter of the latter. From this it is seen that the distal portion of the outgrowth, which subsequently becomes the vermiform process, begins to lag behind even at this early period of its development.

The basal portion continues to expand with the gut; the distal part grows rapidly also in length, but otherwise enlarges very slowly, so that, towards the end of fœtal life, the cæcum has attained a conical shape, the wider end joining the ascending colon, the narrow end tapering gradually and passing into the vermiform process. This form, known as the infantile cæcum, is retained for some time after birth, or even may (in 2 or 3 per cent of cases) persist throughout life.

As early as the sixth or seventh month of fœtal life the wall of the terminal portion of the small intestine adheres to the inner side of the cæcum for some distance below the ileo-cæcal orifice. And this connexion, which is rendered more intimate by the passage of two folds of peritoneum, one on the front, the other on the back, between the two parts, profoundly modifies the subsequent growth of the cæcum, and determines very largely its adult form. For, while the cæcum begins to expand, the inner aspect is prevented, by its connexion with the terminal part of the ileum, from enlarging as freely as the rest of the wall; in consequence of this the latter part grows and expands much more rapidly, producing the lop-sided appearance already referred to, and soon comes to form the lowest part or fundus of the cæcum, and the greater part of the latter; whilst the original apex, with the vermiform appendix springing from it, anchored as it were, to the end of the ileum, is thrust to one side, and finally lies on the inner and posterior aspect of the cæcum, a little way below, and usually posterior to, the end of the ileum.

The position of the cæcum varies at different periods of fœtal life. About the eleventh or twelfth week it lies immediately beneath the liver, and to the left of the middle line; it gradually travels to the right, crossing the descending duodenum, and is found lying in the right iliac fossa, just beneath the liver, at the fourth month. From this it descends slowly towards its adult position, which it usually approaches towards the end of fœtal life, but it may not actually reach it until some time after birth. An imperfect descent gives rise to the lumbar position of the cæcum, or an excess in this direction to the pelvic position (referred to on p. 1076).

Types of Cæcum. Three chief types of cæcum may be distinguished—the *fœtal type*, which is conical in shape and nearly symmetrical, with the lower end gradually passing into the ver

the ileo-cæcal orifice. These are the relative positions of the two orifices, as seen from the interior of the cæcum; viewed from the exterior, the base of the appendix is within ¾ inch of the lower border of the ileum. This apparent difference is due to the fact that the ileum adheres to the inner side of the cæcum for a distance of nearly 1 inch before it opens into it.

Sometimes the orifice of the appendix has a crescentic fold or valve (valvula processus vermiformis) placed at its upper border; but it is probably of very little functional importance when present, for the aperture of the appendix is usually so small that its cavity is not likely to be invaded by the contents of the cæcum.

The vermiform process is completely covered by peritoneum, and has a considerable mesentery, the *meso-appendix* (mesenteriolum processus vermiformis), which extends to its tip as a rule, and connects the process to the under surface of that part of the mesentery proper which goes to the lower end of the ileum.

The appendix is relatively, to the rest of the large intestine, longer in the child at birth than in the adult, the proportion being about 1 to 16 or 17 at birth and 1 to 19 or 20 in the adult. (The difference is certainly not as great as stated by Ribbert, who makes the proportion 1 to 10 at birth and 1 to 20 in the adult.) The process attains its greatest length and diameter during adult and middle age, and atrophies slowly after that time. It is said to be slightly longer in the male than in the female.

Total occlusion of its cavity is found in 3 or 4 per cent of bodies; it is then converted into a fibrous cord. Partial occlusion is present in 25 per cent of all cases, and in more than 50 per cent of those over 60 years old, whilst it is unknown in the child. This frequency of occlusion, the physiological atrophy which takes place after middle life, the great variations in length, and other signs of instability, have been considered to point to the retrogressive character of the appendix.

A vermiform process is found only in man, the higher apes, and the wombat, although in certain rodents a somewhat similar arrangement exists. In carnivorous animals the cæcum is very slightly developed; in herbivorous animals (with a simple stomach) it is, as a rule, extremely large. It has been suggested that the vermiform process in man is the degenerated remains of the herbivorous cæcum, which has been replaced by the carnivorous form. Another and perhaps more probable view regards the appendix as a lymphoid organ, having the same functions as Peyer's patches, and like these undergoing degeneration after middle life (Berry).

In the fœtus and child, as well as in the adult with the infantile type of cæcum, the appendix springs from the true apex, not from the inner and posterior aspect.

Foreign bodies, although reputed to find their way very easily into the appendix, are rarely found there after death. On the other hand, concretions or calculi, formed of mucus, fæces, and various salts, are often present (Berry).

Structure (Fig. 767).—The **serous coat** is complete, and forms a perfect investment for the process. The **muscular coat**, unlike that of the rest of the large intestine, has a

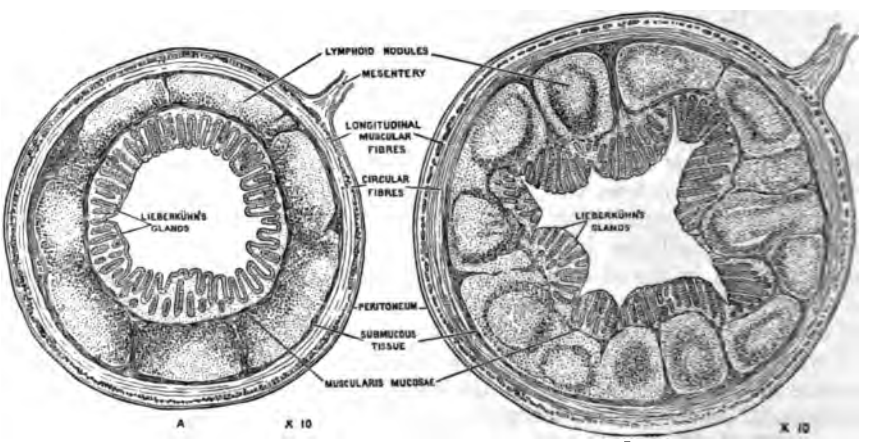


FIG. 767.—STRUCTURE OF THE VERMIFORM APPENDIX.

A. From a child two years old. B. From a male, age 56.

It will be observed that the submucosa is almost entirely occupied by lymphoid nodules and patches. The muscularis mucosæ is very faint, and lies quite close to the bases of Lieberkühn's glands. The longitudinal layer of muscular fibres forms a continuous sheet.

continuous and stout layer of longitudinal fibres, which passes at the root of the process into the three taeniæ coli (Fig. 768). The layer of circular fibres is well developed. The **submucosa** is almost entirely occupied by large masses of lymphoid tissue surrounded by

towards the cæcum, along the *lower* border of the terminal part of the ileum, its p will generally run into a fossa situated in the angle between the ileum and cæcum (I 768, A), which is known as the ileo-cæcal fossa. The fold which bounds the fossa in fr is the ileo-cæcal fold (the "bloodless fold of Treves"). It passes from the ileum to front of the meso-appendix, which latter forms the posterior wall of the fossa.

Ileo-colic Fold and Fossa.—Similarly, if the finger be run out along the *upper* bor of the ileum towards the cæcum, it will usually lodge in a smaller fossa, the ileo-colic, wl is bounded in front by a small peritoneal process, the ileo-colic fold (Fig. 768, A), contai the anterior cæcal artery.

THE COLON.

Ascending Colon (colon ascendens).—This section of the great gut be about the level of the intertubercular plane, opposite the ileo-cæcal orifice, wl it is continuous with the cæcum. From this it runs upwards and somewhat ba wards, with a slight concavity to the left, until it reaches the under surface of liver, where it bends forwards and to the left, and passes into the hepatic flex (Fig. 769). In its course it lies in the angle between the quadratus lumbor behind, and the more prominent psoas internally (Fig. 742).

It is situated chiefly in the right lumbar region, but it extends slightly i the hypochondrium above; and, although it usually begins about the level of intertubercular line, still with a low position of the cæcum it will extend furt down, and may occupy a considerable part of the iliac region.

Its *length* is about 8 inches (20 cm.), and it is wider and more prominent th the descending colon. It generally presents several minor curves or flexures; it often has the appearance of being pushed into a space which is too short accommodate it.

Relations.—*In front*, it is usually in contact with the abdominal wall, but small intestine frequently intervenes, particularly above (Fig. 739). To its *in side* lie the coils of the small bowel and the psoas; to the *outer side* is the late wall of the abdomen. Its *posterior surface*, which is free from peritoneum a rule (Fig. 742), is connected by areolar tissue to the iliacus muscle as far up the crest of the ilium, to the quadratus lumborum above this, and finally to lower and outer part of the right kidney.

In the great majority of cases only the two sides and the anterior surface covered by peritoneum, the posterior surface being destitute of a serous coat (I 742). In a small proportion of bodies, however, the ascending colon is provi with a complete peritoneal coat and a mesentery, but this latter is so short tha admits of but a slight amount of movement in the gut.

Like the cæcum, the ascending colon is frequently found distended with gas or fæces a death, hence in part its large size and prominence as compared with the descending colon, wl is generally empty.

Hepatic Flexure (flexura coli dextra).—The hepatic flexure is the bent pi of the large intestine between the end of the ascending colon and the beginn of the transverse colon (Figs. 758 and 769).

When the ascending colon, lying on the front of the kidney, reaches the un surface of the liver, it bends—usually acutely, sometimes obtusely—forwards to the left, and on reaching the front of the descending duodenum, passes into transverse colon.

The flexure is placed between the descending duodenum internally and lower thin margin of the liver, or the lateral abdominal wall, externally; above corresponds to the colic impression on the liver, and behind it rests on the kidn Its peritoneal relations are similar to those of the ascending colon.

Transverse Colon (colon transversum).—This is the long and arched portion the large intestine which lies between the hepatic and splenic flexures. It beg where the colon crosses the descending duodenum at the end of the hepatic flex (Fig. 769). From this it runs transversely to the left, and for the first inches is comparatively fixed, being united to the front of the descending d denum and the head of the pancreas either by a very short mesentery or by are tissue. Immediately beyond this a long mesentery is developed, which allows

Its *length* is usually from 4 to 6 inches (10 to 15 cm.), and its *width*, which is less than that of the ascending colon, about 1½ inches (37 mm.).

Relations.—The descending colon first lies in contact with the outer aspect of the left kidney; below this it is placed, like the colon of the opposite side, in the angle between the psoas and quadratus lumborum muscles. *Behind*, it rests upon the lower part of the diaphragm above, and on the quadratus lumborum below. *In front* (and somewhat to the outer side also, except when the bowel is distended) are placed numerous coils of small intestine, which hide the colon completely from

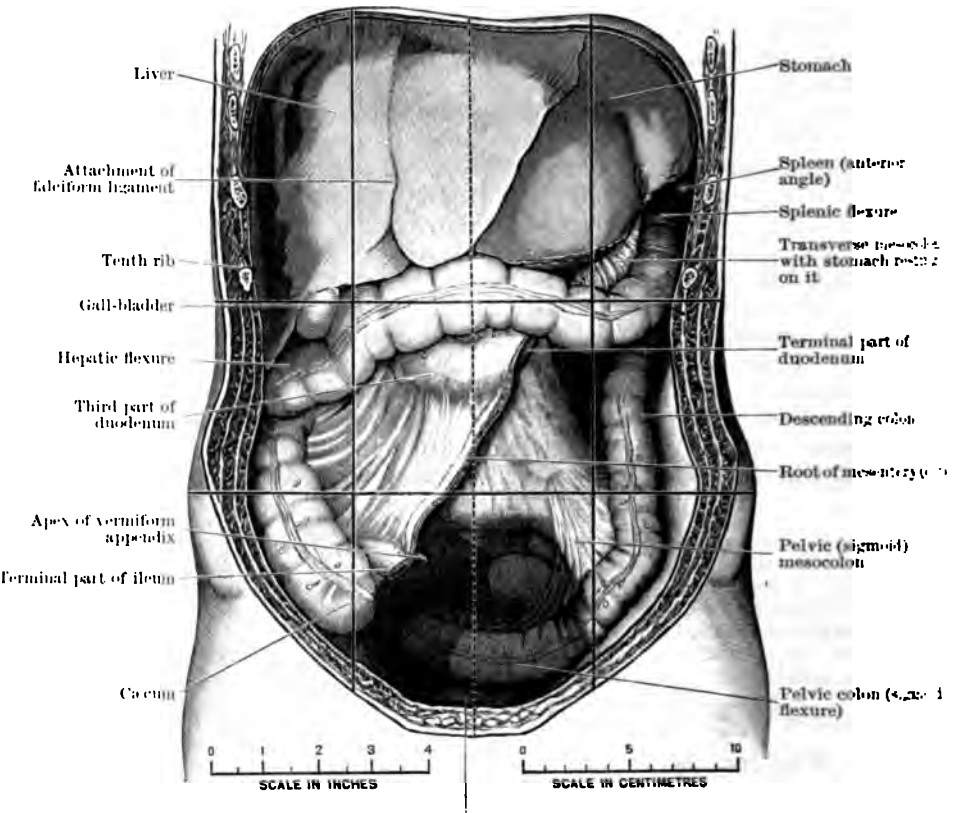


FIG. 769. THE ABDOMINAL VISCERA AFTER THE REMOVAL OF THE JEJUNUM AND ILEUM (from a photograph of the same body as depicted in Fig. 739). The transverse colon is much more regular than usual. Both the liver and cæcum extend lower down than normal. The subdivisions of the abdominal cavity are indicated by dark lines.

view, and compress it against the posterior abdominal wall. To its *inner side* lies the lower part of the kidney above, the psoas below.

In the great majority of bodies only the front and sides of the descending colon are covered by peritoneum (Fig. 779); the posterior surface, being destitute of a serous coat, is connected to the posterior wall of the abdomen by areolar tissue. In a small proportion of cases, on the other hand, the serous coat is complete, and the colon is furnished with a short mesentery.

Up to the fourth or fifth month of fœtal life the descending colon has a complete investment of peritoneum and a long mesentery. After the fifth month the mesentery adheres to, and soon blends with, the parietal peritoneum on the posterior abdominal wall, and is completely lost as a rule. The persistence of this mesentery, in a greater or less degree, explains the occasional presence of a descending mesocolon in the adult.

Sigmoid Flexure and Rectum.—It was formerly customary to divide the remaining portion of the large intestine into sigmoid flexure and rectum. The former was said to begin at the crest of the ilium, to lie in the iliac fossa, and to end at the brim of the pelvis. Or, in later years, the "sigmoid colon" was described as "that part of the colon which is attached to the left iliac fossa, from the iliac crest to the brim of the true pelvis" (Symington). Its upper part was said to be covered by peritoneum on the anterior and lateral surfaces only, its lower part

on its anterior and two lateral surfaces. Occasionally (10 per cent of cases) it is completely covered, has a short mesentery (1 inch, 2 to 3 cm.), and is slightly movable

In its course it passes down over the iliac fossa near its middle, generally forming a curve with its concavity directed inwards and upwards, and having reached a point 1½ or 2 inches (4 to 5 cm.) above Poupart's ligament, it turns inwards across the psoas towards the pelvic cavity. Occasionally the iliac colon occupies a lower position than usual, and runs along the deep surface of Poupart's ligament, immediately behind the anterior abdominal wall.

Pelvic Colon (colon pelvinum).—This corresponds to the portion of the "sigmoid flexure" which lies in the pelvis, together with the so-called "first part of the rectum." The pelvic colon is a large coil of intestine, which begins at the inner border of the left psoas muscle, where it is continuous with the iliac colon, and ends at the level of the third sacral vertebra by passing into the rectum proper. Between these two points it has a well-developed mesentery, and forms a large and variously-shaped coil, which usually lies in the cavity of the pelvis (93 per cent).

Whilst the loop of the pelvic colon is very irregular in form, the following may be given as perhaps its most common arrangement. Beginning at the inner margin of the left psoas, it first plunges over the brim into the pelvis, and crosses this cavity from left to right; it next bends backwards and then returns along the posterior wall of the pelvis towards the middle line, where it turns down and passes into the rectum (Figs. 769 and 770).

Relations.—In its passage into the pelvis it crosses the external iliac vessels; in running from left to right across the cavity, it rests on the bladder or uterus, according to the sex; whilst above it lie the coils of the small intestine.

It is completely covered by peritoneum, and is furnished with an extensive mesentery—the pelvic mesocolon—which permits of considerable movement.

Sometimes, when longer than usual (Fig. 770), the pelvic colon, in returning from the right side of the pelvis, crosses the middle line, going even as far as the left wall, and then turns back a second time towards the middle of the sacrum, where it joins the rectum at the usual level, thus making an S-shaped curve within the pelvis. On the other hand, when the loop is short (a not infrequent occurrence), all its curves are abridged, and it fails to pass over to the right side, but runs more or less directly backwards after entering the pelvis.

From what has been said it will be seen that the loop of the pelvic colon is subject to numerous and considerable variations, which are chiefly dependent upon its length and that of its mesentery, and also upon the state of emptiness or distension of itself and of the other pelvic viscera. When the intestine is long the loop is more complex; when short, more simple. When the bladder and rectum are distended, or when the pelvic colon itself is much distended, it is unable to find accommodation in the true pelvis, and consequently it passes up into the abdominal cavity, almost any part of the lower half of which it may occupy. But, as already stated, in the great majority of cases (92 per cent, according to Jonnesco) it is found after death lying entirely within the pelvic cavity.

In *length*, the pelvic colon generally measures about 16 or 17 inches (40 to 42·5 cm.), but it may be as short as 5 inches (12 cm.), or as long as 35 inches (84 cm.).

The **pelvic mesocolon**, which corresponds to both the sigmoid mesocolon and the mesorectum, is a fan-shaped fold, short at each extremity, and long in its middle portion (Figs. 769 and 770). Its root is attached along an inverted V-shaped line, one limb of which runs up close to the inner border of the left psoas, as high as the bifurcation of the common iliac artery (or often higher); here it bends at an acute angle, and the second limb descends over the sacral promontory and along the front of the sacrum to the middle of its third piece, where the mesentery ceases, and the pelvic colon passes into the rectum. When the pelvic colon ascends into the abdominal cavity this mesentery is doubled up on itself, the side which was naturally posterior becoming anterior.

Intersigmoid Fossa (recessus intersigmoideus).—When the pelvic colon with its mesentery is raised upwards, a small orifice will usually be found beneath the mesentery, corresponding to the apex of the V-shaped attachment of its root to the posterior abdominal wall. This orifice leads into a fossa which is directed upwards, and will often admit the last joint of the little finger. It is known as the *intersigmoid fossa*, and is due to the imperfect blending of the mesentery of the descending colon of the fœtus with the parietal peritoneum. In the fœtus this mesentery is well developed, and extends from the region of the vertebral column out towards the descending colon. After a time it begins to unite with the underlying parietal peritoneum; but in the region of the intersigmoid fossa the union is rarely perfect, hence the presence of the fossa.

In the **child at birth** only the terminal part of the pelvic colon lies in the pelvis. This is chiefly owing to the small size of the pelvic cavity in the infant. Beginning at the end of the iliac colon, the pelvic colon generally arches upwards and to the right across the

sacculations, too, which are so characteristic of the large intestine, cannot properly be said to be present.

The rectum begins at the termination of the pelvic mesocolon, namely, about the level of the third sacral vertebra, and ends, where the bowel pierces the pelvic floor, opposite the lower and back part of the prostate in the male, or at a point 1½ inches (3·7 cm.) in front of, but at a lower level than, the tip of the coccyx in both sexes. It first descends along the front of the sacrum and coccyx, following the curve of these bones; beyond the coccyx, it rests, for about 1½ inches (3·7 cm.), on the back part of the pelvic floor, here formed by the union of the two levatores ani; and finally, having reached the lower part of the prostate, it bends rather abruptly

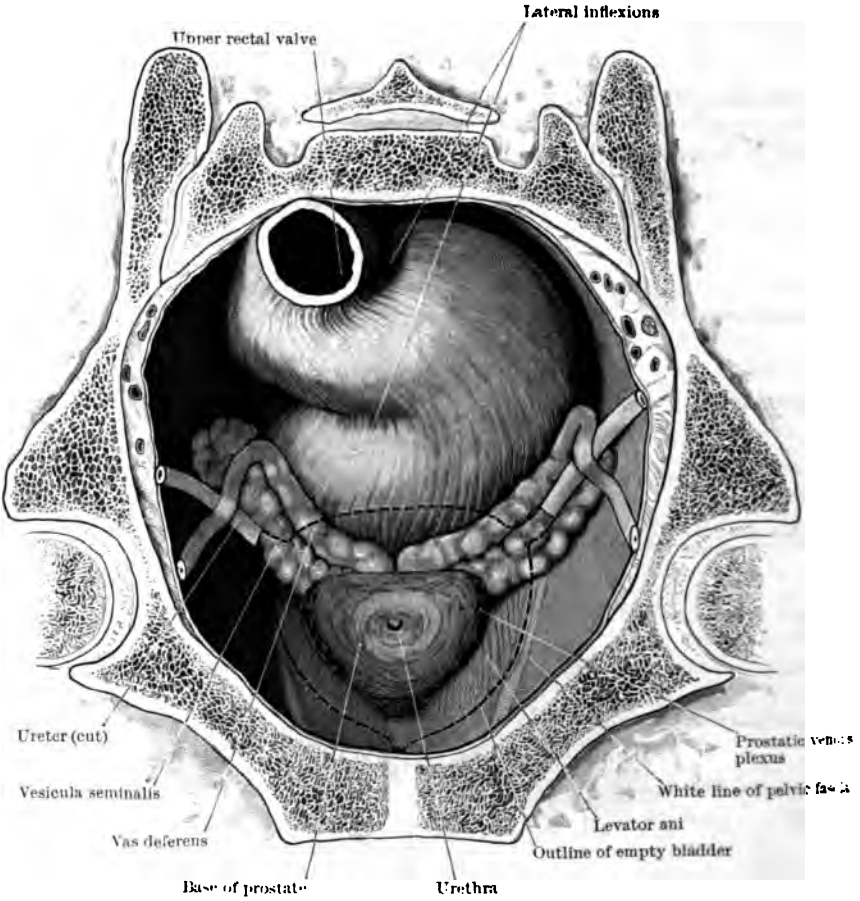


FIG. 772.—DISTENDED RECTUM IN SITU.

From a formalin-hardened male body, age 56. The peritoneum and extra-peritoneal tissue have been removed after sawing the pelvis along a plane passing through the upper part of the symphysis pubis in front and the lower part of the second sacral vertebra behind. The bladder, which was empty and contracted, has also been removed, but its form is shown by a dotted line. The rectum was very much distended and almost completely occupied the pararectal fossæ.

backwards and downwards, and, piercing the pelvic floor, passes into the anal canal (Fig. 774).

Its general direction is downwards, but this varies at its two extremities, being downwards and backwards above, downwards and strongly forwards below.

Curvatures.—The rectum is far from straight, notwithstanding its name, which describes its condition fairly accurately in most animals, but not in man, in whom it is curved in both the antero-posterior and the transverse planes. Viewed *from the side*, it forms a gentle curve, with the convexity backwards, which extends from the beginning of the rectum to the back of the prostate, and fits into the hollow of the sacrum and coccyx. At the back of the prostate a second curve is formed where the rectum joins the anal canal; this

the front only; so that the greater part of the rectum
pelvic peritoneum, as it were, and is capable of expandin
being in any way hampered by its partial peritoneal coat.

From the front of the rectum the peritoneum is carri
the bladder in the male, forming the floor of the **recto-ve**
(excavatio recto-vesicalis, Fig. 823). In the female it
of the posterior wall of the vagina, forming the floor
(excavatio recto-uterina Douglasi, Fig. 818). Whilst at
it passes from the front of the rectum on to the posterior
the bottom of a large fossa, seen at the sides of the
is empty, and known as the **pararectal fossa.** With
encroached upon by the enlarging bowel, and soon is obli

The level at which the reflection of the peritoneum ta
the rectum is of considerable practical importance in co
this region. As a general rule this reflection, that is, the

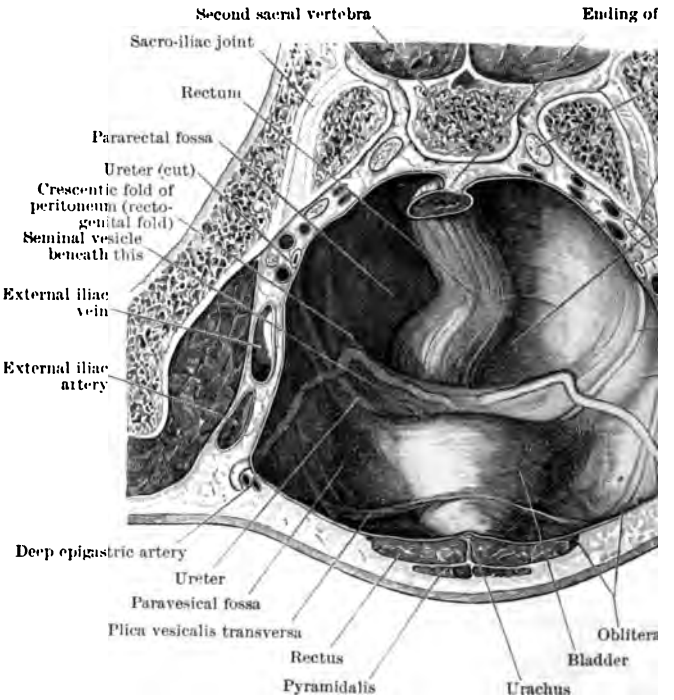


FIG. 773.—THE PERITONEUM OF THE PELVIC C

The pelvis was sawn across obliquely in a thin male subject aged 60. Owin
pelvic organs are visible through the peritoneum, though not quite
The bladder and rectum are both empty and contracted; the para
result, are very well marked.

pouch, is placed at a distance of 1 inch (2·5 cm.) above t
about 3 inches above the anus, but the level is subject
being as a rule relatively much higher in well-developed
whilst it is usually lower in emaciated bodies, owing to the
forming the pelvic floor.

The bottom of the recto-vesical fossa may reach down in an e
(2·5 cm.) of the anus, whilst it is not at all rare to find it within 2
on the other hand, it may be considerably higher than normal, so
tance of 4 or 4½ inches (10·0 to 11·2 cm.) from the anus. It should
generally believed to be somewhat raised by distension of the rec
by emptying these viscera, although this is denied by Jonnesco.

In the child at birth, the peritoneum extends down to the base
and is thus lower in relation to the bladder; but this may be par
position of this organ in the child.

As a rule it will be found that 2 inches (5·0 cm.) of the front of the rectum, exclusive of the anal canal, are entirely free from peritoneum, and it is this and the adjacent portion of the bowel which, being free from the restraining influence of the peritoneum, is most distensible, and is known as the **rectal ampulla.** Including the anal canal, 3½ inches (8·7 cm.) of the rectum, *measured along the front of the tube*, have no serous covering. On the other hand, the back is free from peritoneum for 5 or 6 inches (12·5 to 15·0 cm.)—or sometimes much more—above the anus.

It is also of interest to notice that the connexion of the peritoneum to the rectum varies in its character at different parts:—Above and in front it is closely adherent, and can be removed only with the greatest difficulty; at the sides and below the connexion is much looser. As a result, the peritoneum can be stripped off the rectum in its lower third or half without much difficulty, whilst in its upper portion this is not the case—an arrangement which admits of the free expansion of the rectal ampulla.

General Relations of the Rectum (Figs. 771 and 772).—*Behind*, the rectum rests on the front of the sacrum and coccyx, and below these upon the posterior part of the pelvic floor—here formed by the meeting of the two levatores ani in the ano-coccygeal raphe. When much distended it also comes into relation on each side with the lower part of the pyriformis and the sacral plexus. The bowel is separated from these structures by a very considerable amount of connective tissue, arranged (apparently in several layers) around the tube. In this tissue the two chief branches of the superior hæmorrhoidal vessels lie behind the upper part of the bowel, but lower down they are placed in relation to its sides.

At its sides above are the pararectal fossæ and their contents (pelvic colon, or ileum); below this the rectum is in contact with the coccygei and levatores ani muscles, which run backwards to the coccyx on each side of the bowel. The branches of the superior hæmorrhoidal vessels are also found running down on its muscular coat, as far as the middle of the rectum, where they pierce the wall of the bowel.

In front, the rectum is separated from the bladder, to within an inch of the prostate, by the recto-vesical pouch of peritoneum, which usually contains some coils of small intestine. Below the reflection of the peritoneum the front of the bowel is in contact with the base of the bladder, the vasa deferentia, vesiculæ seminales, and the back of the prostate gland (Fig. 772), from all of which it is separated by the recto-vesical layer of the pelvic fascia. *In the female* (Fig. 777) the rectum is separated from the posterior surface of the uterus and the upper end of the vagina by the pouch of Douglas and the intestine which it usually contains. Below the peritoneal reflection it is in direct contact with the posterior vaginal wall, to which it is connected loosely above, but more closely below.

The lower portions of the rectum and bladder in the male are separated by the recto-vesical fascia only, over a narrow triangular area which measures about an inch (2·5 cm.) in vertical height. The base of this triangle corresponds to the reflection of the peritoneum from one organ to the other, and the apex to the base of the prostate, whilst the sides are formed by the vasa deferentia, which lie very close to one another except above, near the base of the triangle, where they diverge rather abruptly (Fig. 772). Through this triangle the operation of tapping the bladder from the rectum is performed.

The vesiculæ seminales, unless when of a small size, slope outwards and backwards round the front and sides of the distended rectum (Fig. 772), which they thus embrace, as it were, within their grasp.

The ureters, as they run inwards towards the base of the bladder, lie close in front of the vasa deferentia, and are not far separated from the distended rectum (see Fig. 772).

The portion of the rectum below the level of the peritoneal reflection is surrounded by the **rectal fascia**, a layer of connective tissue which is derived from the visceral layer of the pelvic fascia.

In the **child** the rectum, or at least its upper part, is relatively larger, and it pursues a much straighter course than in the adult. As pointed out above, its peritoneal covering likewise descends lower at birth, and reaches as far as the base of the prostate.

THE ANAL CANAL

Anal Canal (pars analis recti—third part of the rectum of the old descriptions).—In order to reach the exterior, it is necessary for the lower end of the

bowel to pierce the floor of the pelvis. This it does by pa
interval left between the mesial borders of the levatore
As it passes between them, the two muscles pinch in the
tion of its lateral walls obliterate its cavity, reducing it tc
This passage, through which the rectum communicates
"anal canal" (Symington).

Formerly this terminal portion of the tube was described as the
and, like the rest of that bowel, it was supposed to form a reser
fæces. Symington pointed out that this was not the case. He sl
of the same nature as the rest of the rectum, but that it was a mer
bowel discharged its contents, the relation between the two being
between the urethra and the bladder in the female. It is proba
rectum is distended, the upper part of the anal canal is often, if
wedge-shaped lower end of the contained fæcal mass, whilst the
supported by the rectal valves and the levatores ani.

The anal canal *begins* where the rectum proper ter
level of the levatores ani muscles, opposite the lowe
When the distended rectum is cut across near its lower e
and the cavity examined from the interior, a distinct p
inner border of the levator ani (pubo-rectalis, or sphincter
each side, indicating the upper limit of the canal. It is s
also be felt during life by the finger introduced into the
the anal canal *ends* at the anus, or anal orifice, by opening

Its *length* is usually from 1 to 1½ inches (2·5 to 3·7
the bowel is empty, and less when it is distended. Its
when closed varies between ½ and ¾ inch (12 to 19 mm.).

The *direction* of the anal canal, as already pointed out
wards, often forming an angle of nearly 45° with the h
usually somewhat nearer to the vertical.

Relations.—It is *surrounded* by both the external
and above also by the borders of the levatores ani, t
muscular cylinder around it (Fig. 771). *On each sid*
rectal fossa with its contained fat, which allows of the
during the passage of fæces. *Behind* is placed a mass
muscular tissue, known as the **ano-coccygeal body** (Symi
between it and the coccyx. Finally, *in front*, it lies clos
urethra and the base of the triangular ligament in the
urethra can be easily felt by the finger introduced into th
in thin bodies. In the female it is separated from the va
mass of fatty and muscular tissue known as the "perineal

Structure of the Rectum and Anal Canal.—The wa
of four coats, viz.:—1. The **outer coat**, formed in part of perit
and, where the peritoneum is absent, of connective tissue whi
several layers. In this connective tissue the hæmorrhoidal v
the wall of the tube. In it also, at the back and sides of the r
a number of rectal lymphatic glands.

2. The **muscular coat**, which is much thicker than in any
tine, is composed of two stout layers of unstriped muscle—an
inner circular—like that of the intestine generally. The *lo*
present all round, are chiefly accumulated on the front and bac
where they form two broad bands; at the sides they are re
deepest fibres of which are folded in and take part in the form

Where the rectum pierces the floor of the pelvis, the outer layer
to the deeper portion of the levator ani, partly by tendinous fil
change of muscular fibres, between the levatores and the muscul
interchange of fibres, however, is denied by Peter Thompson and
tudinal fibres pass between the external and internal sphincter m
to join the skin around the anus. The folding of the rectum from
is brought about and maintained by the shortness of the fibres of th
of the bowel.

In saggital sections of the pelvis near the mesial plane there ca
band of red, longitudinally-arranged, muscular fibres, which descend

of the coccyx to blend with the longitudinal fibres on the back of the rectum. This band is the **recto-coccygeus muscle.** It is composed of striped fibres above, but becomes unstriped below.

Some unstriped muscular fibres which are found descending in the subcutaneous tissue of the lower part of the anal canal, to join the skin around the anus, have been described by Ellis as the **corrugator cutis ani.** According to Roux, they are some of the longitudinal fibres of the rectum which have passed through the internal sphincter to the submucous tissue, and then descended to the skin.

The *circular fibres* form along the whole length of the tube a continuous layer, which is doubled inwards to assist in the formation of each rectal valve, and is thickened below to form the internal sphincter of the anus. The **internal sphincter** (sphincter ani internus), as just pointed out, is formed by a great, and rather sudden, increase of the circular muscular fibres, which begins at the upper end of the anal canal. It surrounds the canal for about an inch (2·5 to 3·0 cm.), and terminates ¼ or ⅓ inch (6 or 7 mm.) above its lower aperture (Fig. 775).

3. The **submucous coat** is composed of loose areolar tissue, which allows of a free movement of the mucous layer on the muscular coat, and which also admits, under certain abnormal conditions, of a prolapse of the mucous membrane through the anal orifice. The hæmorrhoidal plexus of veins is contained in this layer.

4. The **mucous coat** must be considered separately in the rectum and anal canal. That of the rectum is redder in colour than the mucous membrane of the colon, as a result of its greater vascularity. It is also thicker, and owing to the looseness of the underlying submucosa, is thrown into numerous irregular rugæ when the rectum is empty; these disappear when the bowel is distended, and there then become evident three (sometimes more, sometimes less) crescentic folds, which are much less noticeable in the empty state, and which have been already referred to as the rectal valves. Lymphoid nodules and glands of Lieberkühn are present; but these latter are not so numerous as in the colon, although their calibre is greater.

The *mucous membrane of the anal canal* presents in its upper half a number of vertical ridges known as the *columns of Morgagni*; between the lower ends of these are found a series of small semilunar folds which are disposed horizontally around the passage and are called the *anal valves* (Fig. 775). Above the level of the anal valves the canal is lined by a modified mucous membrane resembling that of the rectum; the portion below the valves (*i.e.* the lower 12 to 16 mm. of the canal) is covered by modified skin, continuous with that around the anus.

The mucous membrane of the rectum presents a characteristic punctated appearance, which is due to the presence of a considerable number of rounded depressions, such as might be made by firmly pressing a finely-pointed pencil against the membrane. These *rectal pits*, of which we can find no previous description, are tubular in form, and have an accumulation of lymphoid tissue at the bottom of each; the whole appearance being such as might be produced if a small solitary gland were drawn down from the surface into the intestinal wall.

FIG. 774.—DIAGRAM OF RECTUM, showing Houston's valves in interior.

The diagram is a reduced tracing of Fig. 772. After removal of the prostate, etc., an aperture was made in the anterior wall of the rectum, through which two rectal valves can be seen corresponding to lateral inflections on the exterior. The levator ani is also shown, and its relation to the beginning of the anal canal is suggested.

Rectal Valves, or **Valves of Houston** (plicæ transversales recti).—These, sometimes termed the valves of Kohlrausch, are crescentic shelf-like folds which project into the cavity of the rectum on its lateral aspects (Fig. 774). They are composed of an infolding of the mucous, submucous, and greater part of the muscular coats, and their form is preserved by the relative shortness of the anterior and posterior bands of longitudinal muscular fibres. They are produced, as pointed out above, by the projection, into the interior of the bowel, of the creases on the exterior which result from the lateral inflections of the rectum. In the majority of cases three are present (there may be four, five, or, it is said, even more), but often the lowest of the three is small or absent; or all the valves may be ill-developed and indistinct. When mesial sections of the *empty* rectum are

examined, the valves are not easily seen, as they then project but slig and are almost completely hidden amongst the numerous rugæ of the mu coat. They are most evident in a distended rectum which has been hard *in situ*; they can also be seen during life, *per anum*, with the aid of a r speculum.

As a rule two valves are found on the left and one on the right side; this lat generally the largest, and is situated a little above the level of the peritoneal reflec viz. 3 or 3½ inches (7·5 to 8·7 cm.) above the anus; the other two valves are found a 1 to 1¼ inches (2·5 t cm.) higher up and l down respectively. They are distinctly marked i fœtus (see Fig. 775), and to constitute an essential of the human rectum, use being to support contents of the rectum, w they break up into segm each supported by a (see p. 1089). They are to interfere sometimes the introduction of an e tube.

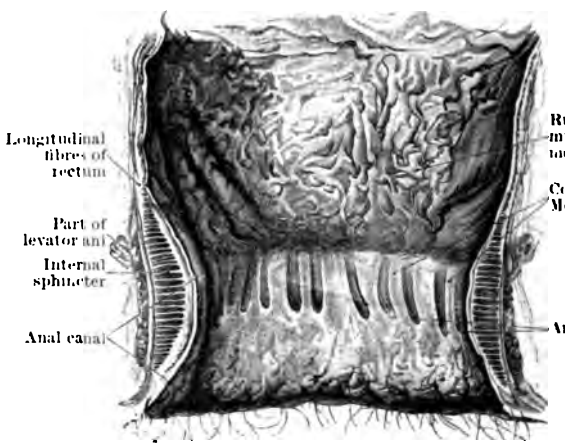


FIG. 775.—THE INTERIOR OF THE ANAL CANAL AND LOWER PART OF RECTUM,

Showing the columns of Morgagni and the anal valves between their lower ends. The columns were more numerous in this specimen than usual.

The rectum in ani generally is free from lateral inflections desc above, and the condition f in man is evidently an ad tion to the erect attitude. quadrupeds the contents o rectum do not press undu the sphincter, owing to horizontal position of the body. With the assumption of the erect attitude, on the other h the whole weight of the contents would be thrown on the sphincters, were it not for the la foldings and the resulting shelves.

Columns of Morgagni (columnæ recti Morgagni).—The mucous membran the anal canal presents, in its upper, and part of its middle thirds, a number (10) of *permanent* vertical folds, separated by grooves, and known as the column Morgagni (Fig. 775). They are usually ⅓ to ½ inch (8 to 12 mm.) in length, ¼ inch (3 to 6 mm.) in width, and they extend down to within ½ or ⅝ inch (1 7 mm.) of the anal aperture. They are formed by infoldings of the mu membrane, containing in their interior some unstriped muscle derived from the muscularis mucosæ, and also, as a rule, an artery and a vein.

Very often the contained vein presents an enlargement, or a knob-like tortuous plexus in the lower part of the column; below this the plexus is continued down beneath the mucous membrane of the lower zone of the anal canal into the anal veins (see p. 1095). This portion has accordingly been described as the hæ rhoidal zone of the anal canal. Sometimes the columns of Morgagni are very indisti occasionally no trace of them can be found, although in the fœtus (Fig. 776) they *usually* well marked.

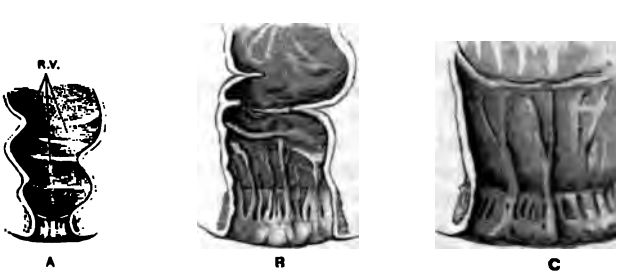


FIG. 776.—THE ANAL CANAL AND LOWER PART OF RECTUM IN T FŒTUS.

A, aged 4 to 5 months; B, 6 months; and C, 9 months. In each the canal is distinctly marked off from the rectum proper; the colum Morgagni and the rectal valves are distinct. R.V, Rectal valves.

Anal Valves (of Morgagni).—If a probe be passed downwards along the groove which separates two adjacent columns of Morgagni (Fig. 755), its point will usually catch in a small crescentic fold which joins the lower ends of the two columns. These little folds, which resemble in miniature the segments of the semilunar valves of the heart, are the anal valves. They project inwards and upwards, and behind each is found a little pocket-like **sinus** (sinus rectalis).

These valves were first described by Morgagni. Recently the view has been advanced by Ball that they are the remains of the embryonic cloacal or anal membrane; and he explains the production of "painful fissure of the anus" by the tearing down of one of them during defæcation by hardened masses of fæces.

The epidermis is continued in a thin and modified form from the exterior up along the anal canal as far as the margins of the anal valves; and the view is pretty generally held that only this lower portion of the anal passage is formed from the proctodæum in the embryo. The junction of the skin with the mucous membrane is indicated by a fine wavy line ("white line" of Hilton—ano-cutaneous line of Hermann) which runs around the bowel at the level of the valves. The mucous membrane of the region immediately above the anal valves is of a more or less transitional nature; glands are absent from it, and over the columns of Morgagni it is said to be covered with stratified epithelium, the superficial cells of which are flattened, whilst in the grooves between the columns the epithelium is columnar. In the upper zone of the anal canal the mucous membrane gradually approaches to the rectal type, but the Lieberkühn's glands and lymphoid nodules are few and scattered.

Anus or Anal Orifice.—At the inferior aperture of the anal canal, the modified skin of its lower zone passes into the ordinary skin. A little way outside the orifice, hairs, sebaceous glands, and large modified sweat-glands (glandulæ circumanales) appear.

Action of the Sphincters.—In connexion with the anal canal are found three muscles—namely, the paired levatores ani, the external sphincter, and the internal sphincter—the action of which may be briefly referred to here.

Levator Ani.—The fibres of the levator which arise from the pubis (pubo-coccygeus or sphincter recti portion) pass backwards on each side of the beginning of the anal canal, and, in great part, meet behind the passage. These two muscular bands—which are but a little distance apart at their origin, and are actually united behind the bowel—are closely approximated during the contraction of the muscles, like the limbs of a clamp, and, pressing on the sides of the anal canal, they assist in closing the upper part of that passage, whilst at the same time drawing it slightly towards the pubes. There is little doubt that the levator ani in this way acts as one of the chief sphincters of the bowel; and it should be noticed that it is placed where its action would be most effective, namely, opposite the point at which the rectum is narrowed or "pinched in" to form the anal canal. In addition to its sphincter action the muscle supports the expanded bowel immediately above the anal canal, and in this way sustains the weight of the fæces when the rectum is distended. It is probably relaxed during defæcation, except perhaps at the completion of the act. The muscle is under the control of the will.

The **external sphincter** forms a muscular cylinder around the lower two-thirds of the anal canal, with (except in the case of some of its inner fibres) an anterior and a posterior attachment. When the muscle contracts, its fibres are tightly stretched between its two attachments, and the space between them is reduced to a narrow antero-posterior slit. By this action the anal canal is flattened from side to side and closed, so that, whilst the levator ani is the sphincter of the upper aperture of the anal canal, the external sphincter closes its lower and greater part. It is under the control of the will, but under ordinary circumstances it is in a state of tonic contraction.

The **internal sphincter** is merely a thickening of the circular muscular coat at the lower end of the bowel. It is continuous with the circular fibres of the gut, not only in structure, but probably also in action, its chief use being to empty the anal canal completely, after the passage of each fæcal mass. Owing to the fact that the canal is an antero-posterior slit, not a circular orifice, and that the internal sphincter forms a muscular ring around it, acting alone, it is scarcely competent to keep the sides of the canal in apposition, and probably it acts rather as a detrusor than a true sphincter of the anal passage.

Vessels.—The rectum and anal canal receive their blood supply from three chief sources, namely, the three hæmorrhoidal arteries; to these another less important, though constant, source may be added—the middle sacral artery.

1. The **superior hæmorrhoidal**, the principal artery of the rectum, is the prolongation of the inferior mesenteric trunk (Fig. 634, p. 840). At first it descends in the root of the pelvic mesocolon until the rectum is reached. Here it divides into two chief branches which run downwards and forwards around the sides of the rectum—the right, usually the larger, lying more behind, the left more to the front, and the two, as it were, embracing the bowel between them (Fig. 771). From these two arteries come off secondary branches (about five to eight in all), which pierce the muscular coat about the middle of the rectum, and then descend in the submucosa as a series of longitudinally-running "terminal branches" as far as the anal valves, above the level of which one is usually found beneath each column of Morgagni. These terminal branches give off numerous twigs in their course, which form a hæmorrhoidal plexus in the submucosa by

anastomosing with one another, and also with branches of the middle, and, in the lower part o the bowel, of the inferior hæmorrhoidal artery.

2. The **middle hæmorrhoidal arteries**, two in number—one on each side—are usuall branches of the anterior division of the internal iliacs; they run down on the side wall the lower part of the rectum, and after giving off branches to the bladder, seminal vesic prostate (or vagina, according to the sex), each breaks up into four or five small branches, sor of which supply the muscular wall of the lower part of the rectum, whilst the others pierce t muscular coat near the upper end of the anal canal, and join in the submucosa with the plexu formed by the superior hæmorrhoidal artery already described.

3. The **inferior hæmorrhoidal arteries**, generally two or three in number on each side, ari at variable levels from the internal pudic arteries, whilst these latter are situated on the ou side of the ischio-rectal fossæ. They pass inwards and downwards through the fat in t fossæ, and, near the wall of the anal canal, break up into branches, some of which are distr buted to the levatores ani and the sphincters, whilst others pierce the sphincters and break up the submucosa into a close network which supplies the lower part of the anal canal, and co municates above with the plexus formed by the superior and middle hæmorrhoidal arteri The inferior hæmorrhoidal artery is distributed chiefly on the back, and the middle hæmorrhoid chiefly on the front of the lower part of the bowel.

4. One or more small branches of the **middle sacral artery** reach the back of the rectu where they are distributed chiefly, if not solely, to the muscular coat.

Anastomosis of the Hæmorrhoidal Arteries.—The superior and middle hæmorrhoidal arteri anastomose freely, not only in the hæmorrhoidal plexus of the submucosa, but also, as a rule, a few large branches on the exterior of the bowel: some perforating branches of the mid sacral also join the plexus in the submucous layer at the lower part of the rectum, as do numero small branches from the inferior hæmorrhoidal arteries which pierce the sphincters. In additio small branches of these several arteries unite with one another in the muscular coat. It shou be remarked that the superior hæmorrhoidal artery supplies both the muscular and muc coats above, whilst it is confined to the latter in the lower few inches of the gut, the muscu coats here being supplied by the middle and inferior hæmorrhoidal vessels.

Veins of the Rectum and Anus.—These form two chief plexuses of large vessels devoid valves, namely, the internal hæmorrhoidal plexus situated in the submucous coat, and t external hæmorrhoidal plexus in the outer coat. The **internal hæmorrhoidal plexus** takes orig near the margin of the anus in a number of small (anal) veins, which are radially disp beneath the skin of the anus, and communicate below with the rootlets of the inferior hæmo rhoidal vein over the external sphincter. These **anal veins**, traced upwards, join together, a are joined by others from the surrounding parts to form larger and often tortuous vessels, whi ascend in the columns of Morgagni, where they frequently present ampullary enlargemen varying in size up to that of a small pea, which are said to be the starting-points of hæmorrhoi Passing upwards, the veins are known as the "terminal veins"; they communicate freely wi one another, forming the plexus, and unite into still larger vessels, which pierce the muscu coat about the middle of the rectum, and join the two branches of the superior hæmorrhoidal ve

From the lower part of the internal hæmorrhoidal plexus numerous vessels pass throu the external sphincter to join a venous network on the outer surface of that muscle, fr which the **inferior hæmorrhoidal veins** arise. This network, as pointed out above, also co municates with the internal hæmorrhoidal plexus, through the anal veins which descend fr the latter beneath the skin of the anal canal, to the exterior of the sphincter.

The various veins which pass out through the walls of the rectum unite freely on exterior to form a rich venous plexus (**external hæmorrhoidal plexus**), through which the th hæmorrhoidal vessels are brought into free communication with one another. Passing off fr this plexus, the **superior hæmorrhoidal vein** joins the inferior mesenteric, which opens into t portal vein; the middle hæmorrhoidal joins the internal iliac, a tributary of the vena cav and the inferior hæmorrhoidal joins the internal pudic, a tributary of the internal ili Thus, on the rectum, a free anastomosis is established between the veins of the portal a systemic circulations.

Lymphatics.—Most of the lymphatics of the rectum join a number (four or five) of re glands found in the connective tissue coat of the bowel along the superior hæmorrhoi vein and its two branches, whence they pass to the sacral glands on the front of the sacru Some of those from the lower part of the anal canal join the cutaneous lymphatics round t anus, and pass with them to the oblique set of superficial inguinal glands. A few of t lymphatics from the lower portion of the rectum are said (by Quenu) to join the internal il glands, but these are inconstant according to Gerota.

Nerves.—The nerves of the rectum come partly from the sympathetic and partly from t cerebro-spinal system. The sympathetic fibres are derived on the one hand from the infer mesenteric plexus, and on the other from the right and left divisions of the hypogastric ple (*i.e.* the pelvic plexuses), the former accompanying the superior hæmorrhoidal, the latter t middle hæmorrhoidal vessels, to the rectum. The cerebro-spinal fibres arise from the seco third, and fourth sacral nerves soon after these leave the sacral foramina (and constitute t "pelvic splanchnics" of Gaskell). They run forward in the pelvic connective tissue, a joining the pelvic plexuses, reach the side of the rectum. Fibres of the inferior hæmorrhoi branch of the internal pudic nerve (third and fourth sacral) are also distributed to the lower p of the anal canal as well as to the external sphincter.

It has been shown by experiments on animals, that the cerebro-spinal nerves (from t

second, third, and fourth sacral) convey motor impulses to the longitudinal fibres, but inhibitory impulses to the circular muscular fibres. In like manner the branches from the sympathetic convey motor fibres (derived from some of the lumbar rami communicantes) to the circular muscle, and inhibitory fibres to the longitudinal muscle of the rectum.

The reflex centre which governs the action of the sphincters and the muscular fibres of the rectum ("defæcation centre") is situated in the lumbar region of the cord, and appears to be capable of carrying out the whole act of defæcation even when separated from the brain.

Variations.—The best known anomalies found in connexion with the rectum are those classed under the term **imperforate anus** or **atresia ani**. The atresia may be simply due to a partial or complete persistence of the anal membrane (see p. 45), which separates the proctodæum from the hind-gut in the embryo (atresia ani simplex); or the hind-gut may be deficient in its lower part, when there is a considerable interval between the proctodæum and the gut (defectus recti partialis, vel totalis); or the rectum may open into the vagina, the uterus, the bladder, or the ureters, when usually no anus is evident; or finally the cloaca may persist. Other forms are also described, but the foregoing are those most commonly found.

For the **development** of the rectum and anus, see pp 33 and 45.

THE PERITONEUM.

An introductory sketch of the peritoneum was given on p. 1048; subsequently, when describing the abdominal viscera, an account of its detailed relations to each of these was included. We shall here consider the membrane and its folds as parts of one continuous whole; and we shall also describe its arrangement as seen on horizontal and vertical sections of the abdomen—a favourite method of studying the peritoneum.

As already explained, the peritoneum is the serous membrane which, on the one hand, lines the abdominal cavity, and on the other forms a more or less complete covering for the contained viscera. The portion which lines the walls of the cavity is known as the **parietal peritoneum** (peritoneum parietale), that which clothes the viscera as the **visceral peritoneum** (peritoneum viscerale). The membrane is connected to both walls and viscera by a layer of areolar tissue—the extra or subperitoneal connective tissue—which is considerable in amount in certain regions, whilst it is reduced to a mere trace in others, particularly on the viscera. (The subperitoneal tissue is described at p. 1045).

The peritoneum is described as consisting of **two sacs**—a greater and a lesser. The former lines the greater portion of the abdominal cavity, and invests most of the abdominal viscera; the latter lies chiefly behind the stomach, and is much more restricted in its distribution. It must be clearly understood that these two sacs are not two separate cavities, but simply subdivisions of one great cavity; for the lesser is merely a recess of the greater sac, from which it has become partly shut off by changes that take place in the position of the adjacent viscera during their development. If the great sac be compared to a bag, the lesser sac might be represented as a pocket lying behind, and opening into it by a narrow orifice—the foramen of Winslow—on its posterior wall.

Speaking generally, the great sac lines the walls of the abdominal cavity, and it also covers the various organs which receive a peritoneal investment, except the back of the stomach, the Spigelian and caudate lobes of the liver, the left suprarenal capsule, the upper surface of the pancreas, and also parts of the spleen, left kidney, and transverse colon; all of which, as well as the parietes behind the Spigelian lobe, are clothed by the small sac.

The **great sac of the peritoneum** is placed between the parietes in front and the abdominal viscera behind. It is composed of two layers, an anterior which lines the anterior abdominal wall, and a posterior which covers the viscera; but this posterior layer is carried forwards by the viscera, so that the two layers come in contact, and the cavity of the sac is practically obliterated.

The **anterior layer of the great sac** covers the anterior abdominal wall completely, from the diaphragm above to the pelvis below. Over the greater part of its extent the connexion of the peritoneum to the wall is by a small amount of fatty extra-peritoneal connective tissue; but below, near the pubic region, the fat is more abundant, and the connexion between the two becomes much looser. This is to allow of the peeling off of the peritoneum, which takes place here during

distension of the bladder. As the bladder enlarges it pa
abdominal wall, off which it strips the peritoneum, so tl
condition, it may be in contact with this wall, without
toneum, for a distance of two inches (5·0 cm., or occasiona
(Fig. 810).

Running up in this fatty tissue are found five cord-l
in the middle line, and two at each side. These are (*a*) th
the allantois of the fœtus—which in the adult is a slende
to the umbilicus above, and to the apex of the bladde
becomes much stouter. External to the urachus, and s
773), will be found, in the same fatty tissue, (*b*) two
obliterated hypogastric arteries (arteriæ umbilicales). T
become more slender, and approach the urachus, along
nected to the umbilicus. Below, they grow thicker, and c
along the side wall of the pelvis to the internal iliac
(*c*) Further out still, the **deep epigastric arteries** are se
inwards from the external iliac trunk on each side.

When the anterior abdominal wall is examined fro
that these five structures which lie on the front of tl
membrane inwards towards the abdominal cavity in the
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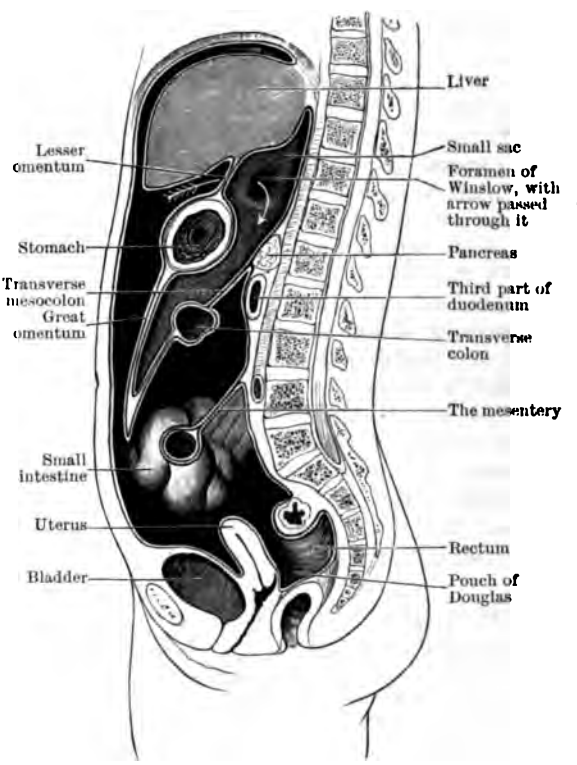

FIG. 777.—DIAGRAMMATIC MESIAL SECTION OF FEMALE BODY, to show the peritoneum on vertical tracing. The great sac of the peritoneum is black and is represented as being much larger than in nature; the small sac is very darkly shaded; the peritoneum in section is shown as a white line: and a white arrow is passed through the foramen of Winslow from the great, into the small sac.

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hypogastric artery its inner part. The significance of those foss
with the applied anatomy of the inguinal and femoral regions.

Near the middle line, above the umbilicus, the perito
the anterior abdominal wall and diaphragm to the pari
the form of a crescentic fold, the **falciform ligament** of th

forme hepatis, described with the liver), which connects the liver to the abdominal wall. This fold lies somewhat to the right of the middle line, and extends almost as low down as the umbilicus. It consists of two layers of peritoneum, between which, in the lower border of the fold, runs the round ligament of the liver—the remains of the umbilical vein of the fœtus.

Posterior Layer of the Great Sac.—After clothing the anterior abdominal wall, in the manner just described, the anterior layer of the great sac is continued back on the under surface of the diaphragm, until this latter begins to descend behind the liver, when it is reflected from the diaphragm on to the upper aspect of the liver, and here the anterior passes into the posterior layer of the great sac. The posterior layer first clothes the upper aspect of the liver, then turns round its anterior border, and is continued back on the under surface as far as the attachment of the lesser omentum, where it quits the liver and passes down, as the anterior layer of the lesser omentum, to the lesser curvature of the stomach.

The line of reflection from diaphragm to liver is interrupted near the mesial plane by the falciform ligament. The portion lying to the right of this fold forms the upper layer of the coronary ligament; that to the left of it, the upper layer of the left lateral ligament of the liver.

The extent to which the peritoneum of the great sac passes back on the under surface of the liver varies according as it is traced at the right, the left, or the middle portion of the liver. It clothes the right portion as far back as the lower edge of the uncovered area of the liver, where it is reflected on to the posterior wall of the abdomen and the top of the right kidney (constituting the hepato-renal ligament), as the lower layer of the coronary ligament. On the left portion it is continued back as far as the posterior border of the left lobe—or even a little way on to its upper surface—whence it passes to the diaphragm as the inferior layer of the left lateral ligament. The middle region of the under surface it clothes only as far as the portal fissure and the fissure of the ductus venosus; from these the peritoneum is carried down as the anterior layer of the lesser omentum to the lesser curvature of the stomach, where we shall return to it directly.

The peritoneum, which passes back on the under surface of the diaphragm to the left of the liver, is continued down on the posterior abdominal wall, behind the fundus of the stomach and the spleen, until the left kidney is reached. It covers the upper and outer part of the kidney, and is then carried forward as the **lieno-renal ligament** to the spleen, around which it passes—clothing its renal, phrenic, and gastric surfaces—as far as the hilum (Fig. 779); from this it is carried to the stomach as the anterior layer of the **gastro-splenic omentum**. Similarly, the under layer of the left lateral ligament is continued down on the back part of the diaphragm to the œsophagus, the anterior and left sides of which it clothes. It also forms a little fold at the left of the œsophagus, known as the **gastro-phrenic ligament** (see p. 1057 and Fig. 780).

At the right side, the portion of the peritoneum which forms the under layer of the coronary ligament is carried down over the right kidney (and lower part of the suprarenal capsule) to the duodenum and hepatic flexure, over both of which it passes.

We shall now follow down the posterior layer of the great sac—which we have already traced to the stomach—as seen in a sagittal section (Fig. 770).

Having reached the lesser curvature of the stomach, it passes down over the front of that organ, clothing it completely as far as the great curvature. From this it descends, in front of the transverse colon and small intestine, forming the anterior layer of the great omentum—a large apron-like fold, containing the lower part of the small sac in its interior, which hangs down from the stomach. Arrived at the lower border of the great omentum, the membrane returns on itself, and passes upwards towards the posterior abdominal wall, forming the posterior layer of that omentum. On the way it meets and passes behind the transverse colon, clothing its posterior aspect at the same time (Fig. 777), and is then continued, as the posterior layer of the transverse mesocolon, up to the posterior abdominal wall, which it reaches at the anterior border of the pancreas (Fig. 777).

From the anterior border of the pancreas it is continued downwards again, clothing first the lower part of that organ, then the front of the third portion of the duodenum, and below this the posterior abdominal wall. From this latter, however, it is soon carried forwards again by the branches of the superior mesenteric vessels, passing to the small intestine. Running out along these, it forms the upper (or more correctly, the right) layer of the obliquely-placed mesentery (Fig. 777): on reaching the small bowel at the border of the mesentery, it invests that tube, giving it its serous coat, and then returns—as the under, or left, layer of the mesentery—to the posterior abdominal wall, on which it runs down, covering the great vessels near the middle line, and the psoas muscles and ureters at each side, to enter the pelvis. The mesentery is described at p. 1071.

Pelvic Peritoneum.—The detailed arrangement of th
cavity is somewhat complicated, and is fully describe
several pelvic organs. A general account will suffice her

Having passed over the brim all round, it enters t
walls as low as the pelvic floor, across which it pass
Behind, it invests completely, and forms a mesentery (
pelvic colon, as far down as the third sacral vertebra.
rectum proper, and the complete investment of the bowel

As the end of the pelvic colon is approached the t
become shorter, and when the rectum is reached, they sep
surface uncovered, whilst the bowel is clothed in front
down, the membrane leaves the sides, and finally, at a po
3 inches (7·5 cm., see p. 1089) above the anus, it leave

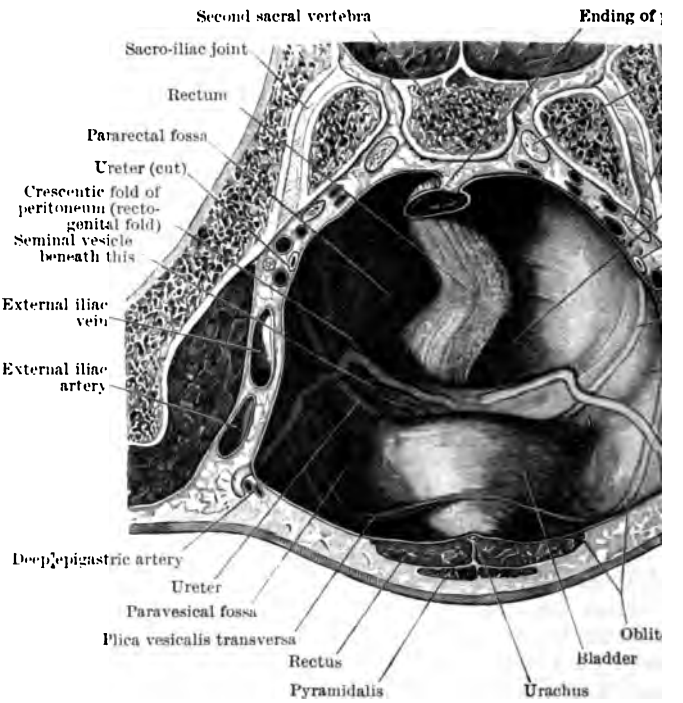

FIG. 778.—THE PERITONEUM OF THE PELVIC C

The pelvis was sawn across obliquely (as in Fig. 772) in a thin male subject of fat the various pelvic organs are visible through the peritoneum represented here. The bladder and rectum were both empty and co rectal fossæ, as a result, are very well marked.

and in the male is carried on to the back part of the bla
seminal vesicles and vasa deferentia), forming the floor
(excavatio recto-vesicalis, recto-genital pouch) found b
then covers the upper surface of the bladder, and passin
walls of the pelvis, constitutes the so-called **false ligament**
apex of the bladder it is carried on to the anterior abdom
thus forming the **superior** or **anterior false ligament** of
vesicalis).

In the female (Fig. 777), the peritoneum, on leaving
posterior wall of the vagina, the upper portion of which
continued up over the posterior surface and fundus of
its anterior surface as far as the junction of the cervix a
it passes from the uterus to the bladder, which it partly
is then carried on to the anterior abdominal wall. Be
and the uterus and vagina in front, is situated the **p**

terina Douglasi, recto-genital pouch), the entrance of which is limited on
le by a fold passing from the cervix of the uterus around the sides of the
towards the rectum; these are the **folds of Douglas** (plicæ recto-uterinæ
si, recto-genital folds), and they contain in their interior the **utero-sacral**
ts (musculi recto-uterini), two bands of fibrous tissue with plain muscle
ntermixed, which pass from the cervix of the uterus, backwards on each
the rectum, to
with the con-
tissue on the
the lower part
sacrum.
ilarly, in front
terus, between
the bladder, is
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utero-vesical
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peritoneum is
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t of the uterus
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an tube, the
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and other
ures (see p.

n the bladder is
there is seen at
e, between it and
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Fig. 778). This
traversed by a
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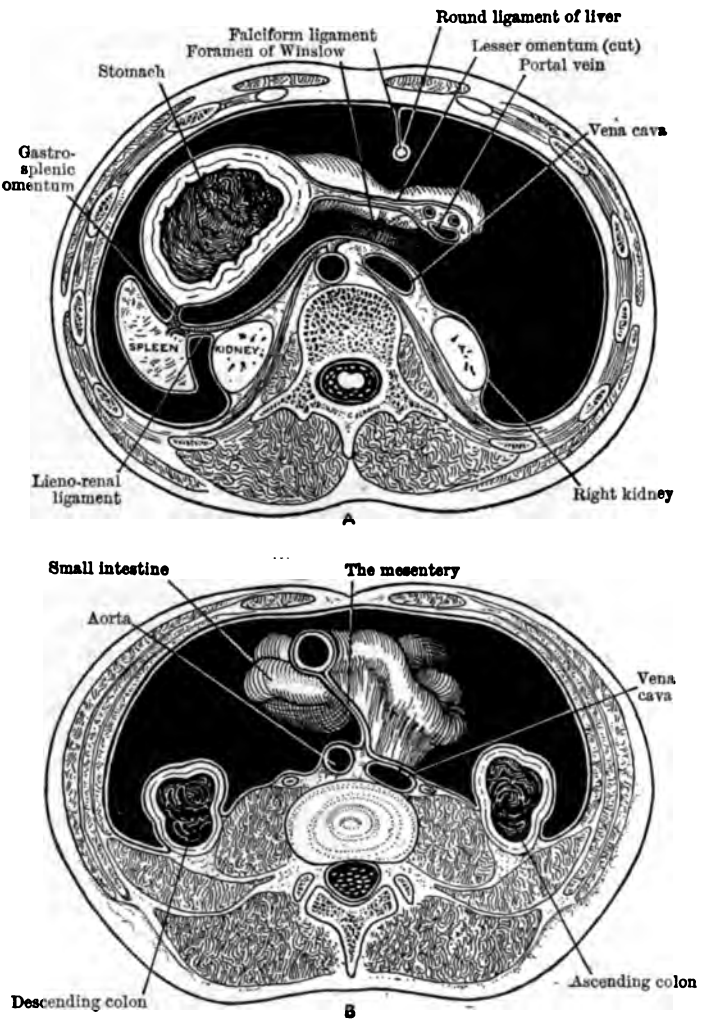

FIG. 779.—DIAGRAMMATIC TRANSVERSE SECTIONS OF ABDOMEN, to show the peritoneum on transverse tracing. A, at level of foramen of Winslow, B, lower down. In A, note one of the vasa brevia arteries passing to the stomach between the layers of the gastro-splenic omentum, and also the foramen of Winslow leading into the lesser sac which lies behind the stomach.

ve the bladder, on each side of the urachus, is found the **internal inguinal fossa** already
to (p. 1098). Both of these fossæ are practically obliterated by distension of the

larly, there is seen at each side of the empty rectum, on the posterior pelvic wall, a large
on, which may be known as the **pararectal fossa** (fossa pararectalis, Fig. 778). When the
is empty and contracted, these fossæ are filled by intestine; during distension, the
increasing in width, expels the intestine and practically obliterates the fossæ.

ansverse Tracing of the Peritoneum.—If the peritoneum be followed trans-
around the abdomen, just above the level of the iliac crest, where the com-
ons produced by the small sac are absent (Fig. 779, B), few difficulties will
ountered. From the anterior abdominal wall it passes round on each side to
ck, lining the lateral and posterior walls. Passing inwards on the posterior

wall, it meets the colon—ascending on the right side, de
which it is carried, in each case covering the bowel in f
and leaving the posterior surface bare, as a rule. Someti
is complete, and a short mesentery is formed. It is ne
the psoas muscles, the ureters, and the great vessels, on t
the superior mesenteric artery and vein running dow
From both sides it passes forwards on these vessels, fo
layers of the mesentery; and finally, having reached t
completely, and the two portions become continuous on t

A transverse tracing at a higher level would inclu
therefore, be well to study this portion of the peritoneu
tracing.

Small Sac of the Peritoneum (bursa omentalis).—
out, is a diverticulum of the great sac which lies behind
organs, and which communicates with the great sac by
foramen of Winslow. If the great sac be compared, as a
the anterior layer of which clothes the anterior and lat
and the posterior layer the viscera lying on the posterior
correspond to a pocket lying behind the upper part of
into its cavity by a narrow mouth, on the right side, ju
this opening the pocket passes to the left behind the less
spleen, up behind the Spigelian lobe of the liver, and
and into the great omentum.

As in the case of the great sac, it will of course be unde
the small sac and the boundaries of the foramen of Winsl
We shall first consider this opening, and then trace the l

Foramen of Winslow (Fig. 779, A).—This, the constr
from the great into the small sac of the peritoneum, is foun
portal fissure of the liver by running the finger along the
bladder towards its neck, when, with little difficulty, i
margin of the lesser omentum and into the foramen. It
free right border of the lesser omentum, passing up from the
to the portal fissure, and containing between its two laye
artery, and bile duct. *Behind*, lies the inferior vena c
peritoneum. *Above*, is placed the caudate lobe of the live
part of the duodenum, and the hepatic artery, the latter r
right beneath the foramen, before turning up into the le
be remembered that, normally, the various boundaries of
and that its cavity can only be said to exist as such wher

If we follow the small sac, in through the foramen
expands immediately beyond this narrow opening (Fig. 7
behind the lesser omentum, and running up behind the
as far as its upper end; and its lower portion passing
and on into the great omentum, where it lies in front of
extends practically to the lower margin of the omentum—
cannot as a rule be demonstrated in the adult.

As the small sac is composed, like the great, of two
and a posterior, it will be necessary to follow each of the
anterior layer of the small sac clothes the Spigelian lobe;
the posterior margin of the portal fissure, and the fissure
the lesser curvature of the stomach as the posterior la
Continued on from this, it clothes the inferior (or viscer
as far as the great curvature, with the exception of the
below and to the left of the cardia (Fig. 743, B), but
in contact with the œsophagus itself, the back and rig
covered. On the left, it is reflected from the back of th
the deeper layer of the gastro-splenic omentum.

From the great curvature of the stomach it is con
posterior layer (of the anterior fold) of the great omentu

of the omentum it meets and becomes continuous with the posterior layer of the small sac.

The **posterior layer of the small sac**, in passing through the foramen of Winslow, clothes the front of the vena cava (Fig. 779, A); beyond this, it covers the cœliac axis, and passes up to line the slight depression on the posterior abdominal wall (diaphragm), against which the Spigelian lobe rests. Then, passing over to the left, it covers the upper surface of the pancreas, the top of the left kidney and suprarenal capsule, and the inner part of the gastric surface of the spleen (Fig. 780). From the anterior border of the pancreas it is prolonged forwards and downwards—as the anterior or upper layer of the transverse mesocolon—to the transverse colon (Fig. 777).

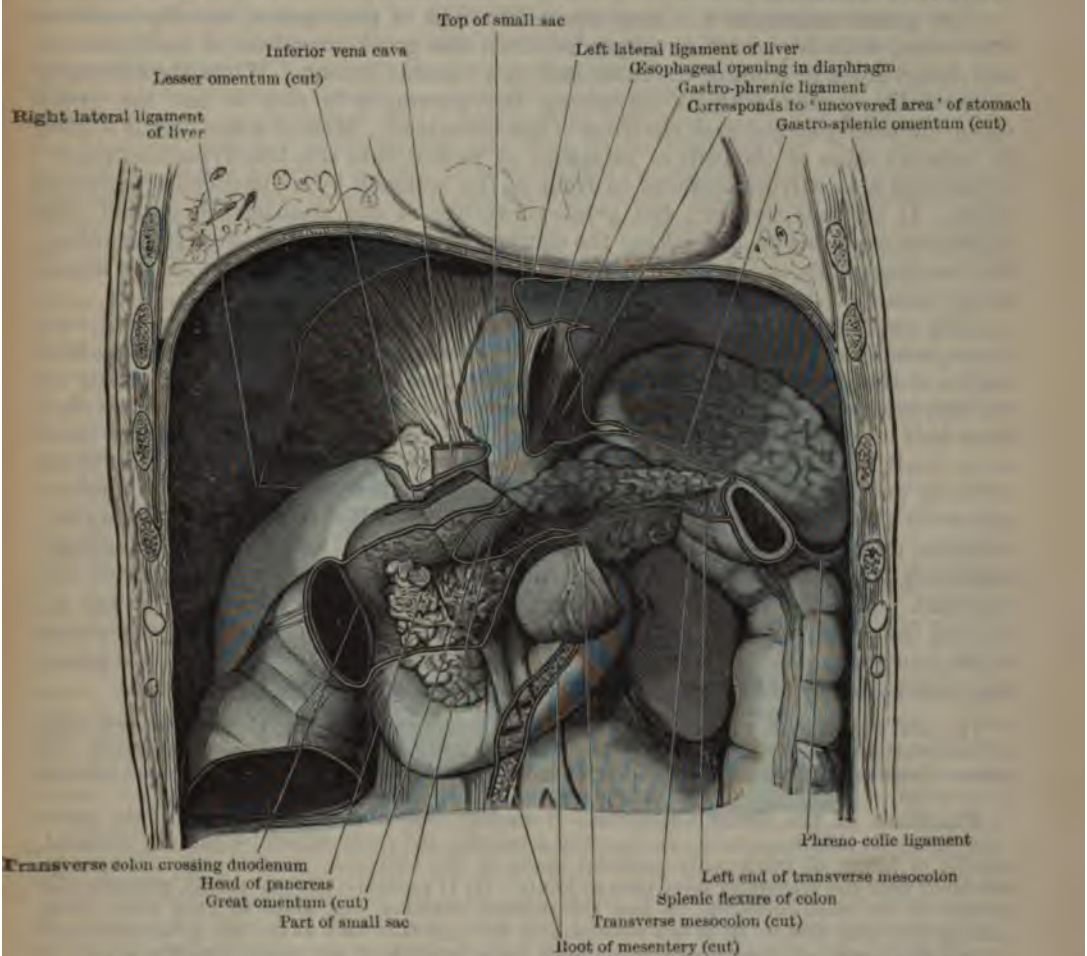

FIG. 780.—THE PERITONEAL RELATIONS OF THE DUODENUM, PANCREAS, SPLEEN, KIDNEYS, ETC.

It next clothes the upper aspect of this gut, and is then continued down as the anterior layer of the posterior fold of the great omentum, almost to its lower border, where it becomes continuous with the anterior layer of the small sac, already described.

The transverse tracing at the level of the foramen of Winslow is shown in Fig. 778, A, and can be easily followed without any further description than is there given.

The following additional details may be mentioned:—The small sac is divided by a constriction into two parts—an upper, lying behind the lesser omentum and Spigelian lobe, and a lower, placed behind the stomach and within the great omentum. The constriction is due to the passage of the coronary and hepatic arteries forward around the sac; the former winds round its left side, the latter round its right; and each raises up a fold of peritoneum, which projects strongly into the sac, and partially divides it into two. This can be shown by cutting the lesser omentum along the lesser curvature of the stomach and looking into the cavity.

Where the small sac runs up behind the Spigelian lobe, it forms, as pointed out at page 11 the left boundary of the uncovered area of the right lobe, and, consequently, a third or left la of the coronary ligament.

A special diverticulum of the small sac runs out to the right, behind the beginning of duodenum, to clothe the back of that tube for about an inch (Fig. 780).

The splenic artery reaches the spleen by passing to the left, behind the posterior layer of small sac, which also extends to that organ (Fig. 779, A).

The **lesser omentum** is described at page 1116; it need only be pointed now that it is composed of two layers, the anterior derived from the great s and the posterior from the small sac, both of which are extremely thin—so times even cribriform.

The **great omentum** is a large apron-like fold of peritoneum, usually more less loaded with fat, which is suspended from the great curvature of the stoma and hangs down in front of the intestines to a variable extent. When the abdom is carefully opened without disturbing the viscera, it is rare to find the gr omentum evenly spread over the front of the intestines. More commonly it is fol in between some of the coils of intestine, or tucked into the left hypochondriu or perhaps it is carried upwards in front of the stomach by a distended transve colon. It extends between the great curvature of the stomach above and t transverse colon below, not taking the shortest course from one of these to the oth but hanging down as a loose fold between the two. The lower part of the sm sac is continued down within it (Fig. 777).

The great omentum may be said to consist of two folds, each formed of t layers, one derived from each sac of the peritoneum. The **anterior** or **descending f** begins at the great curvature of the stomach, where it is formed by the meeting the two layers from the superior and inferior surfaces of that organ respectivel from this it descends to the lower border of the omentum, where, turning ba upon itself (Fig. 777), it passes up as the **posterior** or **ascending fold.** This ru upwards until it meets the transverse colon; here its two layers separate to encl and cover that colon—and the omentum properly so called ceases. Its two laye however, unite at the upper surface of the colon (Fig. 777) to form the **transve mesocolon**, which is continued upwards and backwards to the anterior border of t pancreas. Here the layers of the transverse mesocolon again separate—the upp derived from the small sac, running backwards and upwards over the upper surf of the pancreas to the posterior abdominal wall; the lower, derived from the gr sac, passing downwards along the back of the abdomen, as already explained.

The great omentum is continued to the right for a short distance (25 mm.) along the lower bor of the duodenum. At the left end it shortens very much, and is directly continued into t gastro-splenic omentum; the spleen, as it were, being introduced between the two layers inste of the colon.

Functions of the Great Omentum.—Numerous uses have been assigned to the gr omentum; the chief seem to be: (1) To act as a movable and easily adjustable packing materi capable of filling all temporarily-produced spaces in the abdomen. In this respect it may compared with the Haversian fatty pads in joints. (2) It probably, to some extent, prevents t passage of the small intestine up into the stomach chamber, and helps to keep them fr getting entangled there. (3) It is a storehouse of fat. (4) It is said to be "the great protec against peritoneal infectious invasions." Being freely movable, it can pass to almost any part the abdomen, and there "build up barriers of exudations to check infection" (Byron Robinso

Mr. Lockwood has made the interesting observation (in connexion with the contents of herni that, in bodies under forty-five years of age, the omentum can rarely be drawn down below t level of the pubic spine; in older bodies the reverse is the rule.

The **gastro-splenic omentum** is a short fold composed of two layers, the anteri or more superficial being derived from the great sac, the posterior or deeper from t small sac (Fig. 779, A). It is attached by one margin to the wide end of the stoma (just below the line of the great curvature), and by the other to the gastric surfa of the spleen just in front of the hilum. Between its two layers the vasa brevia the splenic artery pass from the spleen to the stomach. Below and in front, i layers are continued into the corresponding layers of the great omentum; abo and behind, they separate at the "uncovered area" of the stomach (Fig. 780).

Minor Folds of Peritoneum.—The **phreno-colic ligament**, passing from t splenic flexure of the colon to the diaphragm opposite the 10th or 11th ribs, h

been described in connexion with the splenic flexure. The **mesentery of the appendix**, and the folds and fossæ around the ileo-cæcal region, are included in the account of the cæcum, as are those around the duodenum in the description of that viscus. The **lieno-renal** and **hepato-renal** ligaments have been referred to incidentally above.

Development of the Intestinal Canal and Peritoneum.

As already explained on p. 32, when the embryo begins to take definite shape, and to be marked off from the general surface of the blastodermic vesicle by an infolding of its margins—resulting in the formation of the cephalic or head fold, the caudal or tail fold, and the lateral folds—a portion of the cavity of the vesicle is cut off by these folds, and more or less completely enclosed within the body of the embryo, to form the **primitive alimentary canal**. This is simply an imperfect tubular cavity, situated beneath the notochord, and bounded towards one end by the head fold, at the other by the tail fold, and at the sides by the lateral folds. The anterior portion of this cavity, situated within the head fold, is known as the **foregut**, and from it are developed the back part of the mouth, the tongue, pharynx, œsophagus, stomach, and the greater portion of the duodenum, together with the organs formed as outgrowths from these. Similarly, the posterior tubular portion, contained within the tail fold, constitutes the **hindgut**, and from it are formed the rectum, except its anal end, and a portion of the colon. The middle division, known as the **midgut**, gives rise to the rest of the digestive tube, and is at first widely open below, where it is continuous with the cavity of the yolk sac. Soon, however, it is gradually closed in by the approximation of the four folds which meet around the margins of the umbilical orifice, and the communication between the alimentary canal and the yolk sac is thus reduced to a narrow passage—the **vitelline** or **vitello-intestinal duct**. This duct joins that portion of the primitive tube which subsequently forms the lower part of the ileum, and a remnant of it is sometimes found in the adult, when it is known as **Meckel's diverticulum** (see p. 1073).

At this stage the primitive canal has the form of a nearly straight tube, blind at both extremities, and communicating only with the cavity of the yolk sac. It is lined throughout by the endoderm, the cells of which form the epithelial lining of the adult canal; outside this it is invested by the splanchnopleure, or splanchnic layer of the mesoderm, and is separated from the somatopleure or body wall by the **cœlom** or **body cavity**, which later on gives rise to the pleural, pericardial, and peritoneal cavities of the body. At the back, the splanchnic mesoderm which surrounds the canal passes dorsalwards, to become continuous with the general mesoderm beneath the notochord, thereby forming a fold which connects the primitive alimentary tube to the dorsal wall of the embryo, and constitutes the **primitive mesentery**. This is at first of considerable thickness. At a later period it becomes reduced to a thin sheet of mesodermic tissue, covered on each side by a layer of flattened endothelial cells, which suspends the primitive alimentary canal within the body cavity of the embryo.

At each end of the embryo, an ingrowth of the ectoderm takes place, which meets and finally becomes continuous with the corresponding extremity of the primitive alimentary tube, giving rise to the mouth and anus respectively. The former of these ingrowths is known as the **stomatodæum**, and from it is formed the epithelial lining of the vestibule of the mouth, of the salivary glands, the gums, and the greater part of the nasal cavity, as well as the anterior lobe of the pituitary body. From the other ingrowth—the **proctodæum**—are formed the anal aperture and probably the anal canal, below the level of the anal valves. An account of the formation of the mouth and the anus will be found on pages 34, 38, and 45.

At an early date special outgrowths of the lining endoderm take place from the portion of the foregut corresponding to the future duodenum. From these diverticula the liver and pancreas are formed: the former grows forwards from the gut, whilst the latter grows backwards into the dorsal mesentery (see pages 1122 and 1129 respectively).

The primitive alimentary canal is now a tubular cavity, suspended from the dorsal wall of the embryo, within the cœlom, by a simple mesentery (Fig. 781). In front, it communicates with the exterior through the stomatodæum or primitive mouth, and in the region of the future duodenum the liver appears as a bifid outgrowth, followed soon by outgrowths for the formation of the pancreas. Finally, at a date which has not been precisely determined, the anal membrane disappears, and its posterior end communicates with the exterior through the proctodæum.

Stomach.—As early as the fourth week the foregut exhibits a fusiform enlargement

in the region of the developing heart, which is the first evidence of the differentiatio the stomach: this enlargement is at first symmetrical, and mesially placed. Soon, h ever, as the diaphragm is being formed, the stomach descends into the abdomen. and dorsal wall—the future great curvature—begins to grow more rapidly than the ve wall. As a result the whole organ becomes somewhat curved, and its lower en carried forwards from the posterior abdominal wall, giving rise to the curvature of duodenum. The excessive growth of its posterior wall causes the stomach to turn on to its right side, which now becomes posterior or dorsal. In this rotation its upp cardiac portion moves to the left of the middle line, and the whole organ assume oblique direction across the abdomen. Already, at the fifth or sixth week, the adult f of the stomach is clearly indicated.

This rotation of the stomach around its long axis, which is accompanied by a rota of the lower end of the œsophagus, explains the unsymmetrical position of the pneumogastric nerves. In the adult the left nerve is found on the front of the stom which was originally the left side of the organ; similarly, the right nerve lies on back, which was originally the right side.

Intestines.—At first there is no separation into large and small intestines: primitive canal simply forms a slender tube, with a convexity towards the umbi orifice, through which the vitelline duct passes to the yolk sac. Later, the tube incr in length, and in embryos of 11 or 12 mm. an outgrowth of the canal appears, w represents the future cæcum, and indicates the separation into large and small intest Growing longer, the intestine forms a large loop with the vitelline duct springing f its apex (Fig. 781), and the superior mesenteric artery running down between layers of its mesent At the same time the extremities of the approach one anot and form a narrow n to the loop, as show Fig. 781. There takes place a cha which entirely mod the position of the p —this is a rotation of whole loop, with mesentery, around superior mesenteric ar as an axis (Fig. 782). result of this rotatio that the original ri side of the loop of and mesentery beco the left side; and beginning of the l intestine is carried ac the duodenum (Fig. 7 thus explaining the sage of the duode behind the transv colon in the adult. At the same time the cæcum comes to lie near the middle of abdomen below the liver, a position in which it will be found during the third mo Subsequently, it passes farther to the right; and finally, descending, comes to occup adult position.

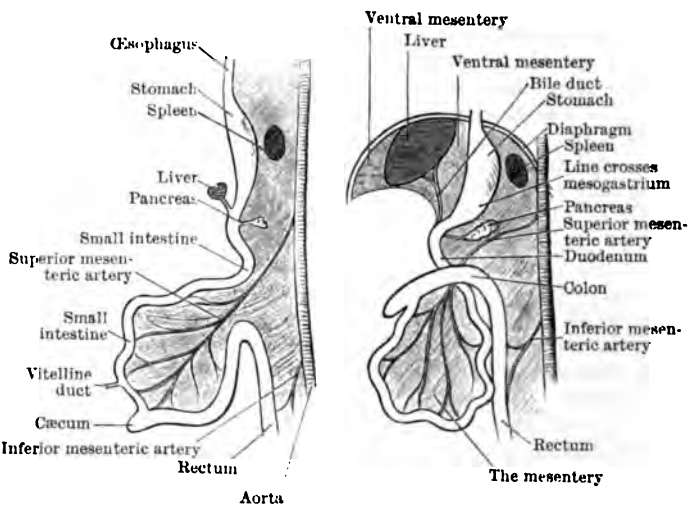

FIG. 781.—TWO DIAGRAMS TO ILLUSTRATE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INTESTINAL CANAL.

The figure to the right shows the rotation of the intestinal loop round the superior mesenteric artery. In both figures the parts are supposed to be viewed from the left side.

The small intestine continues to grow in length, and, as a result, is thrown into c which become more and more complex as the length increases, until the adult condi is attained. The terminal portion of the large bowel retains its position on the left s and passes down to the anus. The development of the cæcum and appendix is descr at page 1078.

Peritoneum.—At first the primitive alimentary canal is suspended from dorsal wall of the embryo, along the middle line, by a **simple dorsal mesentery**, w extends along the whole length of the tube, and is common to all its divisions—a condi found in the adult stage of many reptiles. There is also present, in the upper part of cavity, after the stomach and liver descend into the abdomen, a **ventral mesentery** (

31), which connects the stomach and duodenum to the back of the liver, and, passing on, ɔnnects the front of the liver to the anterior abdominal wall. The portion of this ɜntral mesentery, between the stomach and liver, becomes the lesser omentum; its ıterior portion, between ıe liver and the abdominal all, forms the falciform gament (Fig. 781); and, ı its lower margin, the mbilical vein runs from he umbilicus to the liver.

The portion of the orsal mesentery lying beind the stomach is known s the **mesogastrium**. At rst it is relatively short; ut with the growth of he posterior wall of the tomach, and the turning f that organ over on its ight side, the mesogasrium becomes elongated, nd is folded on itself, ɔrming more or less of a ouch, directed downwards nd to the left. The wall f this pouch becomes in art the great omentum, nd within it is developed he small sac of the peritoneum. In the rotation of the stomach and the accompanying passage of the lesser mentum from an antero-posterior to a more or less transverse direction, a portion of the avity of the abdomen is, as it were, caught in behind the stomach and lesser omentum. 'his portion of the cavity becomes the upper part (vestibule) of the small sac, and at first it communicates with the general cavity by a wide opening to the right of the lesser omentum; but the growth of the liver, encroaching upon the opening, and other causes, reduce it to a relatively small size, and it forms the **foramen of Winslow** in the adult.

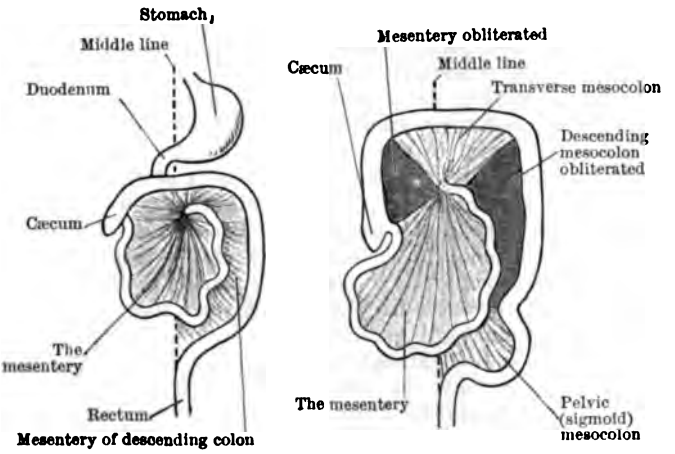

FIG. 782.—TWO DIAGRAMS TO ILLUSTRATE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MESENTERIES.

In the first figure the rotation of the intestinal loop and the continuous primitive mesentery is shown. In the second figure (to the right), which shows a more advanced stage, the portions of the primitive mesentery (going to the ascending and descending colons) which disappear, through their adhesion to the posterior abdominal wall, are shaded dark; the portions which persist are lightly shaded.

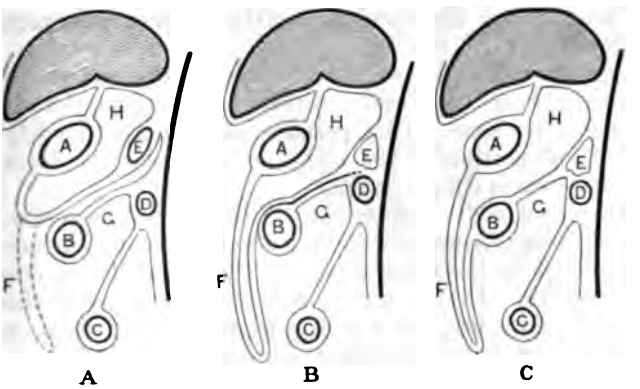

FIG. 783.—DIAGRAMS TO ILLUSTRATE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GREAT OMENTUM (after Hertwig).

A, shows the beginning of the great omentum and its independence of the transverse mesocolon; in B, the two come in contact; and in C, they have fused along the line of contact. (According to Lockwood, the two layers of the fold shown in A, running in between the great omentum and transverse mesocolon, instead of fusing, as shown in B, are drawn out—unfolded—producing the condition shown in C). A, stomach; B, transverse colon; C, small intestine; D, duodenum; E, pancreas; F, great omentum; G, placed in great sac; H, in small sac of peritoneum.

The **great omentum** is, as pointed out above, a bag-like growth of the lower part of the mesogastrium, which passes downwards and to the left in front of the transverse colon. As shown in Fig. 783, A and B, it is first entirely unconnected with the transverse colon and mesocolon; but about the third or fourth month it becomes united to both, and the adult condition is established (Fig. 783, C).

It would appear that the growth of the lower part of the small sac, and of the great omentum, is primarily due to a proliferation of the cells over a limited area of the mesogastrium, and a resulting folding of this layer downwards and to the left.

In the upper part of the mesogastrium the **spleen** is developed, and the portion of

this fold which intervenes between the stomach and spleen forms the gastro-sp omentum, whilst the part behind the spleen becomes the lieno-renal ligament.

Of the primitive mesentery, the portion connected with the stomach—the mesogast —becomes modified in the manner just described. The next division—the mesoduode —disappears completely, owing to the turning over of the duodenal loop on to its r side, and its subsequent adhesion to the posterior abdominal wall, accompanied by absorption of its mesentery. The mesenteries of the small and large intestine are tinuous at first (Fig. 781). When the rotation of the intestinal loop takes place ar the superior mesenteric artery (see above), the beginning of the large intestine, wit mesentery, is carried to the right across the duodenum, and a fan-shaped portion of general mesentery, lying within the concavity of the loop, is partially cut off; this, on, forms the mesentery proper in the adult. At first it is continuous by its right b with the mesentery of the ascending colon, a part of the primitive mesentery (whi similarly continued into the mesentery of the transverse, descending, iliac, and p colons). Subsequently, as shown by the darkly-shaded parts in Fig. 782, the back o mesenteries of the ascending, descending, and iliac portions of the colon adheres t posterior abdominal wall, and these mesenteries become lost; whilst the mesenteri the transverse and pelvic portions of the colon remain free, and persist in the adult.

At the same time, the mesentery proper (which was at first attached only a narrow neck, between the duodenum and transverse colon, and below this was contin on the right with the ascending mesocolon) now acquires a new attachment to posterior abdominal wall through the absorption of the ascending mesocolon (Fig. and the adult condition is attained.

THE LIVER.

The **liver** (hepar) is a large glandular mass of irregular shape, which under cover of the ribs in the upper and right portion of the abdominal ca immediately beneath the diaphragm (Fig. 784). It is the largest of all digestive glands, and plays an important part in the metabolism of both ca hydrate and nitrogenous materials: in addition, it secretes the bile — a fl which although chiefly excretory, assists to some extent in pancreatic digest From the liver the bile is conveyed to the duodenum by the ***bile duct***, in c nexion with which is found a pear-shaped diverticulum, for the temporary sto of the bile, known as the *gall-bladder* (Fig. 786).

Form.—The liver is so irregular, and varies so considerably in size and sl in different bodies, and even in the same body under different conditions, tha is difficult to convey a true idea of its form. This, perhaps, may be most rea realised from a consideration of the portion of the abdomen in which the l lies, and to the shape of which its form is chiefly due.

The upper portion of the abdominal cavity is dome-shaped, its anterior, poste and lateral walls, as well as its roof, being formed chiefly by the vaulted under sur of the diaphragm, which slopes down on the inner aspect of the ribs as far as lower border of the thoracic framework. In the right and middle portions of dome-shaped space thus formed the liver lies, like a cast in its mould, and fro chiefly its form is derived. And, if an imaginary plane be passed backwards upwards, from an oblique line extending across the anterior abdominal wall, fro point immediately below the right margin of the ribs to a point one inch be the left nipple, it will cut off a segment of the abdominal cavity which co sponds tolerably accurately to the liver, in both size and form.

Accordingly, the liver may be described as having two chief surfaces: a *pari surface*, convex in general outline, which fits into the arch of the diaphragm; a *visceral surface*, irregular in form, which looks downwards, backwards, and to left, and rests upon the abdominal viscera. These two surfaces are separated f one another by the *inferior margin* of the liver.

Symington has described the liver, when hardened *in situ*, as a right-angled triangular p with its right angles rounded off, and as having five surfaces—anterior, posterior, superior, ri and inferior. The first four of these would be included in the parietal surface described ab and the inferior corresponds to the visceral surface.

Previously His had described three surfaces: an inferior, corresponding to the visceral, a superior and posterior, which together correspond to the parietal surface.

Before His's description, which changed all previous views on the form of the liver, became current, it was described as having two surfaces, an upper and a lower, and two borders, an anterior thin and a posterior thick; and this is the shape of the ordinary soft dissecting-room liver, which flattens out into a cake-like form when removed from the body.

In the body, on the other hand, instead of being flattened out in this way, it is folded, as it were, around its portal and longitudinal fissures into a much more compact mass; and if hardened *in situ* before its removal, it presents an appearance very different from that of the soft liver just referred to. From a study of such hardened specimens it will be seen that the mass of the right lobe lies chiefly in an antero-posterior direction, its posterior thick portion fitting into a wide groove at the side of the vertebral column, and its long axis running from behind forwards and a

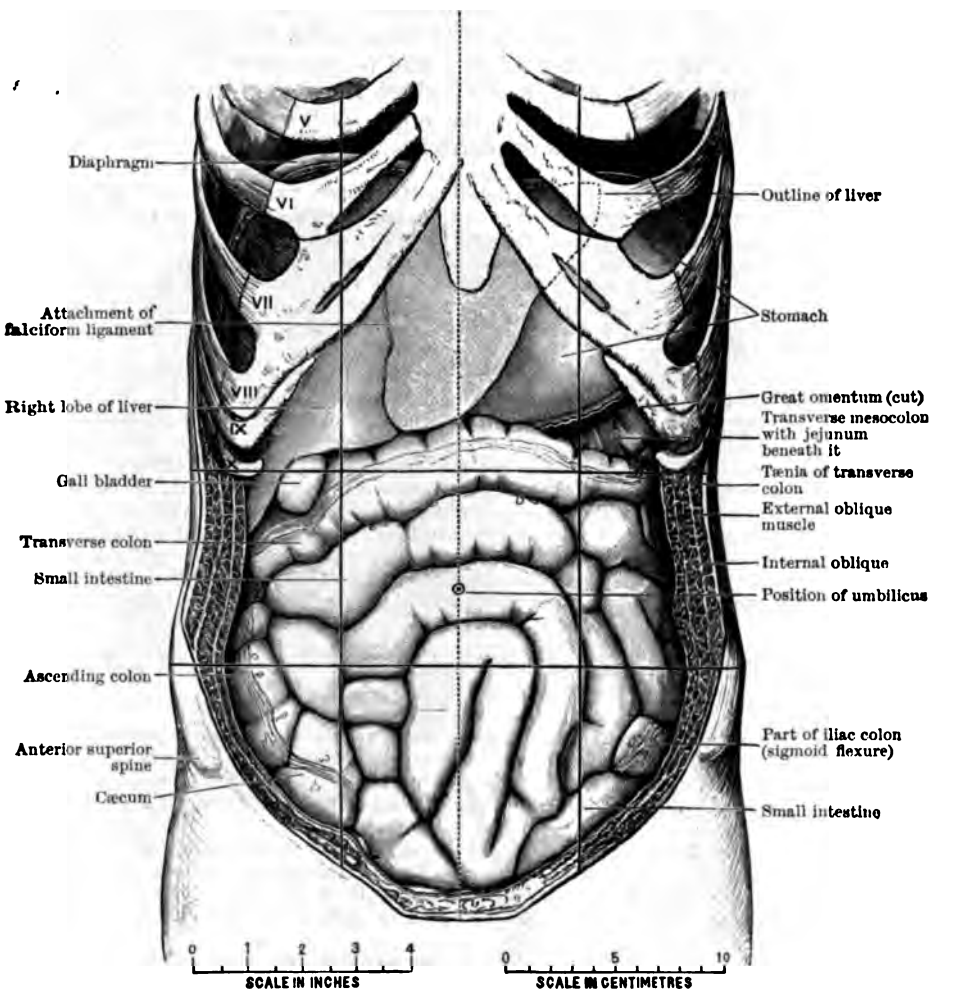

FIG. 784.—THE ABDOMINAL VISCERA IN SITU, as seen when the abdomen is laid open and the great omentum removed (drawn to scale from a photograph of a male body aged 56, hardened by formalin injections).

The ribs on the right side are indicated by Roman numerals; it will be observed that the eighth costal cartilage articulated with the sternum on both sides. The subcostal, intertubercular, and right and left Poupart lines are drawn in black, and the mesial plane is indicated by a dotted line. The intercostal muscles and part of the diaphragm have been removed, to show the liver and stomach extending up beneath the ribs. The stomach was moderately distended, and the intestines were particularly regular in their arrangement.

little inwards. The left lobe, leading off from the anterior part of the right lobe, is folded across the front of the vertebral column and great vessels, its long axis running transversely, but it does not usually pass back at the side of the vertebral column, like the right lobe, into the vertebral groove; so that there is no real notch, as usually described, at the back of the liver for the vertebral column, but merely an angle formed by the meeting of the two lobes coming from different directions.

Position.—The main mass of the liver lies in the right hypochondrium; from this it extends across the upper part of the epigastrium, and usually reaches as far as the left Poupart plane. Not uncommonly it passes into the left

hypochondrium, where it may extend even as far as the left lateral wall abdomen. Usually, too, its lower margin passes down on the right side for a distance (½ inch, 12·5 mm.) below the subcostal plane, and comes to lie i right lumbar region. Under ordinary conditions, the anterior end of the tudinal fissure, which separates the right from the left lobe, lies one or two to the right of the mesial plane.

The limits even of the normal liver are very variable, but, taking the av condition in the male, they may be marked out on the surface of the body l following method:—Three points are determined—(*a*) half an inch (12·5 below the right nipple; (*b*) half an inch (12·5 mm.) below the right margin thorax (or below the tip of the tenth rib); and (*c*) one inch (25 mm.) belo left nipple. If these points be joined by three lines, slightly concave to the liver, they will give the outline of the organ with sufficient accuracy f ordinary purposes. (For variations in position see p. 1117.)

To state the matter somewhat more in detail:—if the two "nipple points" (*a*) and joined by a line, slightly convex upwards on each side, but a little depressed at the centre sponding to the position of the heart, and crossing the lower end of the sternum about th of the sixth cartilage, it will mark the upper limit. A line, convex outwards, from the nipple point (*a*) to the subcostal point (*b*) will indicate the right limit, while the lower l marked by a line, convex downwards, drawn from the subcostal point (*b*) to the left nipple (*c*), and passing through a point half-way between the umbilicus and the lower end gladiolus, in the middle line.

The line indicating the *upper limit of the liver* is elevated on each side, corresponding cupolæ of the diaphragm, and depressed in the centre beneath the heart. On the righ where highest, namely, about one inch (25 mm.), internal to the mammary line, it reaches expiration to the upper border of the fifth rib; on the left side it is one-half to three-quar an inch (12 to 18 mm.) lower; and it crosses behind the sternum at the level of the sixth costal junction—or sometimes lower. It must be remembered, however, that, whilst th reaches up to the levels just given, it does so only at the highest part of its convex parietal s and is separated from the ribs all round by the thin lower margin of the lung (which e down between the chest wall and diaphragm to the sixth rib in front, to the eighth in th lateral line, and to the level of the tip of the spine of the tenth dorsal vertebra behind), s in percussing over the liver, its dulness is obscured by the resonance of the lungs above points.

Weight and Size.—The liver usually weighs from three to three and a qu pounds, or about $\frac{1}{40}$th of the body weight.

The average size of the liver may be briefly expressed as follows:—It measures in the verse direction about seven inches (17·5 cm.); in the vertical, six to seven inches (15 to 17·5 and in the antero-posterior, on the right side where greatest, about six inches (15 cm greatest width, measured obliquely from side to side along the inferior or visceral surface, inches (25 cm.)

Its weight ordinarily varies between fifty and fifty-five ounces in the male, and between three and forty-eight in the female, with an average for the two sexes of about forty-nine or a little over three pounds. It corresponds to about $\frac{1}{40}$th of the body weight in the whilst at birth it is relatively twice as large (viz. $\frac{1}{18}$th or $\frac{1}{20}$th of the body weight), and early fœtus very much larger.

The proportion of the right to the left lobe is very variable, but is usually about as 4 at birth it is about as 2 or 3 to 1.

Relations and Surfaces.—The liver, as already pointed out, possesses two surfaces, the parietal lying in contact with the abdominal parietes, and the vi resting on the abdominal viscera.

Parietal Surface.—In conformity with the shape of the upper portion o abdominal cavity which it occupies, the parietal surface (Fig. 785) is conv general outline, and, taken as a whole, lies against the diaphragm, except and in front, where it projects from beneath the ribs (Fig. 784), and com contact with the anterior abdominal wall for about two or three inches (5·0 cm.) below the xiphi-sternal articulation. It is completely covered by perito except behind at the "uncovered area," where it comes into direct relation the diaphragm; and it is divided into right and left lobe-portions by the at ment of the falciform ligament—a fold of peritoneum which connects it t diaphragm and anterior abdominal wall.

As the space which the liver occupies is bounded by the anterior, the

and the posterior walls of the abdomen, as well as by the roof, we can distinguish on its parietal surface, which lies against, and takes its shape from, these walls, four corresponding "areas," namely (*a*) the superior, (*b*) the anterior, (*c*) the right, and (*d*) the posterior areas of the parietal surface. Of these the posterior area is the most important, and must be described in greater detail than the others.

Posterior Area of the Parietal Surface. — This portion of the parietal surface (which corresponds to the posterior surface of His) is directed backwards, and lies in contact with the diaphragm, as the latter passes down on the posterior abdominal wall. It is very irregular in shape, and presents from right to left the following parts:—(1) The "uncovered area" of the right lobe; (2) the suprarenal impression; (3) the fossa of the vena cava; (4) the Spigelian lobe, separated by the fissure of the ductus venosus from (5) the œsophageal groove, which belongs to the left lobe.

(1) The "**uncovered area**" of the right lobe (Fig. 786) is a considerable portion

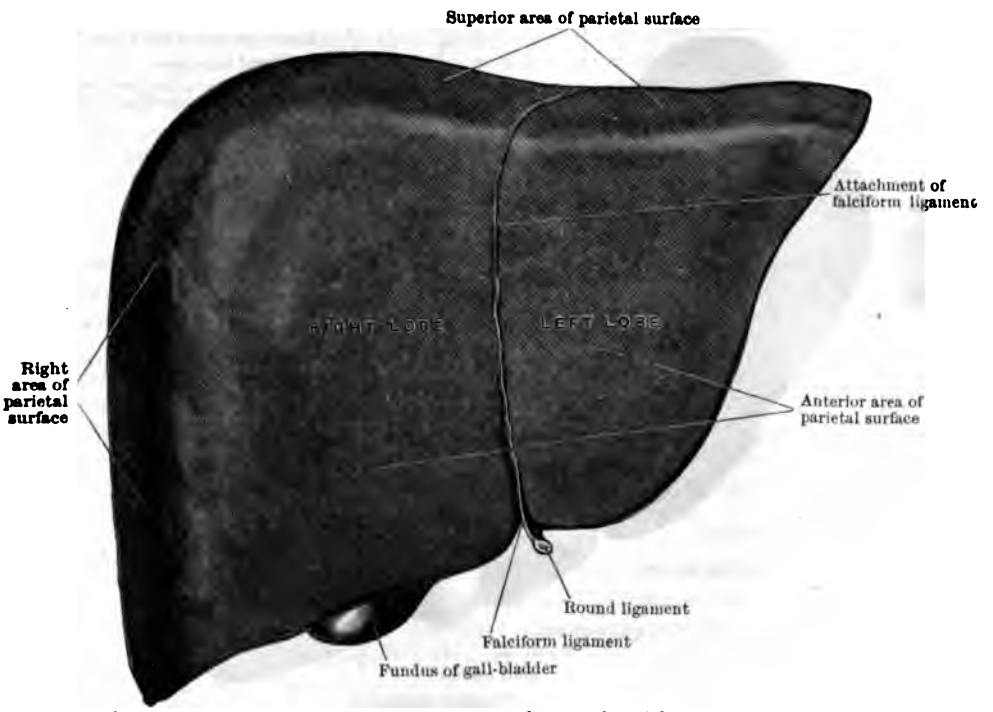

FIG. 785.—THE LIVER FROM THE FRONT, showing the superior, right, and anterior areas of the parietal surface.

of the back of the right lobe—varying from 1½ to 2½ inches (3·7 to 6·2 cm.) in width, and from 3 to 4 inches (7·5 to 10 cm.) in transverse measurement—which corresponds to the interval between the two layers of the coronary ligament, and is devoid of peritoneum. Over this uncovered portion, which looks more inwards than backwards, the liver and diaphragm are in direct contact, and are united by areolar tissue; here too is established a communication by small veins between the portal circulation of the liver and the systemic circulation of the diaphragm.

(2) **Suprarenal Impression.**—On the "uncovered area," immediately to the right of (and behind) the vena cava, is a triangular impression (impressio suprarenalis, Fig. 786), produced by the suprarenal body, which, projecting upwards from the top of the right kidney, becomes wedged in between the diaphragm and liver.

(3) **Fossa of the Vena Cava** (fossa venæ cavæ).—At the left extremity of the "uncovered area" the inferior vena cava lies vertically, embedded in a fossa of the liver substance, between the Spigelian lobe on the left and the adjacent part of the uncovered area on the right, both of which project over the sides of the cava, almost hiding it from view (Fig. 786); sometimes they actually meet and form a **pons hepatis** across the back of the vein.

(4) **Spigelian Lobe.**—To the left of the fossa of the cava lies the Spigelia (lobus caudatus), a prominent oblong mass (Fig. 786), which is placed vertica the back of the liver, between the fissure of the ductus venosus on the left a fossa of the vena cava on the right—the former marking it off from the left lo latter from the "uncovered area" of the right lobe. The top of the small peritoneum separates the back of the Spigelian lobe from the diaphragm, latter, in turn, separates it from the aorta just before that vessel ente abdomen.

The upper end of the Spigelian lobe is separated from the superior area of the parietal by the meeting of the vena cava and the fissure of the ductus venosus in front of it. It

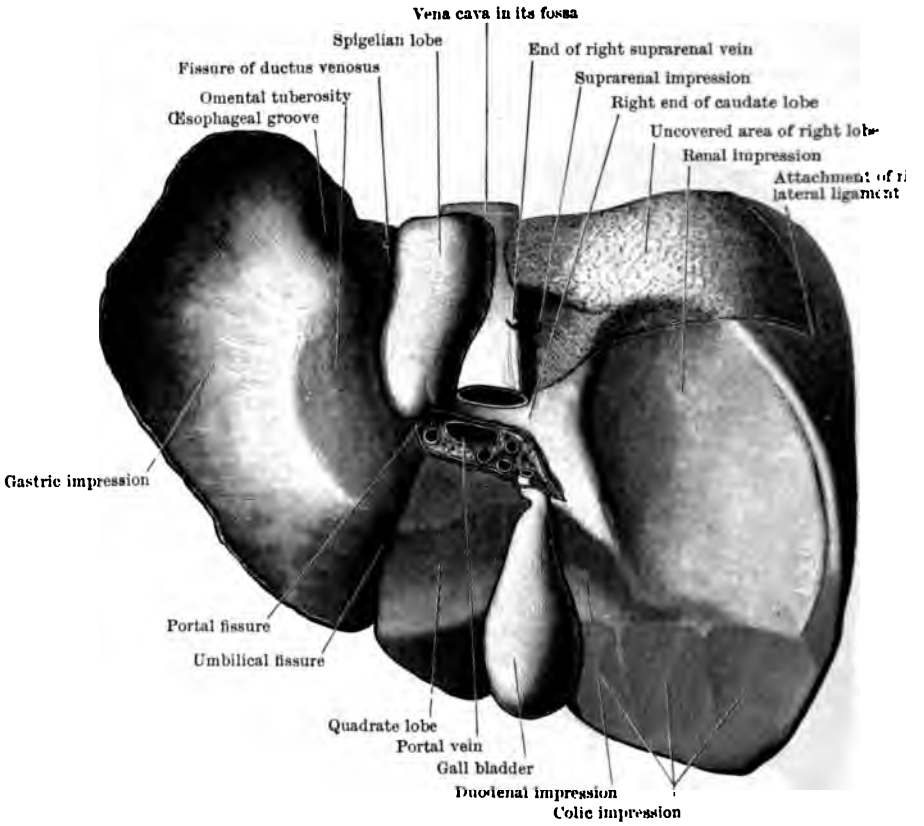

FIG. 786.—THE LIVER FROM BELOW AND BEHIND, showing the whole of the visceral surface and the area of the parietal surface. The portal fissure has been slightly opened up to show the vessels through it; the other fissures are represented in their natural condition—closed. In this live was hardened *in situ*, the impressions of the sacculations of the colon are distinctly visible at t impression. The round ligament and the remains of the ductus venosus are hidden in the d their fissures.

end is free and prominent, and reaches to the visceral surface, where it usually pres notch or fissure (in which the hepatic artery lies, particularly in the fœtus), which marl larger and more prominent left part (the tuberculum papillare) projecting downwards beh portal fissure, and a smaller right part passing out into the processus caudatus, or caud which connects it (Fig. 786) with the under or visceral surface of the right lobe.

The posterior surface of the Spigelian lobe is free; it is placed vertically, and looks bac and slightly inwards. The lobe has also another surface, which is hidden when in the bo in the hardened liver by the folding of the left lobe across it. By this folding there is fo deep fissure (fissure of the ductus venosus), at the bottom of which will be found the rem the ductus venosus.

(5) The **Œsophageal Groove** is situated on the back of the left lobe, left of the upper end of the Spigelian lobe, but separated from it by the fiss the ductus venosus (fossa ductus venosi), which on this aspect indicates the di between the right and left lobes. The groove leads down into the gastric i

sion on the visceral surface of the left lobe (Fig. 786), and, when in the body, lies in contact with the prominent right or anterior margin of the œsophageal orifice of the diaphragm (see p. 1040 and Fig. 795), sometimes also with the œsophagus itself.

The **superior area** of the **parietal surface** lies in contact with the roof of the abdomen; it is convex on each side, and depressed near the middle line. The two convexities, of which the right is the more prominent, fit into the two cupolæ of the diaphragm; whilst the central depression (depressio cardiaca) corresponds to the position of the heart. This area (with the exception of a small triangle at its posterior part, between the separating layers of the falciform ligament) is completely covered by peritoneum, and on it the division of the liver into right and left lobes is indicated by the attachment of the falciform ligament.

The **anterior area** of the **parietal surface** is triangular in shape, and after death is usually flattened, owing to the falling in of the anterior abdominal wall. In part it lies in contact with the diaphragm, which separates it from the rib-cartilages on each side, but at the subcostal triangle it comes into direct relation with the anterior wall of the abdomen, for a distance usually of two or three inches below the xiphi-sternal articulation. It has a complete peritoneal covering, and gives attachment as far down as the umbilical notch, at the inferior border, to the falciform ligament, which connects it to the anterior abdominal wall.

The anterior passes gradually into the upper and right areas, but it is distinctly separated from the visceral surface by the sharp inferior border of the organ. The umbilical notch is often continued upwards for some distance on the surface as a slit-like fissure.

The **right area** of the **parietal surface** is convex and extensive, and lies in contact with the diaphragm, which separates it from the inner surface of the lower ribs, and also from the lower margin of the lung and pleura above. Though sharply marked off by the inferior border from the visceral surface, it passes without distinct limits into the other areas of the parietal surface. It is completely covered by peritoneum.

Visceral or Inferior Surface.—This is an irregular, obliquely sloping surface (Fig. 786), which looks downwards, backwards, and to the left, and rests upon the stomach, small omentum, intestines, and right kidney. The division into right and left lobes is indicated on this surface by the umbilical fissure, which passes from the umbilical notch at the anterior border back to the portal fissure.

The visceral surface of the *left lobe* is directed downwards and backwards, and rests on the upper surface of the stomach, in front of the cardia; also on the lesser curvature with its attached lesser omentum. The part which rests upon the upper surface of the stomach is rendered concave by the pressure of that organ (Fig. 786), and is known as the **gastric impression** (impressio gastrica); whilst the portion to the right of this, being free from the pressure of the stomach, projects backwards over the lesser curvature against the lesser omentum in the form of a smooth rounded prominence, and is known as the **omental tuberosity** (tuber omentale).

The visceral surface of the *right lobe* may be divided into two portions by the line of the gall-bladder, which extends forwards in its fossa to the lower sharp margin of the liver (Fig. 786).

(a) *To the left of the line of the gall-bladder* are found from before backwards:—The quadrate lobe, portal fissure, and caudate lobe. (1) The **quadrate lobe** (lobus quadratus) is placed at the anterior part of the under surface, between the gall-bladder and the umbilical fissure, extending to the inferior margin of the liver in front, and to the portal fissure behind: it rests upon the pylorus or the beginning of the duodenum. (2) The **portal** or **transverse fissure** is a deep cleft through which the portal vein, hepatic artery, and hepatic duct enter the liver, and to the margins of which are attached the two layers of the lesser omentum (Fig. 786). (3) The **caudate lobe** or **process** (processus caudatus) consists of a narrow ridge of liver substance which runs across behind the portal fissure, and connects the lower end of the Spigelian lobe with the rest of the right lobe. It forms the upper boundary of the foramen of Winslow, and is felt when the finger is introduced into that passage. It is often very narrow but can always be distinguished through its intervening between the portal vein and the inferior vena cava.

(b) *The surface to the right of the gall-bladder*, which is more extensive than that on its left, is entirely occupied by three impressions produced by the underlying viscera—namely: (1) The **colic impression** (impressio colica) lies in front and to the right of the gall-bladder. It rests upon the hepatic flexure and the beginning of the transverse colon. (2) Behind this is the **renal impression** (impressio renalis), larger than the preceding, which corresponds in size and form to

the upper half or two-thirds of the right kidney, against the anterior or visc surface of which it lies. It is placed behind the colic impression just as the kid itself is placed behind the colon. (3) To the inner side of the renal impression, a near the neck of the gall-bladder, is placed the narrow **duodenal impression** (i pressio duodenalis), which lies in contact with the duodenum (the second part, d to the point at which it is crossed by the colon).

The **quadrate lobe** is of an oblong shape, the antero-posterior diameter being the greatest. surface is generally concave, and is related to the pylorus and the adjacent parts of the stom and duodenum, when the former is distended. When the stomach is empty, however, pylorus usually lies beneath the right portion of the left lobe, and the first part of the duoden lies beneath the quadrate lobe, the transverse colon also coming in contact with it anteri (Fig. 786).

The upper end of the renal impression is frequently uncovered by peritoneum (Fig. 786, t is to say, the "uncovered area" of the right lobe extends down over the impression for a li way. This impression is very deep, and accommodates nearly the whole thickness of the kid In many hardened specimens it would appear to belong more to the posterior part of parietal than to the inferior or visceral surface.

The **inferior margin of the liver**, as already pointed out, separates the pari from the visceral surface. *Behind*, it is indistinctly marked and corresponds to lower edge of the posterior area, or back, of the parietal surface: it is in c tact with the right kidney, and runs along the course of the eleventh rib. *At right side* it is stout but distinct, and usually corresponds to, or projects a little w below, the lower border of the thoracic framework. *In front* (margo anterior) it thin and sharp, and crosses the anterior abdominal wall obliquely, generally cor sponding to a line drawn from a point half an inch (12 mm.) below the margin the ribs (tip of tenth costal cartilage) on the right side to a point an inch below t nipple on the left, and extending down in the middle line to a point half-w between the gladiolus and the umbilicus. This portion of the lower bor usually, but not invariably, presents one or two notches. The **umbilical no** (incisura umbilicalis), the more constant of the two (Fig. 785), is situat at the anterior end of the umbilical fissure, and corresponds to the lower p of the attachment of the falciform ligament. It is usually placed from one two inches (2·5 to 5·0 cm.) to the right of the middle line. The second notch, l frequently present, corresponds to the fundus of the gall-bladder, and may called the **notch of the gall-bladder** (incisura vesicæ felleæ).

At its left extremity the inferior margin passes backwards around the edge the left lobe, and ends at the œsophageal groove on its back.

Fissures of the Liver.—Five fissures or fossæ are usually described in co nexion with the liver; these are: (1) the umbilical fissure, (2) the fissure of t ductus venosus; (3) the portal fissure; (4) the fissure, or fossa, of the gall-bladd and (5) the fissure, or fossa, of the vena cava.

Taken together, the five fissures are arranged somewhat in the form of the let A (Fig. 786); the two lower divisions of the diverging limbs being formed by t umbilical fissure and the fissure of the gall-bladder respectively, and the cross-pi by the portal fissure—all of which are placed on the inferior or visceral surfa The two upper divisions of the limbs are represented by the fissure of the duct venosus and that of the vena cava, which meet above and are both placed the back or posterior area of the parietal surface. The latter of these two namely, the fissure of the cava, represented by the right upper division of the A does not join the cross-piece (the portal fissure), but is separated from it below a narrow ridge of liver substance—the caudate lobe or process (Fig. 786).

(1) The **umbilical fissure** (fossa venæ umbilicalis) is a deep crevice-like fissu situated on the visceral surface between the adjacent portions of the quadrate a left lobes. At its bottom is seen a stout fibrous band, the round ligament—t remains of the umbilical vein of the fœtus. The fissure leads from the umbili notch at the inferior border of the liver to the left extremity of the portal fissu (Fig. 786), and is very often crossed by a **pons hepatis**—a band of liver substan —which may even extend along the whole length of the fissure, hiding the rou ligament completely from view.

(2) The **fissure of the ductus venosus** (fossa ductus venosi) lies on the back

Having thus reached the liver from the diaphragm, the clothing its parietal surface as far as the anterior margin, the lower or visceral surface. This it also covers as far back fissure of the ductus venosus (Fig. 786), from which it de anterior layer of the lesser omentum.

As regards the covering derived from the small sac:—Its the foramen of Winslow, which is placed immediately beneat it clothes this lobe (Fig. 786). Then turning upwards it lobe, clothing its two surfaces.

From the right margin of the Spigelian lobe it is refl forming the last boundary (Fig. 795) of the uncovered area layer of the coronary ligament.

The detailed arrangement of the peritoneum will be found account of the peritoneal cavity.

Ligaments.—Most of the ligaments of the liver, namel two lateral, are formed by folds of peritoneum; the other tw and the ligament of the ductus venosus, are remains of fœta

The **coronary ligament** (ligamentum coronarium hepa peritoneum which are reflected from the liver to the diaphra covered area of the right lobe; both its upper and lower lay sac. The name of **right lateral ligament** has been given, haps, to its pointed right extremity (Fig. 786).

The **left lateral ligament** (ligamentum triangulare) is entirely unconnected with the coronary ligament, which is upper or parietal surface of the left lobe near its posterior bo diaphragm, for a distance of several inches as a rule.

Its attachment to the diaphragm lies nearly altogether to th and about ¾ inch (18 mm.) in front of the line of this openi from the diaphragm backwards to its hepatic attachment.

Falciform Ligament (ligamentum falciforme hepatis).- broad or the suspensory ligament. It is a crescentic f attached by its convex border to the under surface of the di abdominal wall (an inch or more to the right of the m distance (1 to 2 inches, 2·5 to 5 cm.) of the umbilicus. It to (the superior and anterior areas of) the parietal surfac presents a free edge, stretching from near the umbilicus liver, and containing within it a stout fibrous cord, the roun

Near the back part of the upper aspect of the liver the tw ligament is composed separate, and leave a triangular area of upper end of the vena cava uncovered by peritoneum. Traced b into the upper layer of the coronary ligament, the left into that is the remains of the ventral mesentery of the embryo, and h action on the liver of the adult.

The **lesser** or **gastro-hepatic omentum** (omentum mi which extends from the liver to the lesser curvature of the which are largely blended together in the adult—the ante the posterior from the small sac.

It is attached above to the margins of the portal fissure, fissure of the ductus venosus. Below, it is connected t stomach, where its two layers separate to enclose that organ of the duodenum for an inch or more beyond the pylorus. its right or free border, are contained the bile duct, the hepa the nerves and lymphatics passing to the portal fissure (Fig. and narrow at each end. Of the two ends the right is fre to the duodenum, forming the anterior boundary of the f end is very narrow, and is attached to the diaphragm betw openings (just to the right of the reference line in Fig. 795,

The portion of the omentum passing between the liver and t as the hepato-gastric ligament (ligamentum hepato-gastricum), duodenum as the hepato-duodenal ligament (ligamentum hepato

The **round ligament** (ligamentum teres hepatis) is a st from the umbilicus backwards and upwards, within the fre

they are particularly common in females, and are due to the pressure of the ribs resulti tight-lacing. Grooves of a different kind are found at the upper part of the parietal where the liver is in contact with the diaphragm; these usually run radially, that i direction of the muscular fibres of the diaphragm, and are apparently produced by a w or irregular contraction, of the diaphragm. At least, ridges of the diaphragm are found the grooves, and these ridges or wrinkles would seem to be responsible for the productio grooves.

Finally, the liver may present certain **congenital irregularities** in the direction of a fissures and lobes, which reproduce the conditions found in the higher apes, and commonly present in the fœtus (Thomson). Or the liver may be divided up into a large of distinct lobes, as in most other animals.

Changes in position have been already referred to in connexion with variations i there need only be added here that the liver ascends and descends at every expiration and tion respectively, and that it also descends, but very slightly, in changing from the rec the erect posture. Occasionally, without any evident cause, the liver and diaphragm a to occupy a higher or lower position than usual.

Fixation of the Liver.—At first sight it is not easy to understand the means b the liver maintains its position in the abdomen (and the same remark applies, perhaps, solid abdominal organs). The falciform ligament gives it no support, as it is quite l in the body. Nor can it be said that its vessels, except perhaps the hepatic vein However, on considering the conditions under which the viscera are placed in the ab cavity the problem becomes less difficult.

The abdomen is a closed cavity, with a firm framework to its upper part, a tightly s diaphragm for its roof, and muscular walls all round. Into the concavity of this roof the surface of the liver is fitted with perfect accuracy, so that the two are in absolute cont cannot be separated without producing a vacuum, unless some other structure is in a po fill the space. But there is hardly any other viscus movable enough to pass up over t of the liver into the vault of the diaphragm, so that atmospheric pressure alone is sufficient to retain the organ *in situ*, as in the case of the hip joint. In addition, the ab muscles are always in a condition of tonic contraction or "tone," which gives rise to a abdominal pressure. This is effective in all directions, and consequently there is a cons pressure on all the abdominal walls. The liver, being in absolute contact with the roof, considered a part of this wall, and it is consequently affected by this pressure which sustain it. Add to this, the support which the organ receives from the intestines, the s and the pancreas; from the coronary and lateral ligaments; from the connexion of the the right lobe by areolar tissue to the diaphragm; and, finally, from the vena cava emb the liver and sending its hepatic veins forwards to all parts of the organ, just before itself is firmly attached to the margins of the caval orifice in the central tendon diaphragm, and we will probably find sufficient cause for the maintenance of the orga position in the abdominal cavity.

THE GALL-BLADDER AND BILE-PASSAGES.

Under this heading we have to consider the hepatic ducts, the gall-bladd cystic duct, and the common bile-duct.

The **excretory ducts** of the liver (Fig. 788) begin within the hepatic lobules as channels, running between the hepatic cells (Fig. 792), and known as the **bile ca** (ductus biliferi).

Outside the lobules these join (Fig. 792) the **interlobular ducts** (ductus in lares), which latter by uniting form larger and larger ducts, and finally end in more, chief hepatic ducts, a larger from the right, and a smaller from the left lobe unite immediately after leaving the liver to form the hepatic duct.

As a rule, five or six ducts leave the liver at the bottom of the portal fissure; these g unite into right and left main ducts; sometimes they all converge towards, and unit beginning of the hepatic duct. It is interesting to note that the ducts from the Spigel caudate lobes join the left main duct.

Hepatic Duct (ductus hepaticus).—This duct formed at the bottom of the fissure by the union of right and left chief ducts (Fig. 788), passes downward an irregular course, and, just outside the mouth of the portal fissure, is joi the cystic duct (Fig. 788) to form the common bile-duct. In length it measures about 1 to 1¼ inches (25 to 31 mm.), and in breadth, when fl out, nearly ¼ inch (6 mm.), or about as much as a goose quill. It lies, pra altogether, within the portal fissure.

Gall-bladder (vesica fellea).—The gall-bladder, with its cystic duct, r looked upon as a diverticulum of the bile-duct, enlarged at its extremity to reservoir for the bile. It is pear-shaped, and lies obliquely on the under su

neck of the gall-bladder, and running an irregular course backwards and inwards joins the hepatic duct at the mouth of the portal fissure, to form the common bile-duct. The spiral constriction found in the neck of the gall-bladder is continued into the beginning of this duct.

Sometimes the cystic duct joins the right hepatic duct instead of the hepatic duct proper.

Common Bile-duct (ductus choledochus). This begins at the mouth of the portal fissure, where it is formed by the union of the hepatic and cystic ducts. From this it passes downwards, in front of the foramen of Winslow, lying between the two layers of the lesser omentum, with the portal vein behind and the hepatic artery to its left. It next descends behind the first part of the duodenum (Fig. 788), and then between the pancreas and descending duodenum. Finally, it meets the pancreatic duct, and the two, running together, pierce the inner wall of the descending duodenum very obliquely, and open by a common orifice on the bile papilla (papilla duodenalis), about 3½ or 4 inches (8·7 to 10 cm.) beyond the pylorus (see p. 1069).

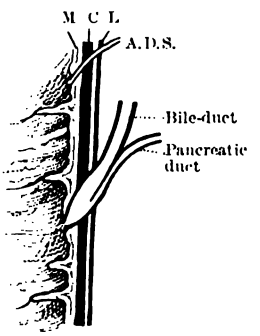

Fig. 789.—Diagram showing the Bile and Pancreatic Ducts piercing the Wall of the Duodenum obliquely.

A.D.S. Accessory pancreatic duct (of Santorini); C, Circular muscular fibres; L, Longitudinal muscular fibres; M, Mucous coat.

The length of the common bile-duct is about 3 inches (75 mm.), and its diameter, which is very variable, is generally about ¼ inch (6 to 7 mm.).

Structure of Excretory Ducts.—With the exception of the peritoneal coat, which is absent, the hepatic, cystic and common bile-ducts agree with the gall-bladder in general structure.

The bile and pancreatic ducts, in piercing the wall of the duodenum, run obliquely through its coats for about ½ or ¾ of an inch (12 to 18 mm.), and, as a rule, do not unite until they have almost reached the opening on the bile papilla (Fig. 789). This orifice is very much smaller than either duct, and the short and relatively wide common cavity which precedes it is sometimes known as the "ampulla of Vater." Occasionally the cystic and hepatic ducts open into the duodenum separately.

Vessels of the Liver.

The liver derives its blood-supply from two sources, namely—(1) the **portal vein** which conveys to it, for further elaboration, the blood from the digestive system laden with the products of digestion; and (2) the **hepatic artery**, which supplies it with blood for the nourishment of its own tissue. All the blood is returned from the liver to the inferior vena cava by the **hepatic veins**.

The **portal vein** and the **hepatic artery** pass up to the liver between the two layers of the lesser omentum and in front of the foramen of Winslow. Here they are accompanied by the hepatic duct, which lies to the right, whilst the artery is placed to the left, and the portal vein behind both. In this order they enter the portal fissure, and there becoming re-arranged, so that the vein lies behind the artery in the middle and the duct in front, each breaks up into two chief branches—a right and a left—and several smaller ones, which enter the liver substance, surrounded by a prolongation of the connective tissue coat of the liver, known as Glisson's capsule. Within the organ the three vessels run and divide together, so that every branch of the portal vein is accompanied by a corresponding (but much smaller) branch of the hepatic artery and of the hepatic duct: and the three, surrounded by a prolongation of Glisson's capsule, and accompanied by branches of the hepatic nerves and lymphatics, run in special tunnels of the liver substance, which are known as **portal canals** (Fig. 791, B).

Finally, the portal vein breaks up into **interlobular veins** (venæ interlobulares) which lie in the spaces between the liver lobules (Fig. 792). The branches of these enter the lobules on all sides, and unite with their capillary network, which converges toward the centre of the lobule, and joins the intralobular or central vein (vena centralis).

The hepatic artery similarly divides into **interlobular branches** (rami arteriæ interlobulares) of a very small size, which accompany the interlobular branches of the vein, and supply the tissue and the vessels between the lobules. In addition, the hepatic artery gives off **vaginal branches** to supply the walls of the vessels and ducts, and the

connective tissue in the portal canals; and **capsular branches**, which are distributed to the fibrous coat of the liver.

The **hepatic veins** are two large and several small veins, which converge from the different portions of the liver (Fig. 791, A) to the vena cava. Their ultimate radicles are the intralobular or central veins, which run down through the centre of the liver lobules, and passing out at the base, join the **sublobular veins** (Fig. 790): these by their union finally form the hepatic veins. The two chief hepatic veins, which are of very large size, open into the vena cava, as it leaves the liver, and immediately before it pierces the diaphragm. The smaller branches open into it lower down. The branches of the portal differ from those of the hepatic vein in the following points:—(1) The branches of the portal vein converge towards the portal fissure; those of the hepatic veins towards the vena cava. (2) On section of the liver the portal branches are always seen to be accompanied by branches of the hepatic artery and duct, whilst those of the hepatic vein run alone; and (3) owing to the loose wrapping of connective tissue (Glisson's capsule) which surrounds the branches of the portal vein, their walls fall away from the liver substance when empty, and collapse, whilst the hepatic veins, which are destitute of this wrapping, are closely connected to the liver substance, and consequently do not collapse so easily as the portal vessels.

The **lymphatics** of the liver are arranged in a superficial and a deep set:—1. The **superficial set** lies beneath the peritoneum on both (*a*) the visceral and (*b*) the parietal surfaces of the organ. (*a*) The vessels from the *visceral surface* pass chiefly to the hepatic glands, which lie between the layers of the lesser omentum; but some of them, from the back part of this surface on the right lobe, join the lumbar glands, and others from the back part of the left lobe go to the cœliac glands. (*b*) The vessels from the *parietal surface* pass in various directions. Those from the adjacent parts of the right and left lobes pass up in the falciform ligament, and pierce the diaphragm to reach the anterior mediastinal glands, and end finally in the right lymphatic duct. Those from the anterior part of this surface pass down to the inferior aspect, and join the hepatic glands in the lesser omentum. The lymphatics from the back of the right lobe pierce the diaphragm between the layers of the coronary ligament, and join some glands in the thorax around the upper end of the inferior cava; others run in the right lateral ligament, and either pierce the diaphragm and end in the anterior mediastinal glands, or, turning down, join the cœliac group.

2. The **deep lymphatics** accompany either (*a*) the portal or (*b*) the hepatic veins. (*a*) The former set pass out through the portal fissure and join the hepatic glands, the efferent vessels of which join the cœliac glands. (*b*) Those which accompany the hepatic veins pierce the diaphragm with the vena cava, and having formed connexions with the group of glands at its upper end, within the thorax, turn down and join the beginning of the thoracic duct.

The **nerves**, which are chiefly of the non-medullated variety, are derived from the left pneumogastric and the solar plexus of the sympathetic. The branches of the former pass from the front of the stomach up between the layers of the lesser omentum to the liver. Those of the latter pass from the cœliac plexus along the hepatic artery—forming the hepatic plexus—to the portal fissure, where they enter the liver with the blood-vessels. They are distributed chiefly to the walls of the vessels and of the bile-ducts.

Structure of the Liver.

The liver is invested by an outer **serous coat** (tunica serosa), already described in connexion with the peritoneum. Within this is a thin **areolar coat** (capsula fibrosa Glissonii) of delicate fibrous tissue, which is most evident where the serous coat is absent. In the neighbourhood of the portal fissure it is particularly abundant, and here, under the name of **Glisson's capsule**, it surrounds the vessels entering the fissure, and accompanies them through the portal canals in the liver substance. This coat is continuous with the fine areolar tissue which pervades the liver, surrounding its lobules and holding them together.

The liver substance proper is made up of an enormous number of small lobules, $\frac{1}{12}$th to $\frac{1}{25}$th inch (1 to 2 mm.) in diameter, closely packed, and held together by a small amount of connective tissue. In man the lobules are not completely separated from one another all round their circumference, but coalesce in places; the reverse is the case in certain animals such as the camel and the pig. The lobules are arranged around the branches of the hepatic veins, to form the compact mass of the liver, in the following manner:—

The hepatic veins radiate from the inferior vena cava, at the back of the liver, to all parts of the organ, dividing and re-dividing until the vessels are reduced to branches of a very small size, known as **sublobular veins**—the whole arrangement may be aptly compared so far to the branching of a tree (Fig. 791, A). On all sides there open into these **sublobular veins** numerous closely-crowded vessels—the **intralobular or central veins**

(which, following our simile, may be compared to an enormous number of thorns grow-ing out on all sides from the sublobular twigs of the tree). On each of these litt

FIG. 790.—LIVER OF A PIG INJECTED FROM THE HEPATIC VEIN BY T. A. CARTER. (From a specimen left the Anatomy Department of the Edinburgh University by Sir William Turner.)

central veins there is impaled, as it were, a **lobule** (which is more or less like a conic bullet in shape—Purser). These little conical lobules, with their intralobular or centr veins running through them, are so numerous and so closely packed togeth that they give rise to the practically sol liver tissue.

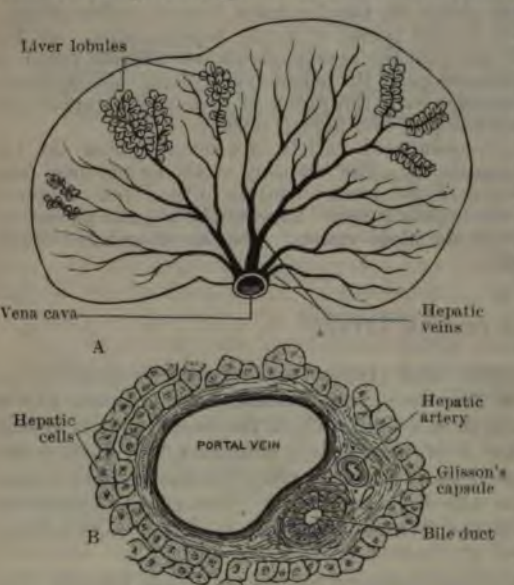

FIG. 791.—DIAGRAMS ILLUSTRATING THE STRUCTURE OF LIVER.

A, Arrangement of liver lobules around the sublobular branches of the hepatic vein; B, Section of a portal canal, showing its contained branches of the portal vein, hepatic artery, and bile-duct, surrounded by a prolongation of Glisson's capsule.

The lobules are surrounded by th interlobular branches of the portal vei from which numerous twigs enter th lobule on all sides, and converging, jo the central or intralobular vein (Fi 792). This runs down through th centre of the lobule (Fig. 791, A), an opens at its base into a sublobular vei The sublobular veins, uniting and gro ing larger by constant additions, final form the hepatic veins, which open in the vena cava.

Hepatic Cells.—In the intervals b tween the branches of the capillar running from the interlobular to th intralobular veins (Fig. 792), are plac the polygonal-shaped, epithelial, hepat cells. Between the cells run the bi **canaliculi** (ductus biliferi) which, passi out of the lobule (Fig. 792), join t **interlobular bile-ducts** (ductus int lobulares), and these uniting, finally e in the hepatic ducts.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE LIVER.

In man, the liver first appears as t hollow outgrowths from the ventral w of the foregut, in the position of the future duodenum. These outgrowths, which a formed entirely of endoderm (hypoblast), pass forwards and upwards into a mass mesodermic tissue—called by His the **septum transversum**—which lies in front of t foregut just below the heart. In addition to constituting the mesodermic bed in whi

of development the separation of the two becomes more n everywhere except at the coronary and lateral ligaments ligament in front, where they are still connected.

As the liver separates off from the future diaphragm, an there descends with it the **ventral mesentery**—a fold wh duodenum with the anterior abdominal wall. This is divi —a posterior, stretching from the front (lesser curvature) which becomes the lesser omentum; and an anterior, str anterior wall of the abdomen, which forms the falciform lig

In early fœtal life the liver is relatively of enormous s month it almost completely fills the abdominal cavity, lea for the intestines. Subsequently its relative size is not still occupies nearly half of the abdomen, and forms about $\frac{1}{}$ in the adult it is reduced to $\frac{1}{40}$th. At first the right and size; subsequently, the right grows more rapidly than the l twice, and in the adult four times, as large as the left. caudate and Spigelian lobes are relatively larger than in th

The changes which take place during development in t liver are described on p. 934.

THE PANCREAS.

The **pancreas** is an elongated glandular mass wh posterior abdominal wall, with its right end restin duodenum (Fig. 794), and its left end touching t digestive fluid—the pancreatic juice—which is conv the *pancreatic duct*, and constitutes one of the chief ag

The absence of a true capsule, and the resulting dist give the pancreas a very characteristic appearance (Fig

Position.—The greater part of the gland lies in t and adjacent part of the body extend into the left hyp

The head is placed opposite the second and upper part of th the body runs to the left, about the level of the first lumbar ver very often the lower portion of the head projects some distan thus lies in the umbilical region.

In **shape** the pancreas, when hardened *in situ*, i its right end being flattened and hook-like, whilst the matic and three-sided. It may, perhaps, in general the letter J placed thus ⊂, particularly if the stem thickened.

The gland is divisible into a head, a neck, and a l to the hook of the ⊂, and runs downwards and to and third portions of the duodenum. The stem of the the gland, and the narrow part connecting the two is t

When removed from the body without previous h its true form, and becomes drawn out into a slende mass, with a wider end turned towards the duodenu sponding to the tail.

Its total *length*, when fixed *in situ*, is about 5 or 6 inches (1 not previously hardened, it is easily extended to a length of 8 in

Its *weight* is usually about 3 ounces (87 grammes).

Relations.—The general position and relations of expressed as follows:—The head (Fig. 794) lies in the with the vena cava and aorta behind it; the body suprarenal capsule; and the tail touches the lower greater part of the organ lies behind the stomach from the great omentum, and turned upwards, in order

In describing the detailed relations, each part o be considered separately.

position of the peritoneum as a rule. Below this it is c
covered by the small intestine.

The **superior mesenteric vessels**, after passing forward t
descend in front of that portion of the head (processus unc
along the third part of the duodenum. The **superior pan**
downwards, and break up on the front of the head (Fig. 794

The **neck** (Fig. 794) is a comparatively attenuated po
in front of the portal vein, and connects the head to the bod
and right portion of the head, it runs upwards and to the l
and then passes into the body.

The neck is about ¾ inch (18 mm.) in width, and less than ½ in

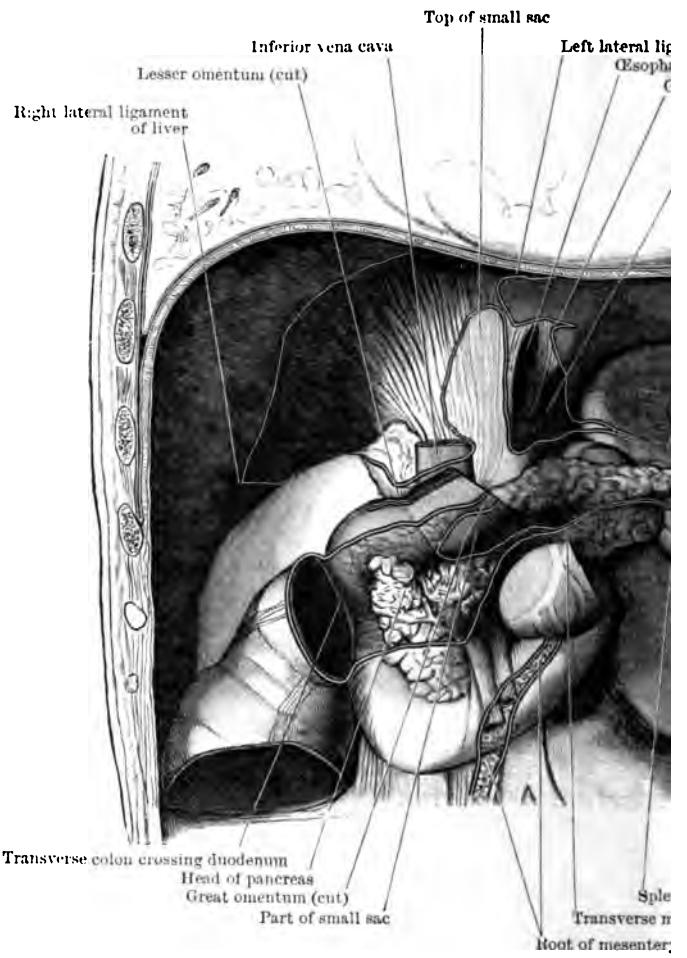

FIG. 795.—THE PERITONEAL RELATIONS OF THE DUODENUM, PAN

front and to its right lie the first part of the duodenum and the
rests upon the beginning of the portal vein, which is formed unde
union of the splenic and superior mesenteric veins. It has a part
anterior surface; and its beginning is generally marked off from
artery, with its continuation the superior pancreatico-duodenal,
gland substance between the head and neck.

The **body** is of a prismatic form, largest where it lies
and usually somewhat tapering towards the tail (Fig. 795)
tion of the neck, it runs backwards and to the left across
beyond which its extremity or tail comes in contact with th
situ it presents three surfaces—superior, inferior, and po
nearly equal width (namely, about 1¼ inch: 31 mm.).

The **upper surface** (facies anterior) is widest towards the left end; it looks upwards and forwards (Fig. 794), and forms a considerable portion of the stomach-bed. This surface is completely covered by peritoneum, derived from the posterior wall of the small sac, which latter separates the pancreas from the under surface of the stomach. Towards its right extremity it presents an elevation or prominence where the body joins the neck. This projects against the back of the small omentum when the stomach is distended, and is consequently known as the **omental tuberosity** (tuber omentale).

The **inferior surface of the body**, which, like the superior, is, as a rule, widest towards its left end, looks downwards and slightly forwards. It is completely covered by peritoneum, viz. the descending layer, derived from the transverse mesocolon (Fig. 795). It lies in contact with the duodeno-jejunal flexure towards its right end, with the splenic flexure of the colon near its left end, and with a mass of small intestine (jejunum, which is always found packed in beneath it) in the rest of its extent.

The **posterior surface of the body** looks directly backwards, and is entirely destitute of peritoneum. It is connected by areolar tissue to the posterior abdominal wall with the organs lying upon it. From right to left these are: the aorta with the origin of the superior mesenteric artery, the left renal vessels, the left suprarenal capsule, and the left kidney. In addition, the splenic artery runs its tortuous course to the left behind the upper border of the pancreas, whilst the splenic vein runs, behind the gland, at a lower level than the artery.

The three surfaces of the body of the pancreas are separated by three borders. The **anterior border** is the most prominent, and gives attachment to the transverse mesocolon (Fig. 795). It is, as it were, squeezed forward, by the pressure of the stomach above and the small intestine below, into the interval between these two sets of viscera, thus following the line of least resistance (Cunningham). Towards the neck this border is no longer prominent, but becomes rounded off, so that here the upper and lower surfaces are confluent.

The cœliac axis projects over the **upper border**, and sends its hepatic branch to the right, resting upon it, whilst the splenic artery runs to the left behind it (Fig. 794). The **inferior border** calls for no special description.

The **tail of the pancreas** is the somewhat pointed left end of the body, which is in contact with the lower portion of the gastric surface of the spleen. It usually presents an abrupt, blunt ending, in which case it is related to the spleen in the manner just described: or it may be elongated and narrow, when it bends backwards around the outer aspect of the kidney, and beneath the base of the spleen. In either case it lies in contact below with the splenic flexure of the colon (Fig. 794).

Peritoneal Relations of the Pancreas.—The posterior surface of the pancreas is entirely free from peritoneum. The other surfaces derive their peritoneal covering from the prolongation of the two layers of the transverse mesocolon, which latter is attached to the anterior border of the gland, from the tail to the neck. At this border the two layers separate (Fig. 777, p. 1098), the anterior—derived from the small sac—passing backwards and upwards over the superior surface; the posterior—derived from the large sac—turning downwards and backwards along the inferior surface.

As the transverse mesocolon is followed to the right it ceases, as a rule, that is, its two layers fail to meet about the neck of the pancreas (Fig. 795). Beyond this the posterior surface of the colon is generally free from peritoneum, and is connected by areolar tissue to the front of the head of the gland. Below the level of the colon the head is covered by the continuation downwards of the peritoneum from the under surface of that gut. Often, however, the transverse mesocolon is continued to the right as far as the hepatic flexure, when the anterior surface of the head is then completely covered by peritoneum.

Ducts of the Pancreas.—Almost invariably two ducts are found in the interior of the pancreas—the **pancreatic duct** proper and the **accessory pancreatic duct**.

The **pancreatic duct** (ductus pancreaticus Wirsungi) begins near the tip of the tail by the union of small ducts from the lobules forming that part of the organ. From this it pursues a rather sinuous or zigzag course (Fig. 796) through the axis of the gland, at first running transversely to the right, until the neck is reached, then bending downwards towards the head. Here it approaches the second portion of the duodenum, and meeting the bile duct, the two pierce the inner wall of the gut obliquely (for ½ to ¾ of an inch, 12 to 18 mm.), and open, by a common orifice on the bile papilla, about 3½ or 4 inches (8·7 to 10 cm.) beyond the pylorus (see p. 1120).

In its course through the gland the duct receives numerous branches, w join it, as a rule, at very open angles. These, as well as the main duct itself, easily recognised by the whiteness of their walls, as contrasted with the da colour of the gland tissue. The main duct receives branches from all portion the pancreas, and wards its termina has attained a cons able size (namely, to $\frac{1}{6}$th of an inch- to 4 mm.—when tened out, or some larger than a crow q

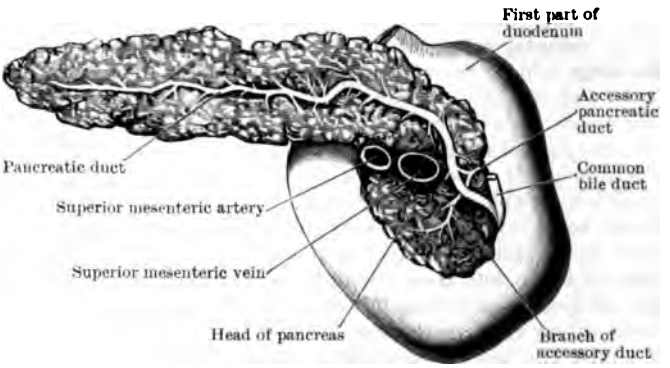

FIG. 796.—THE PANCREAS AND DUODENUM FROM BEHIND, with the pancreatic duct exposed.

The superior mesenteric vessels are also shown in section, passing forward, surrounded by the recurved portion of the head of the pancreas.

The **accessory creatic duct** (ductus creaticus accesso Santorini) is a small variably-developed (Fig. 796) which into the duodenum a $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch above somewhat in front (*i.e.* ventral to) the creatic duct. From the duodenum it runs to the left and downwards, and soon di into two or more branches, one of which joins the pancreatic duct, the others pass and receive the ducts from the lower part of the head. It is generally supposed that current flows from this into the main duct, and not into the duodenum, as a rule, ex in early life.

Physical Characters and Structure of the Pancreas.—The pancreas is reddish cream colour, soft to the touch, and distinctly lobulated. The lob are but loosely held together by their small ducts and by loose areolar tiss for, as already pointed out, the pancreas is devoid of a regular capsule, possesses instead merely an adventitious coat of fine connective tissue.

The gland belongs to the class of acino-tubular glands, its alveoli or acini be elongated like those of Brunner's glands; otherwise it corresponds very closely a serous salivary gland, the general structure of which will be found on p. 1007.

Variations.—The chief variations found are:—(1) A separation of the part of the h known as the uncinate process, which then forms a *lesser pancreas*. (2) A growth of the panc around the duodenum, which it may practically encircle for a short part of its course. And an opening of its duct into the duodenum, independently of the bile duct. An *accessory panc* (pancreas accessorium) is also sometimes found in the wall of the stomach or of the jejun Diverticula of the duodenum, already described (p. 1070), ought perhaps to be mentioned this connexion.

Vessels.—The **arteries** of the pancreas are:—(1) The **superior pancreatico-duodenal**, a bra of the gastro-duodenal artery, which runs down on the front of the head (Fig. 794), send branches outwards to the duodenum, as well as numerous twigs into the substance of pancreas. (2) The **inferior pancreatico-duodenal**, a branch of the upper part of the supe mesenteric artery; it runs upwards and to the right across the back of the head, sends branches to it and to the duodenum, one of which runs between the head and duodenum. These two pancreatico-duodenal arteries anastomose around the inferior border of head. (3) The **inferior pancreatic branch** of the superior mesenteric (or sometimes of the gast duodenal) artery, a considerable branch, which arises along with, or near, the last, and runs to left along the lower border of the pancreas, often even as far as its tail. (4) **Pancreatic branc** of the **splenic artery**, are several (3 to 5) fair-sized branches which come off from the sple as it runs behind the upper border of the gland; they enter the pancreas immediately, traverse its substance from above downwards, some sending branches in both directions al the course of the pancreatic duct. (5) Small **pancreatic branches** also arise from the **hepa artery** whilst it rests on the upper part of the gland, and enter it immediately. The p **creatica magna**, which is described as accompanying the duct from left to right, does not se to exist in the majority of cases.

The **veins** are: (1) An *anterior pancreatico-duodenal* (Fig. 794), which passes downwards to the left, on the front of the head, and joins the superior mesenteric; (2) a *posterior pancreat duodenal*, which crosses the back of the head, and opens into the portal vein; (3) several sm pancreatic veins which join the splenic; and (4) some from the upper part of the head

THE URINOGENITAL SYSTEM

By A. Francis Dixon.

THE URINARY ORGANS.

The **kidneys**, or glands which secrete the urine, are a pair of almost symmetrically-placed organs, situated in the posterior part of the abdominal cavity on each side of the lower movable portion of the vertebral column. The secreted by the kidneys is received into the upper expanded portions of a pair of long tubes, the **ureters**, by them is conducted to the **bladder**, which is within the pelvic cavity. From the bladder the urine is passed, during micturition, along the **urethra** to the exterior. In the male the urethra is a relatively long passage, and traverses the prostate gland and the whole length of the penis; in the female it is a short tube, and opens on the surface just above the vaginal orifice.

THE KIDNEYS.

The **kidney**, when removed from a fresh subject, presents a bean-shaped contour. It is of a dark brown-red colour, and is surrounded by a thin glistening capsule (tunica fibrosa), which gives to the whole organ a uniformly smooth surface. The kidney is not a solid body, but contains a cavity called the **renal sinus**, the opening into which, termed the **hilum** (hilum renalis), is situated on the middle and anterior part of the organ. Each kidney measures about 4½ inches in length, 2 inches in width, and about 1¼ inch in thickness, and is placed so that its long axis is nearly vertical. The weight of the adult kidney is about 4½ ounces. In the freshly-removed kidney the upper and lower ends are smoothly rounded, and the *upper end* (extremitas superior) is usually a little more bulky than the *lower* (extremitas inferior). The *outer border* (margo lateralis), which is opposite to the hilum, is rounded and convex, while the *inner border* (margo medialis), on which the hilum is placed, is concave from above downwards. These two borders separate the *anterior surface* (facies anterior) from the *posterior surface* (facies posterior) of the kidney.

The capsule, which envelops the whole organ, divides in the region of the hilum into two layers, one of which is continued over the lips of the hilum into the interior of the kidney, and lines the walls of the kidney sinus. The other layer is prolonged to form a tubular sheath for the vessels and nerves of the kidney before they pass through the hilum to enter the sinus, within which they break up into branches. These branches, piercing the wall of the sinus, enter the substance of the kidney. The upper expanded portion of the ureter leaves the sinus through the hilum in company with the blood-vessels and nerves.

Position of the Kidneys.—The precise level of the kidney in the abdominal cavity is subject to a considerable amount of variation, and also it is usual to find a difference in the levels of the right and left kidneys of the same individual. More frequently the left kidney is on a higher level than the right, but in many cases the kidneys occupy the same level, or, the more usual condition being reversed, the right kidney is a little higher than the left.

Sometimes the lower end of the kidney lies on the same level as, or o short distance above, the iliac crest, and this may be due to the crest rising higher level than usual, the kidney occupying its normal position in relati the vertebral column. It is important to remember that normally the ki moves upwards and downwards during life, following the respiratory moven of the part of the diaphragm against which it rests.

The kidneys are placed behind the peritoneum, and project into the post part of the abdominal cavity. Each is surrounded by a considerable amou loose tissue, often loaded with fat, the fatty tissue (capsula adiposa) being pr in greater quantity round the margins of the organ, and only to a less exte front of and behind the kidney. In this fat the renal vessels and nerves lie l they enter the organ, and the adipose tissue is continued, along with the ve

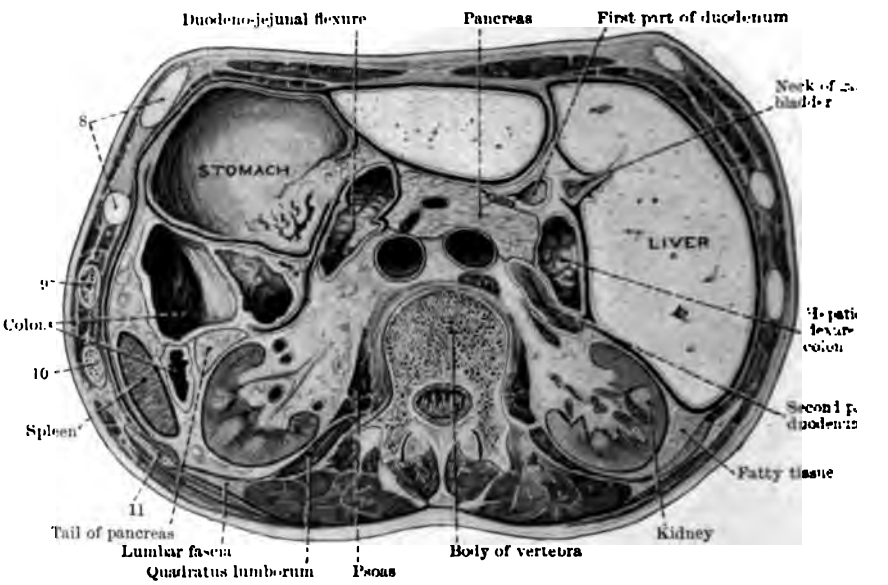

FIG. 798.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE ABDOMEN AT THE LEVEL OF THE SECOND LUMBAR VER The plane of the section is somewhat oblique, being lower behind than in front. The costal are numbered 8-11. On the right side the posterior layer of the renal fascia is indicated. F specimen in the Anatomical Department, University College, Cardiff.)

through the hilum into the kidney sinus, where it fills up all the space unoccu by the vessels and nerves.

The long axis of each kidney is somewhat oblique, as the upper end of the approaches nearer to the middle line than the lower. The surface of the kid which is applied against the muscles forming the posterior wall of the abdo looks, as a whole, backwards and inwards, and that which projects into abdominal cavity forwards and outwards. Hence it happens that the outer b of the kidney lies on a posterior plane to the inner border. The kidney is rot in this manner on its long axis to such a degree that the inner margin and h are scarcely visible from behind, and but a limited view of the outer border be obtained in front (Figs. 800 and 803).

Embedded in the soft fatty tissue surrounding the kidney is a layer of fib tissue to which the term **fascia renalis** is applied. This fascia surrounds kidney and a considerable amount of its fatty capsule in the form of a sheath, in which may be distinguished anterior and posterior walls. The sh is open below and internally, but closed above and to the outer side of the kid by the apposition of its walls. Externally the anterior and posterior wall the sheath come into contact and are connected with the retro-peritoneal tis internally the layers forming these walls remain distinct and the anterior on continued across the middle line, in front of the renal vessels and the aorta join the corresponding layer of the opposite side, while the posterior wall fu

surface against which it is placed, and so we find on a
fully fixed and hardened before it has been disturbe
different planes of these muscles. When the kidney is
elevations separating these areas correspond to the ang
muscular planes meet. These ridges can be observed i
its removal from the body, but usually they are nc
angles between the muscular planes being very obtuse.

A kidney removed from the body after having been
presents an area near the inner part of its posterior su
aspect of the psoas muscle. This part of the posterior
slightly backwards. Farther out there is a larger a
quadratus lumborum and looks more directly backw
separated by a rounded ridge which fits into the ang

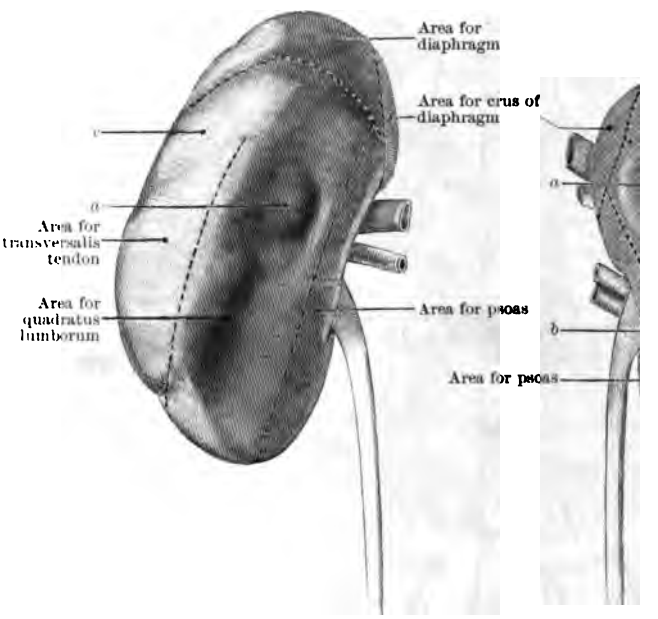

FIG. 800.—THE KIDNEYS VIEWED FROM BEHIND. Same specimen as F
the areas in contact with the various muscles forming the pos

a. Depression corresponding to the transverse process of the firs
b. Depression corresponding to the transverse process of the sec
c. Depression corresponding to the twelfth rib.

tioned. Beyond the area in contact with the quadra
outer border of the kidney.

Towards the upper end of the kidney the posterior
rests upon the diaphragm. Indeed the upper part o
bent slightly forwards, following that part of the arch o
rests, and thus a narrow interval is left, in which the pleu
the upper end of the kidney (Fig. 799). This relations
the kidney is of importance in connexion with surgi
performed through a lumbar incision. The portions
the kidney is applied are the crus and the parts ari
arcuate ligaments.

In addition to these surfaces, or facets, for the muscles v
posterior aspect or outer border of the kidney often shows a gro
the external arcuate ligament, and two or three depressions for t
of the upper two or three lumbar vertebræ. In some cases also
seen for the nerves which pass downwards and outwards betv
lumborum—namely, the last dorsal nerve and the ilio-hypogast
It is probable that some at least of the depressions on the po
produced after death, and are caused by the weight of the other

intestine varies much in different subjects. Frequently the colon and the k are both covered by peritoneum where they are in contact, but the duodem bound down to the kidney by the peritoneum. In addition to the struc mentioned, some portion of the ileum, or of the jejunum, is often found in c with a small part of the right kidney.

In some cases the peritoneal cavity does not pass upwards in front of the end of the right kidney, and thus the anterior aspect of this part of the org like the suprarenal body, bound by connective tissue to the uncovered area c liver.

In front of the extreme upper and inner part of the **left kidney** is the in portion of the left suprarenal capsule; at a lower level the upper part c left kidney is in contact with the stomach and pancreas. The suprarenal ca and the pancreas are bound down to the kidney by connective tissue, bu stomach is separated from the part of the kidney with which it is in appositi the lesser sac of the peritoneum. The part of the kidney in actual contact the stomach is usually a small, somewhat triangular, area situated above the at which the pancreas crosses the organ. The renal surface of the spl related to the anterior surface of the left kidney in its upper and outer par two organs being separated by a portion of the general peritoneal cavity, e along the area where spleen and kidney are connected by the lieno-renal liga The anterior surface of the lower end of the left kidney is related, toward inner side, to a part of the jejunum, and towards the outer side to a part o splenic flexure of the colon.

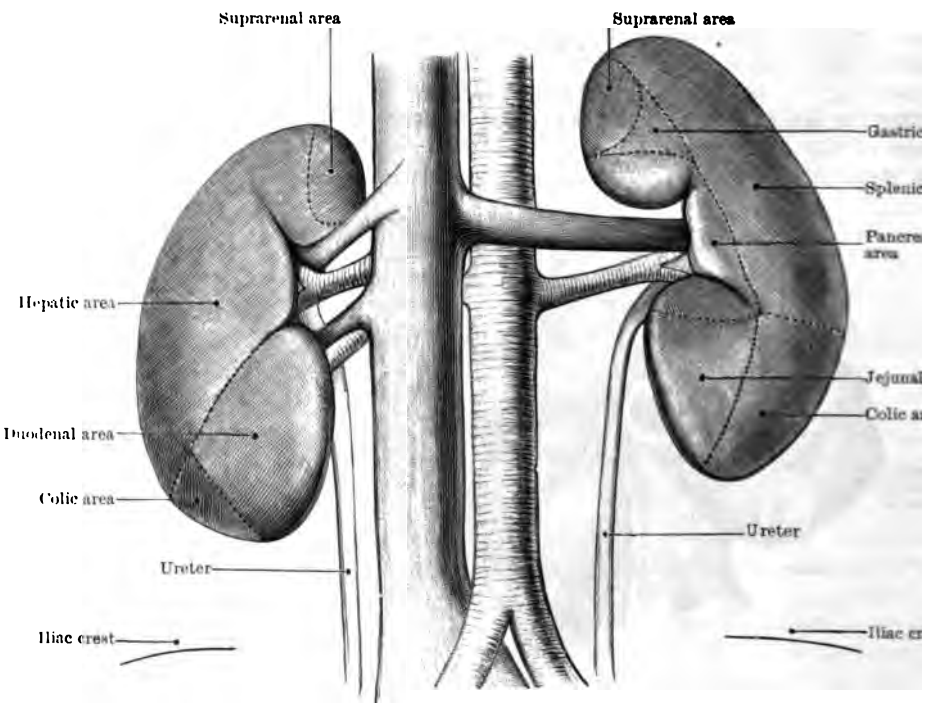

FIG. 803.—THE KIDNEYS AND GREAT VESSELS, viewed from the front. The drawing was made, removal of the organs, from a specimen in which the viscera had been hardened *in situ*. The lines mark out the areas which were in contact with the various other abdominal viscera.

The right and left colic arteries, or their branches, as they pass outwards to reac colon, are often related to the anterior aspects of the corresponding kidneys. The s vessels pass outwards in front of the inner part of the left kidney (Fig. 797).

The anterior surface of a kidney, which has been hardened *in situ*, is, lik posterior surface, not uniformly rounded, but marked by a series of impres corresponding to the different structures which lie in contact with it. In the of each kidney, the most prominent region on the anterior surface lies below

The urine secreted by the kidney escapes through these foramina into the up part of the ureter.

Kidney in Section.—Sections (Fig. 804) through the kidney show it to for the most part, composed of a number of pyramidal masses arranged with th bases towards the surface, while their apices project into the sinus of the kid and form the renal papillæ already mentioned. These are termed the **medull pyramids** (pyramides renales), and together constitute the **medulla** (substantia med laris) of the kidney. They are more numerous than the papillæ, two or three usua ending in each papilla in the middle part of the kidney, and sometimes as many six or even more in each papilla near the upper and lower ends of the organ. T bases of the pyramids do not reach the surface of the kidney, but are separa from it by a thin layer of kidney substance called the **cortex**, or **cortical part** the kidney (substantia corticalis). The cortical substance not only covers over bases of the pyramids, but also sends in prolongations, called **columns of Ber** (columnæ renales), between the pyramids, towards the sinus. The medullary p of the kidney exhibits in section a striated appearance, while the cortical part more granular and usually different in colour. The outer part of each pyramid, the **intermediate zone** (basis pyramidis), as it is termed, appears in section to composed of alternate dark and light streaks, while the inner, or **papillary pa** which is of a lighter colour, is more uniformly and faintly striated.

In sections of the kidney the larger blood-vessels are seen, after they ha entered the kidney substance, to lie between the pyramids; some of their m branches are also visible passing across the bases of the pyramids.

In the fœtus and young child, and sometimes, though much less distinctly, in the adu the surface of the kidney is marked by a number of grooves dividing it into polygo areas. These represent the lo (lobi renales) or "Renculi," which the kidney is origina composed, and each correspon to one papilla with its pyram and surrounding cortical s stance.

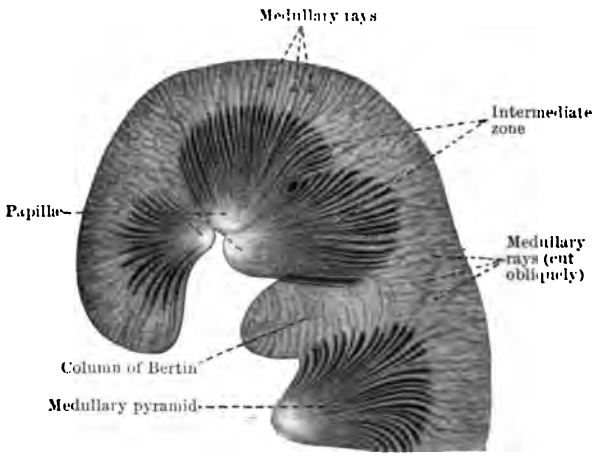

FIG. 805.—SECTION THROUGH A PORTION OF THE KIDNEY.

The darker parts separating the medullary rays, represent the labyrinth portion of the cortex.

An examination, with ordinary pocket lens, of section through the kidn shows that the lighter str of the intermediate zone a continued into the cort As they pass through the cort towards the surface of t kidney they become less d tinct, and appear, when c longitudinally, as separate ra like prolongations carried ou ward from the bases of t pyramids. These parts of t cortex, which seem in this way to be continuations of the medulla, are called **medulla rays** (pars radiata), and the portions of kidney cortex which intervene between the form the **labyrinth** (pars convoluta, Fig. 806). The appearance presented by th cortex of the kidney in section varies much according to the plane in which th section has been taken. If the section passes through, and lies parallel to th axis of a pyramid, the medullary rays, met with, will appear as isolated strea directed from the base of the pyramid towards the surface of the kidney and separate from one another by narrow strips or intervals of labyrinth. On the other hand, sections made at right angles to the axis of a pyramid, or cutting this axis obliquel the labyrinth portion of the cortex presents the appearance of a continuous net th meshes of which are occupied by the medullary rays, and these latter now exhib a circular or oval outline (Fig. 805). In a similar manner sections through th

Vessels of the Kidney.—The renal artery is very large in proportion to the size of the organ to which it conveys blood. Its main branches, as they approach the kidney to enter the hilum, lie between the tributaries of the renal vein in front, and the ureter behind. Within the sinus of the kidney the branches of the renal artery become arranged in a dorsal and a ventral group, the dorsal vessels lying behind, the ventral ones in front of the subdivisions of the ureter. The ventral group of vessels supplies the part of the kidney which forms the anterior and outer walls of the sinus; the distribution of the dorsal group is for the most part restricted to the portion of the kidney which lies behind, and to the inner side of, the sinus. Entering the substance of the kidney in the manner described above (p. 1137), the larger arteries lie in the intervals between the pyramids, and are called the **interlobar arteries** (arteriæ interlobares renis). These vessels, dividing, form a series of incomplete arterial arches (arteriæ arciformes), which pass across the bases of the pyramids. Although we speak of arterial arches, it must be understood that no anastomosis between the branches of the interlobar arteries actually takes place, but that each artery which enters the wall of the kidney sinus has an isolated distribution and possesses the characters of an end artery. From the arches two chief sets of branches come off—those of one set are continued towards the periphery and enter the labyrinth, while those of the second set pursue a recurrent course and enter the intermediate zone of the medulla. The latter vessels, called **arteriolæ rectæ**, give rise to the coarsely-striated appearance which this part of the kidney exhibits in section. Each of these vessels, entering the medulla, divides into a number of fine branches which run nearly parallel to one another, and supply the tubules in this region of the kidney. The vessels directed outwards, or **interlobular arteries** (arteriæ interlobulares), pass through the labyrinth towards the surface of the kidney. They give off a number of short branches termed **vasa afferentia**, each of which proceeds to the dilated extremity, or capsule, of a uriniferous tubule. Here the vas afferens breaks up into a much convoluted capillary mass called a **glomerulus**, which is contained within the invagination of the capsule. The little vein which issues from the glomerulus, or **vas efferens**, instead of running directly into a larger vein breaks up, after the manner of an artery, into capillaries which supply the tubules of the labyrinth and medullary rays. Hence almost all the blood which supplies the tubules of the cortical part of the kidney passes in the first instance through the glomeruli. Some of the tubules of the intermediate zone also receive their blood-supply through vasa efferentia derived from the glomeruli which lie near. These little vessels passing from glomeruli into the intermediate zone of the medulla accompany the arteriolæ rectæ and are sometimes spoken of as false arteriolæ rectæ.

The fibrous capsule of the kidney receives minute branches from the interlobular arteries, some of which, piercing the capsule, communicate by capillaries with the vessels of the tunica adiposa.

Veins corresponding to the interlobular arteries and arteriolæ rectæ collect the blood from the capillaries surrounding the tubules, and unite to form a series of complete arches across the bases of the pyramids. From these venous arcades vessels arise, which traverse the intervals between the pyramids and reach the sinus of the kidney, where they unite to form the dorsal and ventral tributaries of the renal vein. Some small veins in the superficial part of the cortex communicate through the fibrous capsule with minute veins in the tunica adiposa.

Nerves of the Kidney.—The nerves of the kidney accompany the branches of the artery, and issue from the renal plexus.

From clinical evidence it would appear that the nerve fibres which reach the kidney are derived from the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth thoracic nerves. The minute branches of the nerves form regular net-like plexuses on the walls of the fine arteries and kidney tubules, and the presence of nerve terminations occurring among the epithelial cells lining the tubules has recently been demonstrated.

Variations.—A marked difference in the size of the two kidneys is sometimes observed, a small kidney on one side of the body being usually compensated for by a large kidney on the opposite side. Cases of complete absence of one or other kidney are recorded.

Traces of the superficial lobulation of the kidney, present in the fœtus and young child, are often retained in the adult.

Horse-shoe kidney is not an infrequent abnormality. In these cases the two kidneys are united at their lower ends, across the middle line, by a connecting piece of kidney substance. The amount of fusion between the two kidneys varies much; it is sometimes very complete, while in other cases it is but slight, the connexion being chiefly composed of fibrous tissue.

In very rare cases the kidney appears to be almost entirely surrounded by peritoneum and to be attached to the abdominal wall by a kind of mesentery, enclosing the vessels and nerves passing to the hilum. The condition is believed to be congenital.

Not very infrequently one or both kidneys are found at a much lower level than usual, and occupying a position in the iliac fossa or the pelvic cavity. This condition, when congenital, is associated with an arrest in the normal change in position, relative to surrounding structures, which the kidney experiences during development. In such cases the kidney does not receive its blood supply from usually placed renal arteries, but from vessels which arise from the lower end of the aorta, or from the iliac, or the middle sacral artery. These congenitally abnormally situated kidneys do not usually possess the typical outline of the normal organ, but vary much in shape, and the hilum is often directed downwards and not inwards.

In some mammalian animals, such as the bear, the ox, the porpoise, etc., the kidneys are composed of a number of completely isolated lobes, each of which corresponds to one papilla, its pyramids and surrounding cortex; while in others, such as the horse, the fusion of the lobes is more complete even than in the human kidney, and a single mass represents the united papillæ.

The Duct of the Kidney.

The duct of the kidney begins above in a thin-walled funnel-shaped expansion called the **pelvis** (pelvis renalis), placed partly within and partly outside the sinus of the kidney. Towards the level of the lower end of the kidney the part of the pelvis which lies outside the sinus diminishes in calibre, and forms a tube termed **the ureter** (Fig. 807).

Pelvis of the Kidney.—Within the sinus of the kidney the pelvis lies for the most part behind the larger renal vessels, and is formed by the junction of two, or more rarely three, thin-walled tubes (calyces majores), each of which has a number of branches. These latter, called **infundibula, or calyces** (calyces renales), are short, and increase in diameter as they approach the sinus wall. Their wide, somewhat funnel-like ends enclose the renal papillæ, the secretion from which they receive and conduct to the pelvis. The calyces are usually about twelve in number, one calyx sometimes surrounding two or even three papillæ. The portion of the pelvis that lies outside the kidney has in front of it, in addition to the renal vessels, on the right side the second part of the duodenum, and on the left side a part of the pancreas and sometimes the duodeno-jejunal flexure (Fig. 794).

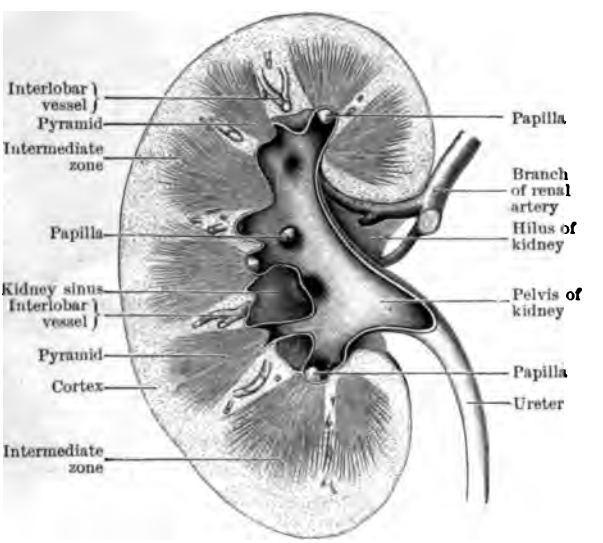

Fig. 807.—Longitudinal Section of the Kidney, opening up the Kidney Sinus.

The pelvis of the ureter and some of its calyces have been laid open as they lie within the sinus.

Ureter.—The ureter is the vessel which carries the urine from the pelvis of the kidney to the bladder. It is a pale-coloured thick-walled duct with a small lumen. While *in situ* it has a total length of about ten inches, and lies throughout its whole course behind the peritoneum, to which it is closely connected, in the sub-peritoneal tissue. In its upper part the ureter lies in the abdominal cavity, and in its lower part in the pelvic cavity (Figs. 796, 794, and 808).

The normal ureter, in the flaccid condition, measures after its removal from the body eleven to fourteen inches.

The **abdominal portion** of the ureter (pars abdominalis), about five or five and a half inches in length, is directed downwards and slightly inwards, and lies upon the psoas muscle. Certain structures are related to the ureters in a similar manner on each side of the body; for instance, the abdominal portion of each ureter is crossed very obliquely, on its anterior aspect, by the spermatic or ovarian vessels, and behind each duct the genito-crural nerve passes downwards and outwards. Other

structures are related to the duct of the right or left side alone; on the right sid the descending, or second, part of the duodenum lies in front of the upper part of th ureter, and the line of attachment of the mesentery crosses it lower down, just befo the vessel enters the pelvic cavity. On the left side of the body the line of attac ment of the mesentery of the pelvic colon crosses the ureter.

Crossing the common iliac, or the external iliac artery, the ureter enters th pelvis. The left ureter more usually crosses the common iliac artery, the righ vessel in most cases lies across the external iliac, but this arrangement is by n means constant.

The pelvic portion of the ureter (pars pelvina) is about four or four and a ha inches in length, and passes downwards on the side wall of the pelvis, immediatel beneath the peritoneum, describing a curve which is convex backwards and outward (Fig. 808). The most convex portion of this curve lies close to the deepe

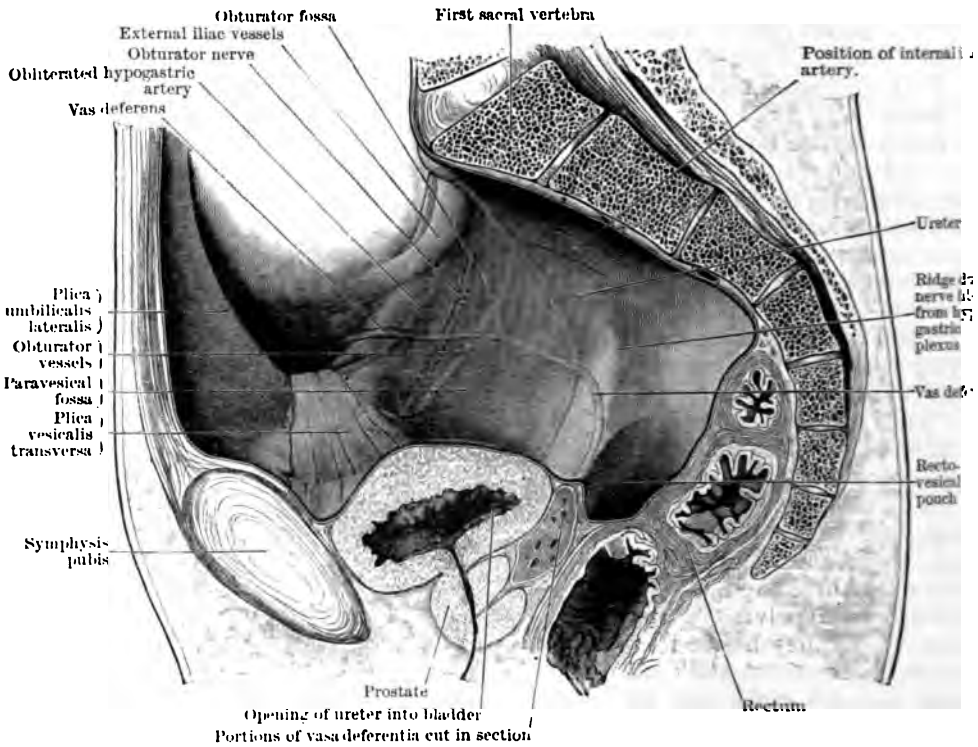

Fig. 808.—Mesial Section of an Adult Male Pelvis.

The coils of the small intestine which lay within the pelvis have been lifted out in order to give a view of t side wall of the pelvic cavity. The peritoneum is coloured blue. The separation of the bladder fr the prostate is indicated somewhat diagrammatically.

part of the great sciatic notch (Figs. 831 and 854). In its course within th pelvis the ureter lies in front of the internal iliac artery, and crosses the inner aspe of the obturator nerve and vessels and of the obliterated hypogastric artery. Abou the level of the ischial spine the ureter bends somewhat inwards above the fascia the pelvic floor, to reach the bladder, and in this position it is crossed on its inne side by the vas deferens. A little further on in its course the ureter comes int relationship with the upper end of the vesicula seminalis, in front of which it lie as it pierces the bladder wall. The ureter, as it passes inwards to the bladder, i placed on an anterior and deeper plane than the vas deferens, and is surrounded b a dense plexus of veins, connecting the vesical and prostatic plexuses with th internal iliac vein. When the right and left ureters reach the bladder they are little more than two inches apart and they pierce the bladder wall very obliquely lying embedded within its muscular tissue for nearly three quarters of an inch of their length. Finally, they open into the bladder by two small slit-like

The mucous membrane of the calyces and of the pelvis of the kidney posses epithelium resembling that of the ureter. Where each renal papilla projects one of the calyces a deep circular recess, or fornix, is formed between the w the calyx and the sloping side of the papilla; at the bottom of this rece epithelium of the calyx becomes continuous with that covering the papilla. the formina papillaria the epithelium joins that of the kidney tubules. muscular fibres in the wall of the calyces and of the pelvis are collected into l arranged bundles separated by wide intervals occupied by fibrous connective t As in the ureter, the outermost and innermost fibres run in a longitudina intermediate ones in a circular direction. The circularly arranged fibres form a distinct layer.

The abdominal part of the ureter receives its blood supply from the rena spermatic arteries; the pelvic portion is supplied by the superior vesical middle haemorrhoidal vessels.

The nerves of the ureter reach it through the renal, the spermatic, an hypogastric plexuses.

Variations.– The ureter is sometimes represented by two tubes in its upper portion. I cases it is double throughout the greater part of its extent, or even its whole length fr pelvis of the kidney to the bladder. In such cases there may be two openings into the b Asymmetry as regards such abnormalities is very common.

Variations in the form of the pelvis of the kidney are of frequent occurrence. Most o the pelvis divides into two large subdivisions, one of which passes in the direction of the the other in that of the lower pole of the kidney. In some cases these branches come off d from the ureter without the intervention of a pelvis, or a subdivision may lead to the for of two pelves.

THE BLADDER.

The **bladder** (vesica urinaria) is a hollow muscular organ situated in the an part of the pelvic cavity, behind the symphysis pubis. It lies in front o rectum, from which it is separated *in the male* by the seminal vesicles an terminal portions of the vasa deferentia, and *in the female* by the vagina uterus. The bladder wall is chiefly composed of muscular tissue, and its thic and the size of the contained cavity depends on the amount of fluid within organ. The right and left ureters which convey the fluid secreted by the ki open into the lower and under part of the bladder about half an inch fro mesial plane; also the urethra, or canal by which the urine reaches the su opens into the bladder, its aperture lying in the middle line of the under pa the bladder wall, not far from the openings of the ureters, but on a lower anterior plane. The size and shape of the bladder, and also to a great exte relations, vary with the amount of distension, or contraction, of the organ. W the bladder is empty, or only slightly distended, it lies within the pelvic ca as it becomes filled with urine it rises above the pubis, and, crossing the p brim, enters the abdominal cavity. These changes affect chiefly the upper pa the bladder, which becomes altered in shape and size, and acquires new conne and relations; the lower portion varies but slightly with the amount of diste of the organ (see Figs. 809 and 810). The position occupied by the bla depends, to a certain extent, on the condition of the rectum, for when the l part of the rectum is distended, the bladder as a whole is thrust somewhat upw and forwards. The upper part of the bladder is covered by peritoneum, whi reflected on to it from the anterior abdominal wall in front, from the sides o pelvis laterally, and, *in the male*, across the seminal vesicles and terminal par the vasa deferentia from the rectum behind. *In the female* the peritoneum p on to the bladder posteriorly from the anterior surface of the uterus. peritoneum dips down posteriorly for a certain distance between the bladder rectum in the male, forming the recto-vesical or recto-genital pouch; in the fe a slit-like peritoneal depression, called the utero-vesical pouch, intervenes betw the anterior surface of the uterus and the bladder (Fig. 818). The under pa the bladder which lies below the peritoneum is for the most part directed tow the pelvic floor. In the middle line it is supported by the symphysis pubis and

retro-pubic pad of fat; further back *in the male* it rests upon the prostate and on **the** lower part of the rectum, from which latter it is separated by the vesiculæ **seminales** and the terminal parts of the vasa deferentia. *In the female* it rests **upon** the anterior wall of the vagina. Laterally the bladder is supported by the

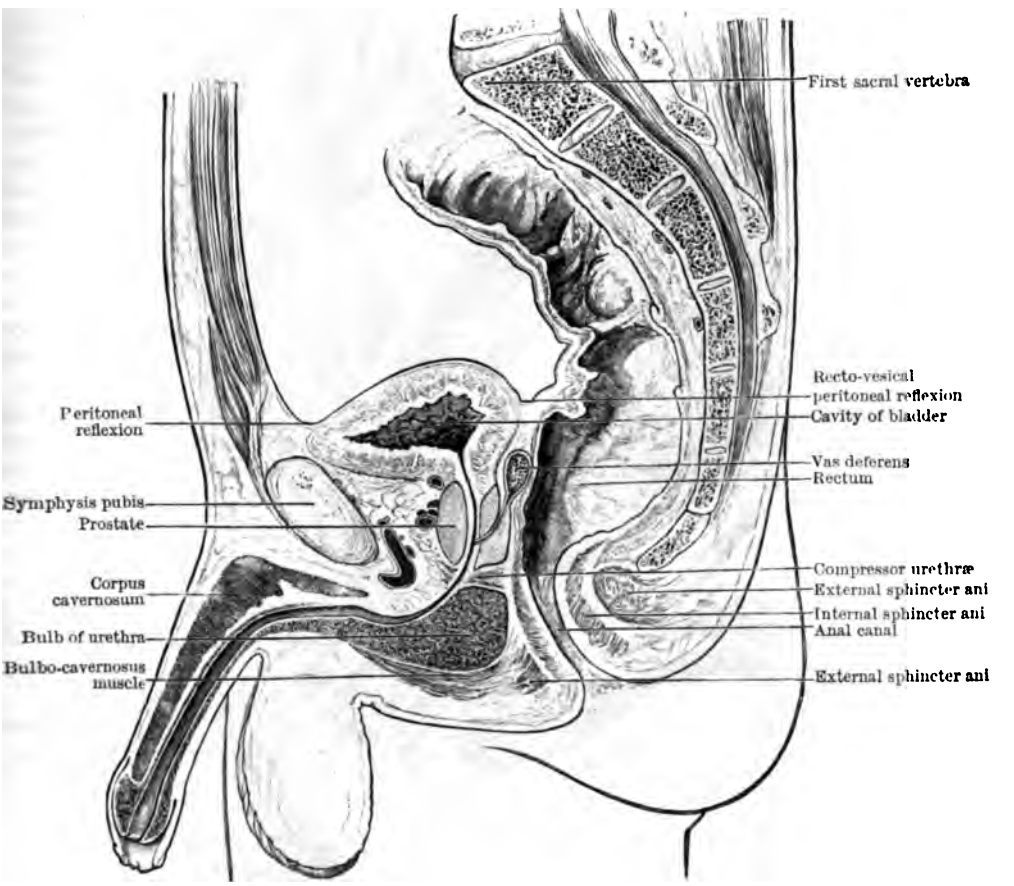

FIG. 809.—MESIAL SECTION THROUGH THE MALE PELVIS.

The bladder contains but a small amount of fluid. The separation between the bladder and prostate is shown somewhat diagrammatically. Drawn from a preparation in the Anatomical Department, Trinity College, Dublin.

levatores ani muscles, and further from the middle line it is in contact on each side with the obturator internus; it is separated from both of these muscles by a layer of the pelvic fascia.

The opening of the urethra, or **internal urethral orifice** (orificium urethræ internum), is placed in or near the part of the bladder wall which lies lowest in the pelvic cavity. The term **neck** or **cervix**, is often applied to this region, the bladder appearing as if it were suddenly constricted here to form the urethra. The portion of the bladder wall behind the urethral orifice, which is directed *in the male* towards the anterior wall of the rectum and lies below and in front of the recto-vesical pouch, is called the **base** of the bladder (fundus vesicæ); it is closely related to the seminal vessels and ampullæ of the vasa deferentia. The corresponding part of the bladder *in the female* rests against the anterior wall of the vagina. The term **apex**, or **summit** of the bladder (vertex vesicæ) is applied to the portion which lies nearest to the upper border of the symphysis when the organ is empty, and rises high above the pubis into the abdominal cavity when the bladder is distended. Connected with the apex of the bladder is a fibrous cord (ligamentum umbilicale medium) which passing upwards, in the middle line, on the posterior aspect of the anterior abdominal wall reaches the umbilicus, and represents the

when the bladder is full and the rectum empty, and at its highest level when the bladder is empty and the rectum distended.

Under Aspect of the Bladder.—The lower part of the bladder, which is directed towards the pelvic floor, changes, as we have seen, but slightly with the varying amount of distension of the viscus. When the organ has been carefully hardened before its removal from the body, it is possible to map out on its under aspect three convex triangular areas, which may be distinguished from one another by the directions in which they look. The three areas approach one another in the region of the urethral orifice, where, in the male, a portion of the under aspect of the bladder wall is structurally continuous with the upper part of the prostate. Behind the urethral orifice is a triangular district, directed downwards and backwards, and related, *in the male*, to the seminal vesicles and the terminal portions of the vasa deferentia which, together with the recto-vesical layer of the pelvic fascia, intervene in this position between the bladder and the rectum. This triangular area of the bladder wall is known as the **base**, or **postero-inferior surface** of the bladder, and *in the female* it is directed against the anterior wall of the vagina. The rest of the under aspect of the bladder is formed by two **infero-lateral areas**, or surfaces, which meet in the middle line in front of the urethral orifice, and are directed for the most part downwards and outwards (see Fig. 811). Each of these areas extends backwards to join the postero-inferior surface, or base, along a rounded border which lies between the point where the ureter reaches the bladder and the urethral orifice. The infero-lateral part of the bladder wall rests against the fascia covering the levator ani and the obturator internus muscles, and, nearer the middle line, upon the pubes and retro-pubic pad of fat.

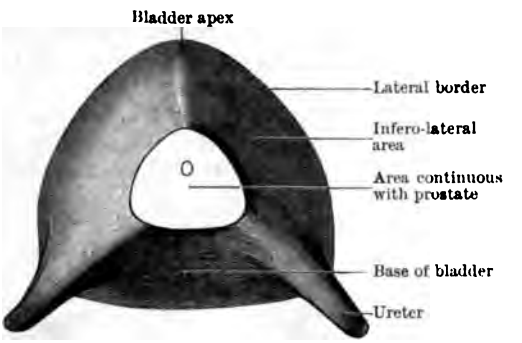

FIG. 811.—UNDER ASPECT OF THE EMPTY MALE BLADDER from a subject in which the viscera had been hardened *in situ*.

The prostate has been severed from the bladder, and the white area in the drawing indicates the position where the two structures were continuous.

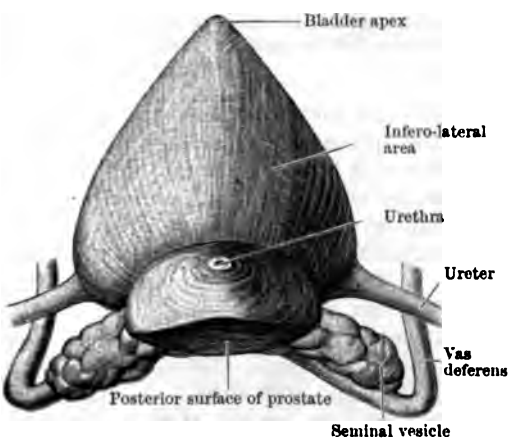

FIG. 812.—THE BLADDER, PROSTATE, AND SEMINAL VESICLES, VIEWED FROM BELOW.

Taken from a subject in which the viscera were hardened *in situ*. Same specimen as figure 813, A. The bladder contained but a small amount of fluid.

The three rounded borders which mark off the three triangular areas on the under aspect of the bladder, just described, extend from the region of the urethral orifice to the bladder apex, and to the points where the ureters reach the bladder wall (see Fig. 811).

Shape and Relations of the Empty Bladder.—When the bladder is empty, or nearly so, it has, roughly speaking, the shape of an inverted tetrahedron, whose apex corresponds to the point where the urethra leaves the organ, while the base of the tetrahedron is formed by the superior surface of the bladder. The three basal angles of the tetrahedron correspond to the bladder apex and to the two **lateral angles** of the bladder, or points where the ureters join the organ. The three surfaces, which meet inferiorly at the urethral orifice, are only marked off from one another by rounded borders, but as long as the organ is empty, or nearly so, they are separated by distinct borders from the superior surface. These three areas have been already described as the infero-lateral surfaces and the base of the bladder (Figs. 811 and 812). Their relations have also been indicated. The

superior surface of the empty bladder looks upwards into the pelvic cavity; it is convex when the organ is contracted, concave when relaxed. This surface is covered by peritoneum, and its outline, which is approximately triangular, is determined by lateral and posterior borders (Fig. 829). The **lateral borders** of the empty bladder are sharply marked, and extend from the bladder apex to the lateral angles of the bladder, or points where the ureters join the organ. They separate the superior surface from the infero-lateral portions of the under aspect of the bladder wall (Fig. 813, A). The **posterior border** stretches across between the lateral angles of the bladder, and separates the superior from the basal surface of the viscus. The superior surface is related in the male to coils of intestine; in the female it is also related to the anterior surface of the uterus. The lateral border of the empty bladder lies against the pelvic fascia just above, or at the level of the upper limit of the levator ani muscle. The vas deferens crosses the side wall of the pel-

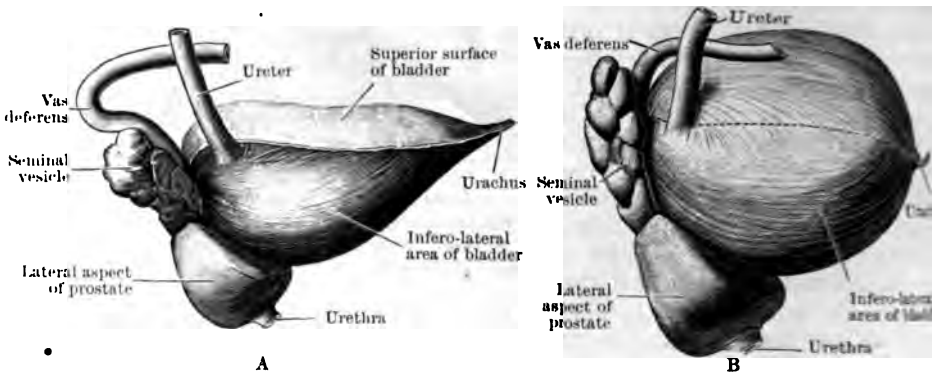

FIG. 813.—THE BLADDER, PROSTATE, AND SEMINAL VESICLE, VIEWED FROM THE OUTER SIDE.

Drawn from specimens in which the viscera were hardened before removal from the body. In A the bladder contained but a very small quantity of fluid; in B the quantity was somewhat greater. In A the peritoneum is shown covering the upper surface of the bladder, and its cut edge is seen where reflected along the lateral border of the organ. In B the level of the peritoneal reflexion is indicated by a dotted line.

parallel to it, but at a considerably higher level. In mesial section the cavity of the empty and relaxed bladder often presents the appearance of a Y-shaped cleft, the stem of the Y being represented by the urethra as it leaves the organ, and the limbs by the narrow intervals between the superior surface and the under part of the bladder wall which lie in front of and behind the urethral orifice. This relation of form is sometimes described as the diastolic condition of the empty bladder, as it is found associated with a bladder wall of but little thickness, and a concave upper surface. The condition is usually the result of an escape of fluid after death when the bladder wall has lost the power of contracting. It certainly does not represent a normal condition of the organ in the living. The normal empty bladder is strongly contracted, and its wall is thick and firm. A distinct Y-shaped appearance is not presented by its cavity in mesial section, but the interior of the organ is seen as a simple narrow interval continuous with the canal of the urethra.

Distended Bladder.—As the bladder fills with fluid the superior wall is raised upwards from the intero-lateral and basal walls, and, at the same time, the borders separating the superior from the other surfaces of the bladder become first more rounded and then obliterated. The lateral borders of the bladder becoming in this manner opened out, give rise to so-called **lateral surfaces** of the distended organ. These surfaces, however, are not sharply marked off and are directly continuous with the superior surface. During distension also, the angles present in the empty condition of the organ become rounded as the entire bladder wall becomes more uniformly convex. The general shape of the bladder becomes altered during distension — from the tetrahedral form of the empty organ, already described, the bladder as it becomes filled assumes first a somewhat spherical, then an oval contour. During distension the enlar-

bladder does not appear to vary much with the distension, or contraction, of the organ (compare Figs. 809 and 810), and thus the fossa between the bladder and rectum

FIG. 815.—LATERAL ASPECT OF BLADDER CONTAINING TEN OUNCES OF FLUID. (Normally distended.)
The dotted line indicates the line along which the peritoneum was reflected from the organ.

becomes relatively very deep when the bladder is full. The bladder in normal distension may contain as much as one pint, but in most cases the organ is emptied

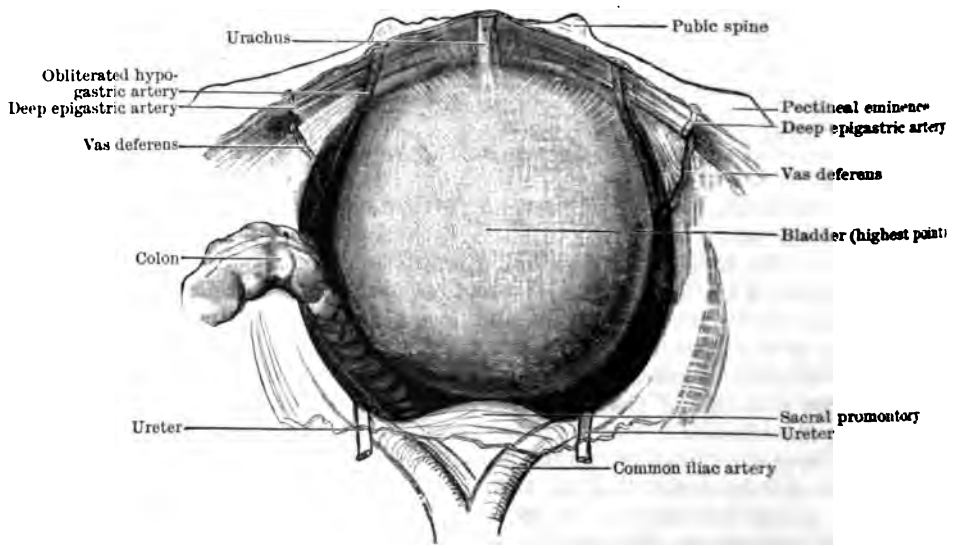

FIG. 816.—VIEW LOOKING INTO THE PELVIS FROM ABOVE AND SOMEWHAT BEHIND.
The bladder has been artificially distended.

when its contents reach from six to ten ounces. Under abnormal, or pathological conditions the bladder capacity may be much increased.

Varying Relationships, according to the degree of Distension of the Bladder.—When the bladder is distended the obliterated hypogastric artery may cross forwards against its side, when empty the obliterated vessel where nearest often lies as much as one and a quarter inches above the lateral border of the organ (Figs. 808 and 814). The vas deferens, during a part of its course, is in contact with the side wall of the distended bladder, but lies when the organ is empty above and parallel to the lateral border, only coming into relationship with the basal surface of the bladder beyond the point where it crosses the ureter. The side wall of the distended bladder is closely related to the obturator vessels and nerves.

Interior of the Bladder.—The mucous membrane lining the bladder is loosely connected to the muscular coat, and when the bladder is contracted the mucous lining is thrown into a number of prominent wrinkles or folds (Fig. 817). At one place only the mucous membrane is firmly connected to the subjacent muscular coat, and the inner surface of this part of the bladder wall is smooth and free from wrinkles. This smooth area, called the **trigonum vesicæ**, corresponds to a triangular surface behind the urethral orifice and to the part of the bladder wall which immediately surrounds the opening. The apex lies at the beginning of the urethra, and the base of the triangle is formed by a line drawn between the openings of the ureters into the bladder. Just behind the urethral opening the bladder wall sometimes bulges slightly into the cavity, owing to the presence beneath it of the middle lobe of the prostate. When well marked, as it often is in old people, this elevation is termed the **uvula vesicæ**. Stretching across between the openings of the ureters there is usually to be seen a smooth ridge, which is due to the presence of a bundle of transversely-disposed muscle fibres, within this part of the bladder wall, beneath the mucous membrane. This ridge, which may be deficient near the middle line, has been called the "torus uretericus," and curved so as to be convex forwards. The lateral portions of the ridge which lie outside the openings of the ureters are called the **plicæ ureterica**, and are produced by the terminal parts of the ureters as they traverse the bladder wall and lie beneath the mucous coat of the bladder (Fig. 817). In old people the region behind the trigonum is usually distinctly depressed and forms a shallow fossa, sometimes called the retro-ureteric fossa. A less distinct shallow depression may sometimes be observed on each side of the trigone. Round the urethral orifice are a number of minute radially-disposed folds which, disappearing into the urethra, become continuous with the longitudinal folds of the mucous membrane of the first part of that canal. The ureters pierce the bladder wall very obliquely, and so the minute opening (orificium ureteris) of each has an elliptical outline. The outer boundary of each opening is formed by a thin, crescentic fold, which, when the bladder is artificially distended in the dead subject, acts as a valve in preventing water or air from entering the ureter. Hence the term "valvula ureteris" is sometimes used to designate the fold. In the empty bladder the urethral orifice and the openings of the two ureters lie at the angles of an approximately equilateral triangle, whose sides are about one inch in length. When the bladder is distended, the distance between the openings may be increased to one and a half inches or more.

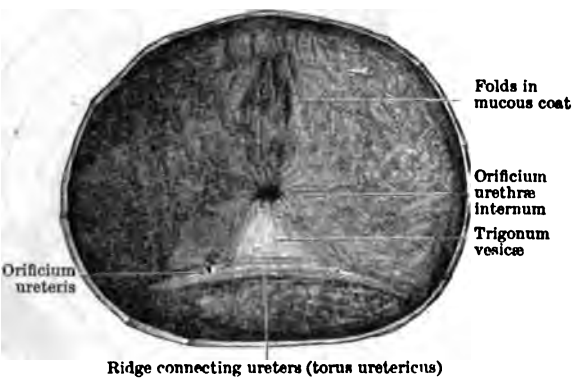

FIG. 817.—VIEW OF THE INTERIOR OF THE BLADDER IN THE REGION OF THE URETHRAL ORIFICE.

Bladder in the Female.—In the female the bladder is related behind to the uterus and upper part of the vagina. The anterior surface of the uterus in its upper part is separated from the upper surface of the bladder by the shallow utero-vesical pouch of peritoneum, but the two organs are nevertheless normally in apposition. So close is this relationship that the upper surface of the bladder very

often shows a slight concavity, due to contact with the convex anterior wall of the

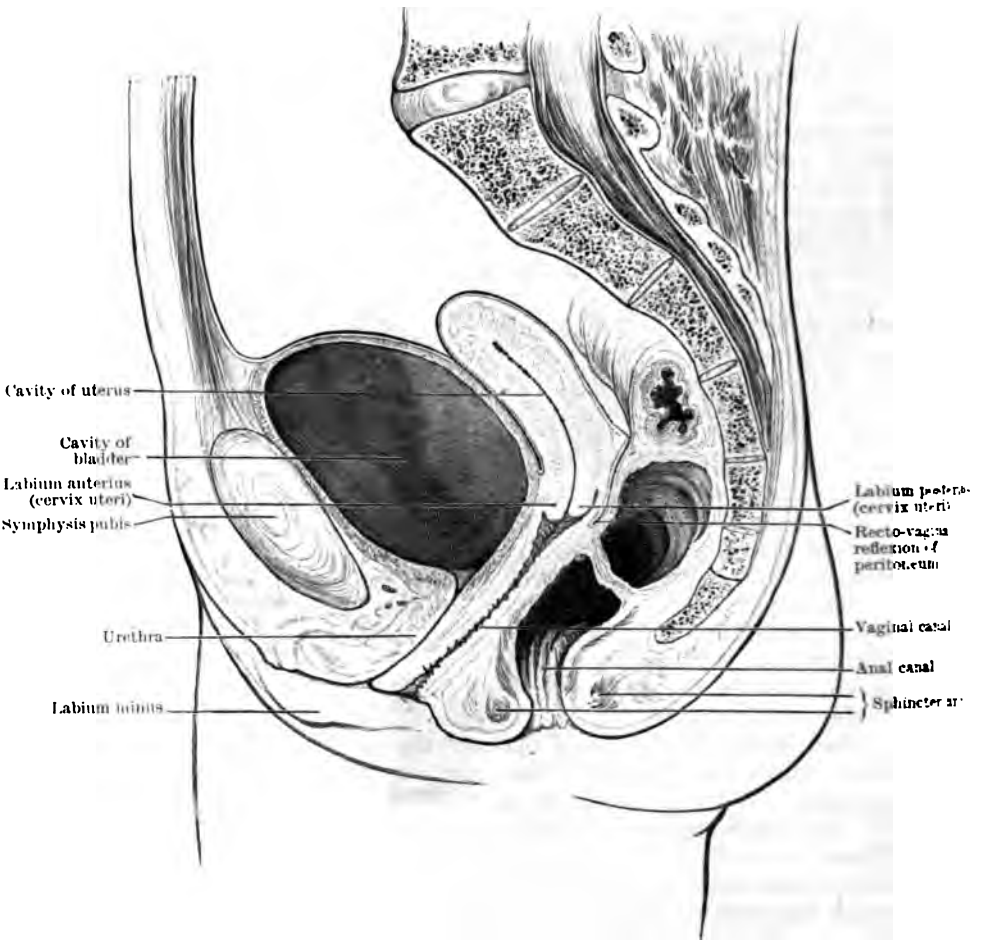

FIG. 818.—MESIAL SECTION OF THE PELVIS IN AN ADULT FEMALE.

The cavity of the uterus is indicated diagrammatically From a specimen in the Anatomical Department, Trinity College, Dublin.

uterus. The lower part of the uterus and upper part of the vagina are not separated by peritoneum from the basal surface of the bladder, but are in actual apposition with it (Fig. 818). Thus below the level of the utero-vesical pouch, the female bladder is related in much the same manner to the uterus and anterior wall of the vagina as the male bladder is related to the vesiculæ seminales and vasa deferentia. The apex of the bladder, where the urachus is attached, often lies on a lower level than in the male, so that the organ even when distended, rises less freely into the abdomen. The bladder as a whole is placed deeper in the pelvis than in the male, and the internal urethral orifice lies just above or just below a line drawn from the lower margin of the symphysis to the lower end of the sacrum (p. 1146). The lower level of the internal urethral orifice is probably corre-

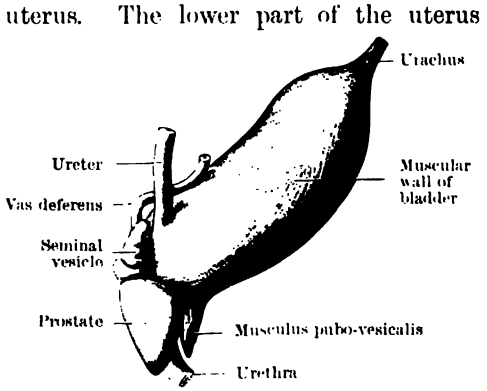

FIG. 819.—THE BLADDER OF A NEWLY-BORN MALE CHILD, viewed from the outer side.

The drawing is from a specimen which had been hardened *in situ*.

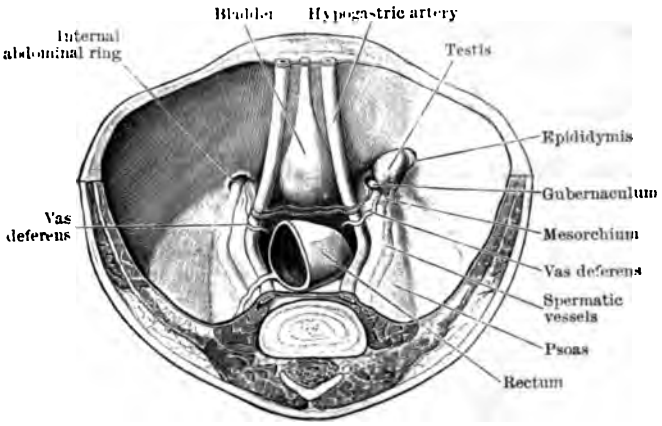

FIG. 821.—VIEW LOOKING FROM ABOVE INTO THE PELVIS AND LOWER PART OF THE ABDOMINAL CAVITY IN A FŒTUS OF ABOUT THE SEVENTH MONTH.

On the left side, which represents a slightly more advanced condition than the right, the testis has entered the inguinal canal; on the right side the testis is still within the abdominal cavity.

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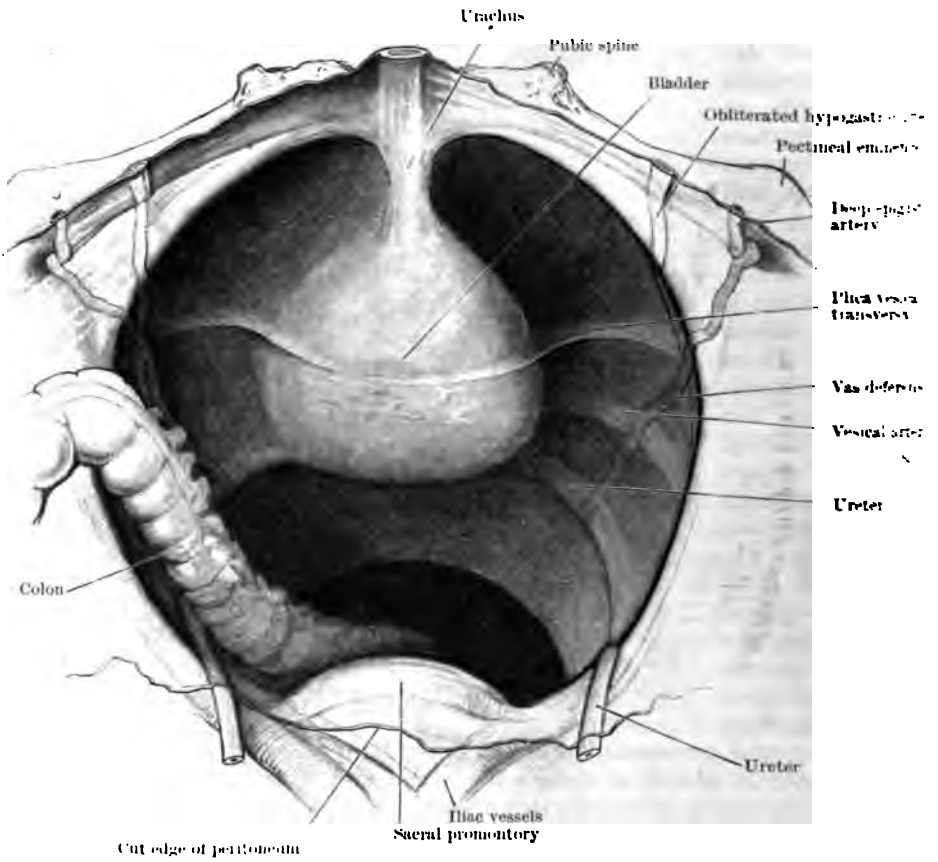

FIG. 822. VIEW LOOKING INTO THE MALE PELVIS FROM ABOVE AND SOMEWHAT BEHIND.

From a specimen in which the bladder was firmly contracted and contained but a small amount of fluid. T paravesical fossa is seen on each side of the bladder. The deep peritoneal pouch in front of the rec is bounded by marked crescentic folds (sacro-genital or posterior false ligaments of the bladder), wh meet together some distance behind the posterior border of the bladder.

ment is raised upwards, and may reach a point two inches, or more, above the up

margin of the symphysis pubis. Similarly, the line along which the lateral peritoneal ligament reaches the pelvic wall is also carried upwards in distension of the bladder, and may reach the level of the vas deferens and of the obliterated hypogastric artery.

When the bladder is empty the peritoneum is carried downwards upon the side wall of the pelvis as low as the lateral border of the organ, and lines a shallow depression which receives the name of **paravesical fossa**. This peritoneal fossa lies below the level of the so-called obturator fossa, from which it is separated by the vas deferens. As the bladder fills the peritoneum is raised off this part of the pelvic wall, and certain structures, such as the obturator vessels and nerve and the vas deferens, which lie on the side wall of the pelvis, come into direct relationship with the lateral aspect of the distended bladder.

Posteriorly the peritoneum leaves the upper surface of the empty bladder at its posterior border, and is carried backwards, forming a kind of horizontal shelf, or fold, for a distance of about half an inch, giving at the same time a partial covering to the vasa deferentia and upper ends of the seminal vesicles. The peritoneum then suddenly dips downwards to reach the bottom of the recto-genital (or recto-

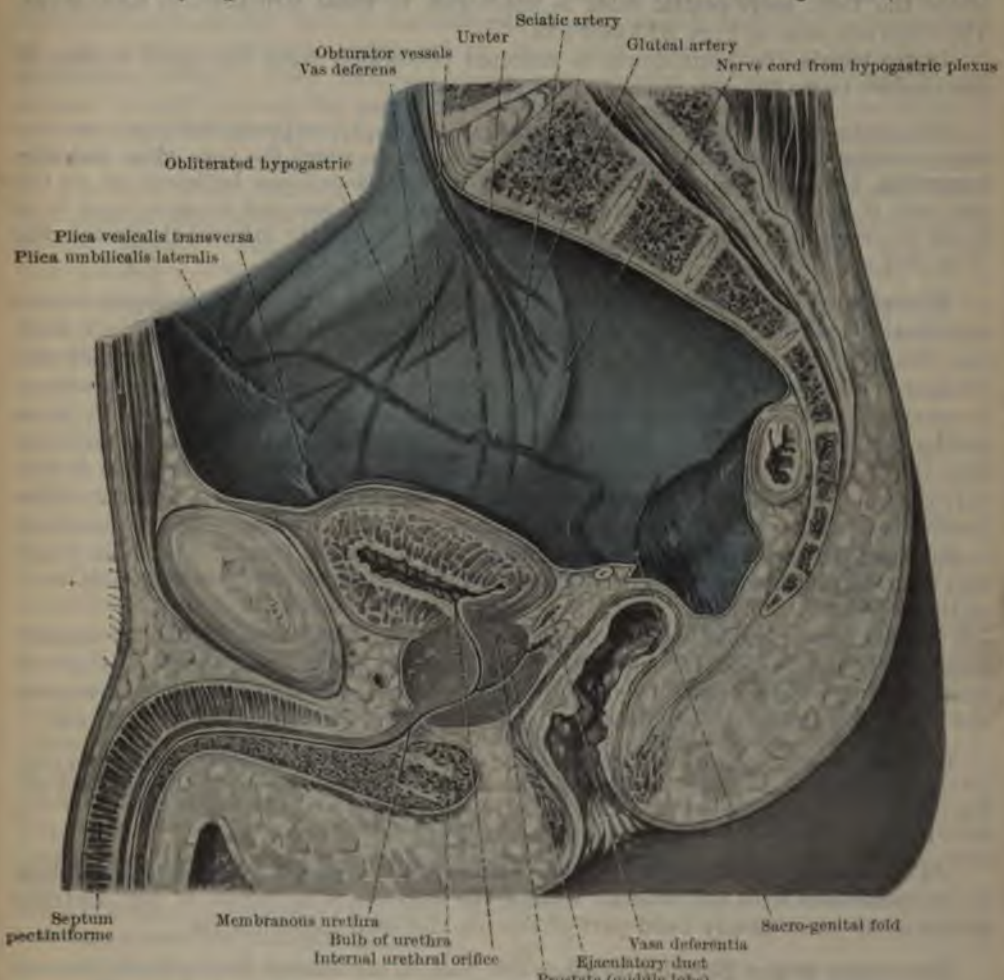

FIG. 823.—MESIAL SECTION OF THE PELVIS IN AN ADULT MALE.

The coils of small intestine which lay within the pelvis have been lifted out in order to give a view of the side wall of the pelvic cavity. The peritoneum is coloured blue.

vesical) pouch, where it is reflected on to the anterior surface of the rectum (Fig. 823). As a rule, no part of the basal surface of the contracted and empty bladder receives a covering from the peritoneum, since the seminal vesicles

and terminal portions of the vasa deferentia intervene as they lie in the anteri wall of the recto-genital pouch. When the bladder is distended the posteri border, separating the upper and basal surfaces, is rounded out, and the peritoneu forming the horizontal shelf, just described, is taken up (compare Figs. 810 and 82 It is to be specially noted that the level of the peritoneal reflection, forming t bottom of the recto-genital pouch, does not alter to any considerable extent in d tension of the bladder (Figs. 809 and 810).

An examination of mesial sections of the pelvis shows the great danger run by the ampul of the vasa deferentia in any operation for reaching the bladder through the anterior wall of t rectum, and the difficulty in avoiding injury to the peritoneum.

The term "**posterior false** (or peritoneal) **ligament**" is often applied to the som what variable crescentic fold of peritoneum which bounds on each side t entrance to the recto-genital pouch, and which often unites with the fold of t opposite side across the middle line, behind the posterior border of the bladder a the vasa deferentia. These folds represent the folds of Douglas in the female, a are to be regarded as connexions of the vasa deferentia rather than of the bladd hence the term **sacro-genital folds** is applicable to these structures in both sex The folds are seen in Figs. 822 and 823.

In the female the peritoneum is reflected posteriorly from the upper surface the bladder on to the anterior aspect of the uterus.

The peritoneum covering the upper surface of the empty, or partly distended, bladd often exhibits a transversely-disposed fold or wrinkle, to which the term **plica vesica transversa** has been applied. This fold, when well developed, can be traced on to t side wall of the pelvis, where it traverses the paravesical fossa, and in some cases it found to cross the pelvic brim and to be directed towards the internal abdominal ri (Figs. 822 and 823).

Fixation of the Bladder.—When the fibrous cord of the **urachus** (ligamentu umbilicale medium), which binds the bladder apex to the anterior abdominal wa and the peritoneal folds, already described as the false ligaments, are severed, t bladder is easily moved about, except in its lower and basal parts. Anteriorly is connected to the pubis, and laterally to the fascial lining of the pelvis by loo areolar tissue only, which permits free movement during expansion and contractio The lower fixed part of the bladder is chiefly held in place by processes of t pelvic fascia, continuous with those forming the capsule of the prostate. T fascial connexions constitute the true ligaments of the bladder, and are describ as **pubo-prostatic** or **anterior ligaments**, reaching the bladder from the pubis in fro and **lateral ligaments**, reaching the bladder from the fascial lining of the side wa of the pelvis.

In addition to the urachus and the peritoneal and true ligaments alread mentioned, the bladder is supported and fixed in position, in the region of i basal surface, by the dense fibrous and unstriped muscular tissue which surroun the seminal vesicles, the terminal portions of the vasa deferentia and the ureters.

Laterally the strands of connective tissue and the bundles of muscle fibres forming this su port pass backwards to gain attachment to the fascia in connexion with the rectum, and t front of the sacrum. Muscle fibres connected with the bladder wall are also found within t pubo-prostatic ligaments, through which they are attached to the pubis.

In the female the basal part of the bladder wall is supported and held in pla by its connexion with the anterior wall of the vagina. The region of the urethr orifice is the most firmly fixed part of the bladder wall in both sexes.

Structure of the Bladder Wall.—The wall of the bladder from without inwar is composed of a serous, a muscular, a submucous, and a mucous coat. The **serous co** (tunica serosa), formed by peritoneum, is incomplete, and covers only the upper a posterior parts of the distended bladder (Fig. 814).

A considerable amount of fibrous connective tissue surrounds the **muscular coat**, a penetrating it divides it into numerous coarse bundles of muscle fibres. **All the musc** fibres are of the smooth variety, and the bundles formed by them are arranged in thr very imperfectly separated strata called external, middle, and internal. **The extern**

ıpect of the muscular coat of the urethra. In the upper part of the canal these fibres ırm a complete ring-like sphincter, but in the middle and lower parts the striped muscle ɔres though present in front are absent in the posterior wall of the urethra, as at this vel they pass backwards on the outer aspect of the vagina, and enclose this latter ıssage together with the urethra in a single loop of muscle tissue. The lower fibres, ıerefore, form a urinogenital sphincter.

THE MALE REPRODUCTIVE ORGANS.

We have here to describe (1) the testes or essential reproductive glands of the ıale, together with their (2) coverings and (3) ducts, (4) the prostate, (5) Cowper's lands, (6) the external genital organs, and (7) the male urethra.

The reproductive glands of the male, or **testes**, are a pair of nearly symmetrical val-shaped bodies situated in the scrotum. The duct of each gland, at first ıuch twisted and intertwined, forms a structure known as the **epididymis**, which ı applied against the posterior and outer part of the testis. From the epi-idymis the excretory duct, or **vas deferens**, passes upwards towards the lower part f the anterior abdominal wall, which it pierces very obliquely, to enter the bdominal cavity. Here each vas deferens is covered by the peritoneum, and lmost at once crossing the pelvic brim, enters the pelvis. The vas now runs on he side wall of the pelvis towards the base of the bladder, where it comes into elation with a branched tubular structure termed the **vesicula seminalis**. Joined y the duct of the vesicula seminalis, the vas deferens forms a short canal called he **common ejaculatory duct**, which terminates by opening into the prostatic part f the **urethra**. The **prostate**, a partly glandular, partly muscular structure, urrounding the first part of the urethra, and also a pair of small glandular bodies alled **Cowper's glands**, are accessory organs connected with the male reproductive ystem. The ducts of Cowper's glands and those of the prostate, like the common jaculatory ducts, open into the rethra, which thus serves not only s a passage for urine, but also for he generative products. The ex-ernal genitals are the **penis** and **crotum**.

THE TESTIS.

The male reproductive glands, the esticles or **testes**, are a pair of some-hat oval, slightly flattened bodies of whitish colour, measuring about n inch and a half in length, one ıch from before backwards, and ather less in thickness. Each testis ı placed within the cavity of the crotum in such a manner that its ɔng axis is directed upwards, slightly ɔrwards, and outwards, and usually he left gland occupies a lower level han the right. The testis (Fig. 825) as two somewhat flattened surfaces, ne of which, called the *outer surface* facies lateralis) looks outwards and ackwards; the other, or *inner sur-ıce* (facies medialis), looks inwards nd forwards, and is usually the more flattened. The two surfaces are separated by wo rounded borders, of which the *anterior* (margo anterior) is the more convex, nd is free, while the *posterior* (margo posterior) is less rounded, and is the one by hich the organ is suspended within the scrotum. A structure called the **epididymis**

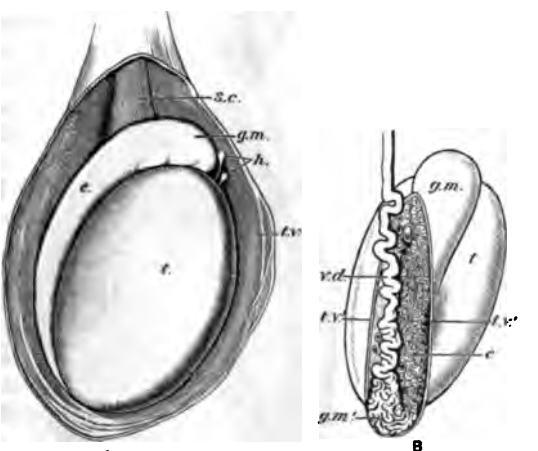

FIG. 825.

A. The right testis and epididymis, seen within the tunica vaginalis, which has been opened up.
B. The right testis and epididymis seen from behind, after complete removal of the parietal portion of the tunica vaginalis.

e. Epididymis.
g.m. Globus major.
g.m'. Globus minor.
h. Hydatids.
s.c. Spermatic cord.
t. Testis.
t.v. Tunica vaginalis.
t.v'. Cut edge of tunica vaginalis.
v.d. Vas deferens.

and the lowest portion of the **spermatic cord** are attached to the posterior border of the testis. Each border ends above in the *upper*, and below in the *lower extremity* of the testis (extremitas superior et extremitas inferior). Owing to the obliquity of the long axis of the gland, the upper extremity of the testis lies on an anterior and external plane to the lower one.

Epididymis.—The epididymis is a somewhat crescentic structure, which is curved round the posterior border of the testis and overlaps to some extent the posterior part of the outer surface of that organ. The upper, somewhat swollen part of the epididymis, is called the **globus major** (caput epididymidis), and overhangs the upper end of the testis, to which it is directly connected by numerous emerging ducts, by connective tissue, and by the serous covering of the organ. The lower and smaller end is termed **globus minor** (cauda epididymidis), and is attached by loose areolar tissue and by the serous covering to the lower end of the testis. The intermediate part, or **body** (corpus epididymidis), is applied against, but is separated from, the posterior part of the outer surface of the testis by an involution of the serous covering of the organ, which forms an intervening pocket termed the digital fossa (sinus epididymidis).

The main mass of the epididymis is composed of an irregularly twisted canal, the canal of epididymis, which forms the first part of the duct of the testis.

Minute sessile, or pedunculated, bodies are often found attached to the globus major or to the upper end of the testis. These are called appendices of the epididymis and testis (appendices testis), or hydatids of Morgagni, and have a developmental interest. The minute body which lies on the upper end of the testis represents the free end of Müller's duct in the embryo and the fimbriated end of the Fallopian tube of the female; it is usually sessile. Above the globus major, and in front of the lower part of the spermatic cord, there may also be present a small rudimentary body called the **organ of Giraldes** or **paradidymis**. This is rarely seen in the adult and is best marked in young children.

Tunica Vaginalis.—The cavity within which the testis and epididymis are placed is lined by a smooth serous membrane—the tunica vaginalis—which resembles in appearance and structure the peritoneum from which it is originally derived. The cavity is considerably larger than the contained structures, and extends not only down to a lower level than the testis, but also reaches upwards to a higher level than the gland. The sac, or cavity, tapers as it is traced upwards, and above the level of the testis the spermatic cord bulges forwards into its posterior part. The tunica vaginalis lines the cavity for the testis, and is reflected from the posterior wall of the scrotal chamber over the testis and epididymis, giving a covering to each. The part of the membrane lining the cavity is called the **parietal portion** (lamina parietalis) of the tunica vaginalis, while the part clothing the testis and epididymis is termed the **visceral portion** (lamina visceralis). Between the outer surface of the testis and the body of the epididymis, the visceral part of the tunica vaginalis dips in and lines a narrow interval called the **digital fossa** (sinus epididymidis). The entrance to the fossa is limited above and below by short crescentic folds of the tunica vaginalis, which pass from the testis to the globus major and minor of the epididymis. These folds are spoken of as the superior and inferior ligaments of the epididymis. In three positions the surface of the testis receives no covering from the tunica vaginalis,—superiorly where the globus

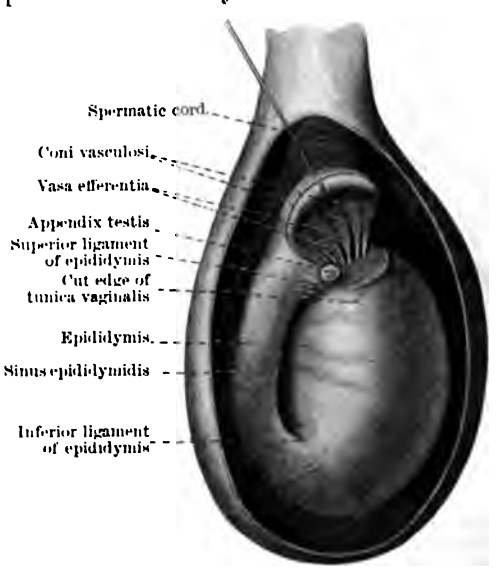

FIG. 826.—RIGHT TESTIS WITHIN TUNICA VAGINALIS. In the region of the globus major the tunica vaginalis has been cut through and the globus major of the epididymis has been raised to show the vasa efferentia and coni vasculosi.

major is attached, inferiorly where the globus minor is in contac where the blood-vessels and nerves enter the organ from the sper

Structure of the Testis and Epididymis.—Beneath the serou the testis is invested by an external coat, composed of dense whit tissue called the **tunica albuginea**, from the deep surface of which a number of slender fibrous bands or septa dip into the gland. These—the **septula testis**—imperfectly divide the organ into a number of wedge-shaped parts called **lobes**, or **lobules** (lobuli testis, Fig. 825). All the septa end posteriorly in a mass of fibrous tissue which is directly continuous with the tunica albuginea, and which projects forwards into the testis along its posterior border. This structure receives the name of **mediastinum testis**, or **corpus Highmori**, and is traversed by an exceedingly complicated network of fine canals, into which the minute tubules which compose the substance proper of the testis open. The mediastinum is also pierced by the arteries, veins, and lymphatics of the testis. These vessels enter the posterior border of the organ, and traversing the mediastinum, spread out on the fibrous septa which radiate towards all parts of the deep surface of the tunica albuginea. In this way a delicate network of vessels (tunica vasculosa) is formed on the deep surface of the tunica albuginea and on the sides of the septa.

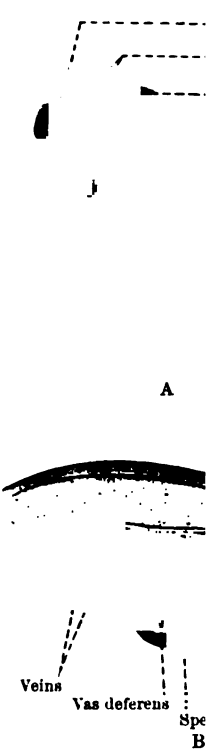

FIG. 8

A. Transverse section of t
B. Transverse section of external abdominal r

The mediastinum, the septa, and the tunica albuginea form a framework enclosing a number of imperfectly isolated spaces which are filled by a loosely packed substance of a light-brown colour called the **parenchyma of the testis** (parenchyma testis).

The parenchyma is composed of enormous numbers of much-c **ferous tubules** (tubuli seminiferi contorti), and completely fills between the septa. The minute tubules look like fine threads to and are but loosely held together by a small amount of connectiv three or four tubules are found in each lobule of the gland, and in the testis has been estimated at about 600. The seminiferou course of about two feet in length, pass towards the mediastinum at acute angles, to form a smaller number of slender tubes whi course. These latter are called **tubuli recti**, and open into a con of fine canals situated in the substance of the mediastinum, call The tubules are much more twisted and convoluted in the c gland, near the tunica vaginalis, than in the region of the media in this position give off side branches which, according to son effect anastomoses between the tubules. It appears doubtful tubules of the **testis** do really anastomose.

Microscopic sections show that the walls of the seminiferous tubul a basement membrane and of an epithelial lining, formed of seve Certain cells of this epithelium are, in the adult, constantly underg into **spermatozoa**, and the appearance of the tubules in section varies age and to the greater or less activity of the epithelial cells.

The secretion of the seminiferous tubules is carried throug into the rete testis, and leaves the latter, to reach the canal

through from fifteen to twenty minute tubules called **vasa efferentia** (ductul efferentes testis). These latter pierce the tunica albuginea and enter the globu major, where it is in direct contact with the upper end of the testis. Each va efferens is at first straight, but soon becomes much convoluted, and forms a litt conical mass of twisted tubule called a **conus vasculosus** (lobulus epididymidis Within the globus major the little canals finally ope into the single much-convoluted tube which consti tutes the chief bulk of the epididymis, and is calle the **canal of the epididymis** (ductus epididymidis This canal, which is not less than 19 or 20 feet i length, may be said to begin in the globus major, an to end, after an extraordinarily tortuous course, at th globus minor by becoming the vas deferens (ductu deferens, Fig. 828).

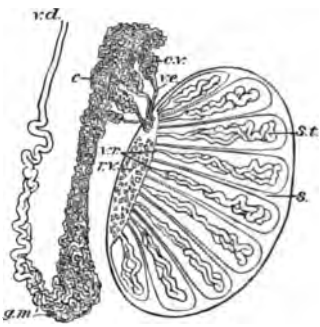

Fig. 828.

Diagram to illustrate the structure of the testis and epididymis.

c.v. Conus vasculosus.	*s.t.* Seminiferous tubule.
c. Globus major.	*v.d.* Vas deferens.
g.m. Globus minor.	*v.e.* Vas efferens.
r.t. Rete testis.	*r.c.* Tubuli recti.
s. Septula testis.	

In most cases one or more slender convoluted diverticul from the canal of the epididymis may be found near it lower end. These receive the name of **vasa aberranti** (ductuli aberrantes), and one of them which is very co stantly present often measures a foot or more in length.

Minute Structure.—The canal of the epididym and the vasa efferentia are lined by a ciliated epithelium the cilia of which maintain a constant current toward the vas deferens. The canal of the epididymis possesse a muscular coat composed of an inner stratum of tran versely and an outer stratum of longitudinally directed fibres. The wall, at first thi becomes much thicker as the canal approaches the vas deferens.

Vessels and Nerves of the Testis.—The testis is supplied by the **spermatic artery**, a bran of the aorta. This slender vessel, after a long course, reaches the posterior border of the testi where it breaks up into branches which enter the mediastinum testis, and are distributed alon the septa and on the deep surface of the tunica albuginea. The **veins** issuing from the poster border of the testis form a dense plexus, called the **plexus pampiniformis**, which finally pours it blood through the spermatic vein, on the right side, into the inferior vena cava; on the left side th spermatic vein joins the left renal vein. The **nerves** for the testis accompany the spermati artery, and are derived through the **aortic** and **renal plexuses** from the tenth thoracic segment the spinal cord. The afferent fibres from the epididymis appear to reach the spinal cord throug the posterior roots of the eleventh and twelfth thoracic and first lumbar nerves. The arteries an nerves of the testis communicate with those on the lower part of the vas deferens, namely, wit the artery of the vas and with twigs from the hypogastric plexus. The **lymphatic vessels** of th testis pass upwards in the spermatic cord, and end in the lumbar lymphatic glands.

THE VAS DEFERENS.

The **vas deferens** (ductus deferens) is the direct continuation of the canal of th epididymis. Beginning at the lower extremity of the epididymis, it ends, after a course of nearly 18 inches, by opening as the **common ejaculatory duct** into th prostatic or first part of the urethra. The duct in parts of its course is somewha convoluted, and the actual distance traversed by it is not more than 12 inches Placed in the first instance outside the abdominal cavity, the vas deferens ascend within the scrotum towards the lower part of the anterior abdominal wall, which it reaches not far from the middle line. During this part of its course the duct together with the vessels and nerves of the testis, is surrounded by a number o loose coverings derived from certain layers of the abdominal wall, and the cord-lik structure so formed is termed the **spermatic cord**. The vas deferens, together wit the accompanying vessels and nerves, now passes through the abdominal wall in an oblique passage, to which the name **inguinal canal** is applied. Within the abdomen the vas lies immediately beneath the peritoneum, and soon crossing over the pelvic brim, it enters the pelvis, on the side wall of which it proceeds backwards towards the base of the bladder. Here, near the middle line, the vas deferens is joined by the duct of the corresponding **vesicula seminalis**, and the common ejaculatory duct thus formed, having traversed the prostate, opens into the urethra.

At first the vas deferens, like the canal from which it takes its origin, is very

(trigonum femorale) between these vessels and the pelvic brim. On the side w of the pelvis the vas is continued backwards, and a little downwards and inwar in the direction of the ischial spine, and lies immediately beneath the peritoneu through which it can usually be seen shining. In the pelvic part of its course t vas deferens crosses on the inner side of (1) the obliterated hypogastric artery, the obturator nerve and vessels, (3) the vesical vessels, and (4) the ureter (Fig. 82

Beyond the ureter the vas takes a somewhat sudden bend, and passes dow wards and inwards towards the middle line, beneath the peritoneum of the pel floor. Reaching the inter between the base of t bladder in front and t rectum behind, the va deferentia of opposite sid occupy the angle form between the vesiculæ sem nales (Fig. 831). As th approach one another ea vas becomes somewhat t tuous, sacculated, and lated, and assumes a gener resemblance in structure a portion of the vesicu seminalis. This dilated pa of the vas deferens is term the **ampulla** (ampulla duct deferentis). As it turns i wards the vas lies a sho distance behind the urete and immediately in front of the free edge of the peritoneal fold (sacro-genital) whic bounds the recto-genital pouch of the peritoneum. Just above the base of th prostate the vas deferens becomes once more a narrow canal, and in this positi it is joined by the duct of the corresponding seminal vesicle to form the comm **ejaculatory duct**, which, after a short course downwards, forwards, and inwar through the prostate, opens into the urethra.

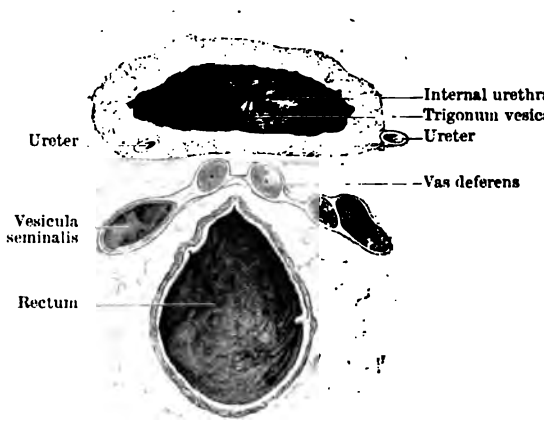

FIG. 830. — HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH THE RECTUM AND BLADDER AT THE LEVEL AT WHICH THE URETERS PIERCE THE BLADDER WALL.

From a specimen in the Surgical Museum, Trinity College, Dublin.

In some cases the vas deferens crosses the obliterated hypogastric artery before it enters th pelvic cavity; it normally does so in the fœtus.

Common Ejaculatory Duct (ductus ejaculatorius).—This minute duct, form by the union of the vas deferens with the duct of the corresponding seminal vesicl is less than one inch in length, and lies very close to its fellow of the opposite si as it passes through the prostate behind its mesial lobe. The ducts open by slit-lik apertures into the first part of the urethra, one on each side of the **sinus pocular** (utriculus prostaticus).

The mucous membrane of the duct is thrown into numerous complicated folds, and connexion with it are a number of remarkable minute diverticula which are enclos within the muscular coat of the duct.

Seminal Vesicles.—The vesiculæ seminales, or seminal vesicles, are a pair hollow sacculated structures placed in front of the rectum and behind the bladde (Fig. 831). Each vesicula seminalis is usually about two inches in length, and h its long axis directed downwards, inwards, and somewhat forwards. The upp extremity of the vesicle, which is partly covered by peritoneum, is large an rounded, and lies at a considerable distance from the middle line, behind the lowe end of the ureter. The peritoneum of the recto-genital pouch separates the upp end of the seminal vesicle from the rectum; below the peritoneal cavity the vesicl and rectum are more intimately related. The vesicle tapers towards its lower end which is placed close to the middle line and immediately above the prostate Inferiorly, the vesicle becomes constricted to form a short duct (ductus excretorius) which joins the outer side of the corresponding vas deferens at an acute angle to

upon itself that the blind terminal part lies against the side of the issuing duct. The development of the vesiculæ seminales shows that they are to be looked upon as diverticula of the vasa deferentia, from which they originally arise as small pouches.

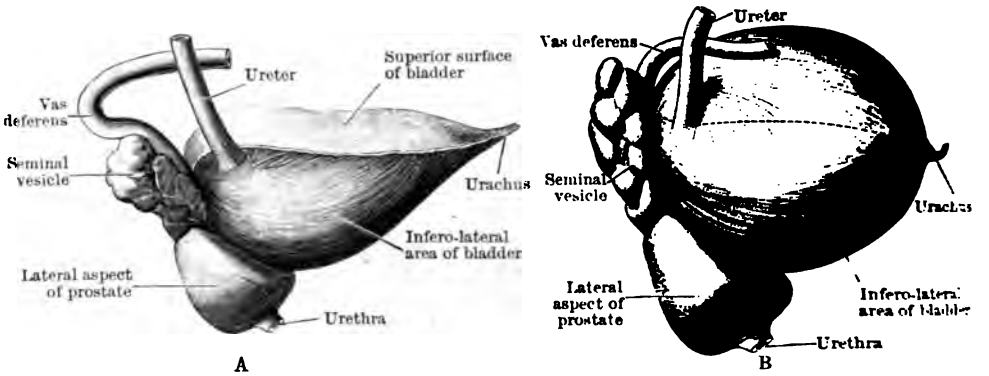

FIG. 832.—THE BLADDER, PROSTATE, AND SEMINAL VESICLE VIEWED FROM THE SIDE. Drawn from specimens hardened *in situ*.

In A the bladder contained but a small amount of fluid; in B the quantity was somewhat greater.

The dense tissue in which the seminal vesicles are embedded contains much unstriped muscle tissue, which, sweeping round in the side wall of the recto-genital pouch, gains an attachment to the fascia in front of the sacrum and to the rectum. Inferiorly this tissue is attached to the capsule of the prostate. The large veins coming from the prostatic and vesical plexuses are closely related to the seminal vesicles.

Structure of the Vas Deferens and of the Vesicula Seminalis.—Except near its termination, where it is dilated to form the ampulla, the vas deferens is a thick-walled tube with relatively a very small lumen. The hard cord-like sensation which

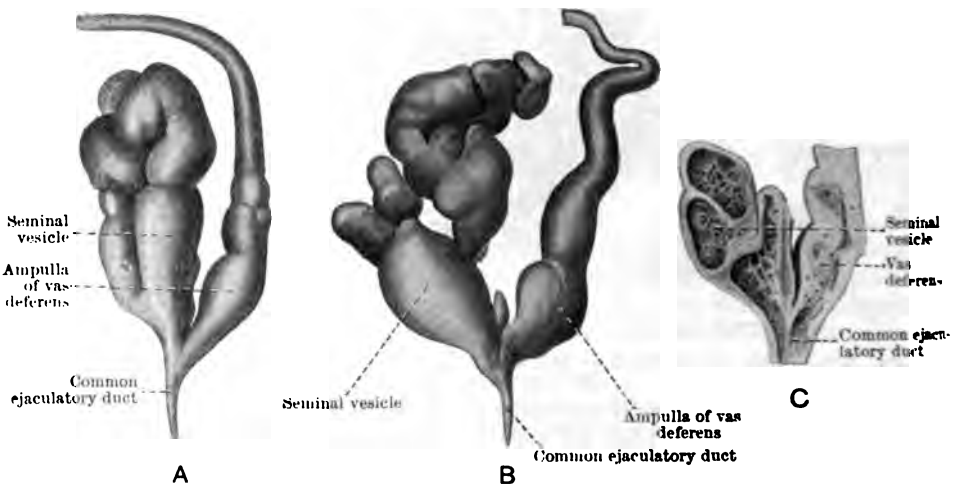

FIG. 833.

A and B. Drawings illustrating the seminal vesicle and the ampulla of vas deferens taken from two different subjects.

C. The seminal vesicle and vas deferens have been cut into to show the pitted structure of their walls.

the vas deferens conveys to the touch is due to the thickness and toughness of its wall, which is composed of three layers—an outer **fibrous** (tunica adventitia), an intermediate **muscular** (tunica muscularis), and an inner **mucous coat** (tunica mucosa). The thickness of the wall is due to the great development of the middle or muscular coat, which is composed of an intermediate layer of circularly and an inner and outer layer of longitudinally directed unstriped muscular fibres. Of these layers the middle one is by far the thickest and forms the chief part of the

vaginalis, but more often it does not reach so far downwards. When present it represents the obliterated portion of the processus vaginalis (rudimentum processus vaginalis).

In other rare cases the processus vaginalis may persist after birth as a channel freely open to the abdominal cavity above, or the passage, becoming closed at intervals, may give rise to one or more cysts within the coverings of the spermatic cord.

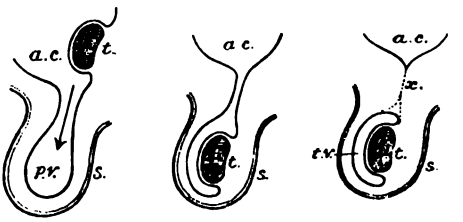

FIG. 835.—DIAGRAM to illustrate the descent of the testis and the manner in which the tunica vaginalis is derived.

a.c. Abdominal cavity.	*s.* Scrotum.
p.v. Processus vaginalis.	*t.v.* Tunica vaginalis.
t. Testis.	*g.* Ligamentum vaginale.

It sometimes happens that the descent of the testis is arrested, and then, either failing to enter the processus vaginalis the testis remains within the abdominal cavity; or entering the processus vaginalis it fails to reach the scrotum, and lies in the inguinal canal. The term cryptorchism is frequently applied to such cases.

In connexion with the descent of the testis a remarkable cord-like structure—the **gubernaculum testis**—must be mentioned. The gubernaculum arises for the most part within a peritoneal fold which at an early time in the development of the fœtus, may be seen stretching from the inguinal region to the Wolffian duct (future duct of testis) and lower end of mesonephros (primitive kidney). This peritoneal fold, termed the **plica inguinalis** (or plica inguino-mesonephrica), is joined from above by a less marked fold (the plica testis inferior) which extends downwards from the lower end of the testis,—at this time situated in the abdomen close to the inner aspect of the mesonephros. Within both these folds smooth muscular and fibrous tissue arises and gives origin to a continuous band or ligament—the gubernaculum testis. The gubernaculum is, therefore, to be regarded as originally composed of two portions,—a part developed within the plica inguinalis and a part formed within the plica testis inferior. It is interesting to note that the representatives of these two parts of the gubernaculum remain separate in the female throughout life, and are the round ligament of the uterus and the ligament of the ovary. The gubernaculum, when it is at its greatest development (about the sixth month), is rounded and cord-like, and is attached above to the lower end of the testis, while inferiorly it is fixed near the inguinal region. In the lower part of its course it is closely related to, and is partly covered by, the peritoneum of the processus vaginalis. Striped muscular fibres are present in the lower part of the gubernaculum, and these have their origin from the muscles of the inguinal part of the anterior abdominal wall. As the testis enters the processus vaginalis the gubernaculum atrophies, but at birth a short part of the gubernaculum may still be found passing downwards towards the lower part of the scrotum and lying below the level of the tunica vaginalis. It is considered by some anatomists that the movement downwards of the testis may be partly due to a pull caused by the shrinking of the gubernaculum as it atrophies.

In some mammals, such as the elephant, the testes remain permanently within the abdominal cavity; while in others, such as the rabbit and the hedgehog, the peritoneal pouches remain widely open throughout life, and the testes are periodically withdrawn into the abdomen.

THE SPERMATIC CORD.

The testis in its course downwards through the abdominal wall into the scrotum takes with it its duct (vas deferens), blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves of supply. All these lie together in the inguinal canal as they traverse the abdominal wall, and when they leave the canal by the external abdominal ring they extend downwards to the posterior border of the testis. The vas deferens, the spermatic vessels, and the nerves and lymphatics of the testis, loosely connected together, form the **spermatic cord** (funiculus spermaticus). At the internal abdominal ring the constituent parts of the cord separate from one another, and the cord may therefore be considered to extend from the internal abdominal ring to the posterior border of the testis. The structures which form the cord are enclosed within a number of coverings derived from the layers of the anterior abdominal wall, and these, when the constituents of the cord reach the posterior border of the testis, surround the tunica vaginalis, and so form a part of the wall of the scrotum. The sheaths or coverings of the cord derived from the abdominal wall are three in

development have become fused in the middle line. These two portions are termed the **hemispheria bulbi urethræ**, and are best seen in subjects whose tissues have been hardened by intra-vascular injection. A slightly marked median septum, situated within the bulb tissue, indicates on a deeper plane the line along which fusion has taken place. The canal of the urethra, piercing the triangular ligament, enters the bulb obliquely a short distance in front of its posterior extremity (Fig. 844). Covering the superficial surface of the bulb is the bulbo-cavernosus muscle.

A somewhat triangular band of strong fibrous tissue, called the **suspensory ligament of the penis**, is attached to the front of the symphysis pubis, and extends to the fibrous capsule of the penis, with which it becomes continuous.

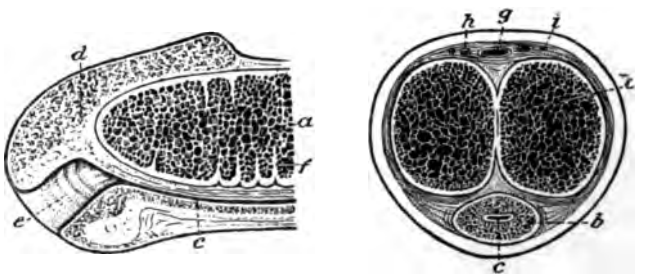

FIG. 839.—A LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF THE TERMINAL PORTION OF THE PENIS, AND A TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE BODY OF THE ORGAN.

a. Corpus cavernosum. *b*. Corpus spongiosum. *c*. Urethral canal. *d*. Glans penis. *e*. Fossa navicularis. *f*. Part of septum pectiniforme. *g*. Dorsal vein. *h*. Dorsal artery. *i*. Dorsal nerve.

Structure of the Penis.—Each corpus cavernosum penis is enclosed by a dense white fibrous coat or **tunica albuginea** (tunica albuginea corporum cavernosorum), which, fusing with the corresponding coat of the opposite side, forms a mesial septum (septum penis). The septum is very incomplete, especially near the terminal part of the penis, where it is interrupted by a number of nearly parallel slit-like perforations, hence the term **septum pectiniforme** is often applied to it (Figs. 839 and 845). Through these openings the erectile tissue of the corpora cavernosa of opposite sides is continuous.

The fibrous coat contains some elastic fibres, and may be divided into an outer layer of longitudinally directed fibres and an inner layer of circular fibres, some of which latter are continued into the septum. Numerous fibrous strands, called **trabeculæ** (trabeculæ corporum cavernosorum), proceed from the deep surface of the tunica albuginea, and stretching across the interior of the corpus cavernosum, form a fine sponge-like framework whose interspaces communicate freely with one another, and are filled with blood. These blood-containing spaces lead directly into the veins of the penis, and like the veins have a lining of flat endothelial cells. The size of the penis varies with the amount of blood in this cavernous tissue. The structure of the corpus spongiosum resembles that of the corpora cavernosa, but the fibrous coat is much thinner and more elastic, and the trabeculæ are finer (Fig. 839).

The glans penis is also composed of cavernous tissue which communicates by a rich venous plexus, situated on the ventral aspect of the urethra, with the corpus spongiosum urethræ. No strongly marked tunica albuginea is present, and the erectile tissue is practically bounded by the firmly adherent skin. Surrounding the urethra, which in this part of the penis is represented by a laterally compressed slit-like passage, is a mass of fibro-elastic tissue which forms a kind of median septum within the glans. This septum is continued backwards to join the sheath of the conical end of the corpora cavernosa, and ventrally it gives attachment to the frenulum of the prepuce. It imperfectly divides the erectile tissue of the glans into right and left portions, which, however, freely communicate dorsally. From the septum trabeculæ pass out in all directions into the tissue of the glans.

Loosely surrounding the corpora cavernosa and the corpus spongiosum is a fibrous sheath containing numerous elastic tissue fibres. This sheath is termed the *fascia penis* and reaches as far as the base of the glans, where it becomes fixed to the floor of the groove limited by the corona glandis. In its proximal part the sheath gives insertion to many of the fibres of the bulbo-cavernosus and ischio-cavernosus muscles.

Superficial to the fascia penis is a layer of extremely lax areolar tissue, and more superficial still is a prolongation of the dartos muscle of the scrotum (dartos penis) and the delicate skin of the penis. Numerous sebaceous glands are present in the skin, especially on the urethral aspect of the penis.

In some mammals, such as the walrus, dog, bear, baboon, etc., a bone called the **os penis** is developed in the septum which intervenes between the corpora cavernosa.

Vessels and Nerves of the Penis.—The penis receives its arterial supply from branches of

(Fig. 840). The **lateral surface** of the prostate is convex and prominent, especially in its posterior and upper portion, and rests against the fascia covering the levator ani muscle. The lateral surfaces are directed for the most part outwards, downwards, and somewhat forwards, and meet together in front in a rounded anterior border, often called the "**anterior surface**" (facies anterior) of the prostate. Posteriorly the prostate presents a flattened somewhat triangular area, directed backwards and downwards against the anterior wall of the rectum, from which it is separated by a layer of the pelvic fascia. This flattened **posterior surface** (facies posterior) is separated on each side from the lateral surface by a rounded border which, beginning above at the prominent lateral part of the prostate, ends below at the apex of the organ. The **apex** of the prostate (apex prostatæ) points downwards, and is in relation to the compressor urethræ muscle, from which it is separated by the pelvic fascia. From the apex the rounded anterior border, which separates the lateral surfaces, passes upwards in the middle line behind the symphysis pubis and retro-pubic pad of fat. This border is interrupted in its lower part by the passage of the urethra.

When the capsule formed by the pelvic fascia is stripped off the prostate the organ has a more rounded outline, and the surfaces just described are not so clearly defined. The anterior border may now appear to be rather a surface than a border, and the antero-posterior diameter of the whole organ is considerably reduced.

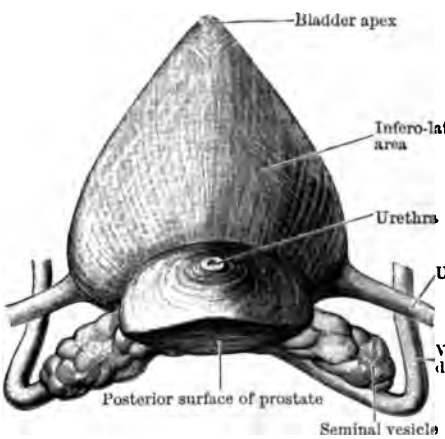

FIG. 841.—PROSTATE, BLADDER, AND SEMINAL VESICLES SEEN FROM BELOW.

Drawn from a specimen hardened *in situ*. The lateral surfaces of the prostate are seen one on each side of the urethra and in front of the posterior surface.

The urethra enters the prostate at a point near the middle of its upper surface, and leaves it at a point situated on its anterior border, just above and in front of the apex. As it descends the urethra describes a curve which is concave forwards, and in mesial section it is seen to lie on the whole nearer to the posterior surface than to the anterior border of the gland.

The common ejaculatory ducts, entering a slit-like interval or hilum situated just in front of the border which separates the base from the posterior surface of the prostate, run downwards, inwards, and forwards, to open into the prostatic portion of the urethra very close to one another. The somewhat wedge-shaped portion of the prostate, which lies between these ducts and the posterior aspect of the urethra, receives the name of **middle lobe** (lobus medius, Fig. 845). The base of this middle lobe projects upwards against the bladder, and is continuous with the part of the bladder wall lying immediately behind the urethral orifice. When hypertrophied (as it often is in old people) the middle lobe of the prostate may cause a considerable elevation in the cavity of the bladder, to which the term uvula vesicæ is applied, and which possesses considerable surgical interest. The rest of the prostate is described as being composed of two large lateral portions or **lateral lobes**, which are, however, not marked off from one another superficially.

In front of the prostate, between it and the pubis, is a rich venous plexus in which the dorsal vein of the penis terminates. This plexus is continued backwards, on each side, round the lateral aspect of the prostate and joins the large thin-walled veins which are collected for the most part in the deep sulcus between the bladder wall and the prostate, and form the prostatico-vesical plexus. Most of the veins forming this plexus lie partly within and partly outside the dense fibrous capsule of the prostate, which is derived from the visceral pelvic fascia (Figs. 842 and 843).

The **fibrous capsule of the prostate** is formed by the visceral pelvic fascia, and closely invests the gland on its lateral and posterior aspects. Inferiorly at the apex of the prostate this capsule becomes continuous with the layer of fascia which

urethra. In front of the upper part of the prostatic portion of the urethra there is a mass of smooth muscular fibres, which is continued upwards and backwards on the sides of the urethra to form a part of the sphincter vesicæ. At a lower level striped muscular tissue, which is continuous with the deep part of the compressor urethræ muscle, occupies a position in front of the urethral canal.

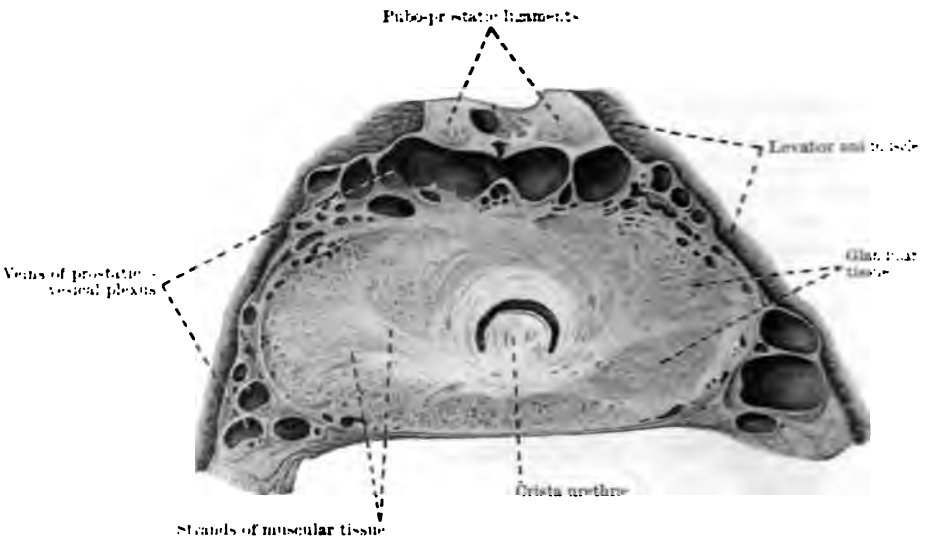

FIG. 843.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE PROSTATE, about half-way between its apex and base.

The muscular tissue of the prostate may be regarded as the thickened muscular layer of the wall of the urethra, which has become broken up and invaded by the prostatic glands, which arise and are developed from the lining layer of the canal during embryonic life.

In old age the prostate frequently undergoes an hypertrophy, which may affect chiefly the glandular tissue, or the entire organ. Not infrequently calcareous concretions are found embedded in the prostate.

Vessels and Nerves of the Prostate. The prostate receives its blood-supply from branches of the **hæmorrhoidal** and **inferior vesical arteries**, while the large plexus of veins which surrounds it, and into which the veins of the penis open, communicates with the **vesical plexus**, and drains into the internal iliac veins. In old people the veins of the prostatic plexus usually become much enlarged. The nerves of the prostate are derived from the **hypogastric plexus**.

COWPER'S GLANDS.

Cowper's glands (glandulæ bulbo-urethrales) are a pair of small bodies placed in relation to the second, or membranous, part of the urethra. They are each about the size of a pea, and are of a yellowish-brown colour. Situated in the space between the two layers of the triangular ligament, they lie below the level of the apex of the prostate, and above that of the bulb of the corpus spongiosum (Figs. 844 and 846). The gland is made up of a number of closely applied lobes and lobules, and is of the compound racemose type. The ductules of each gland unite to form a single duct (ductus excretorius), which pierces the bulb of the corpus spongiosum, and, after a relatively long course, ends by opening into the spongy portion of the urethra by a minute aperture. The secreting acini are lined by columnar epithelium.

The glands receive their arterial supply from the artery to the bulb.

In old age these glands are often difficult to find.

THE MALE URETHRA.

The **urethra** in the male is a channel of about eight inches in length leading from the bladder to the external urethral orifice at the extremity of the glans penis. The canal serves not only for the passage of urine, but it also affords an exit for the seminal products which enter by the common ejaculatory ducts, and for the secretion of the prostatic and Cowper's glands. In addition, numerous minute glands (glandulæ urethrales) pour their secretion into the urethra.

As it passes from the internal urethral orifice, to its external opening, the

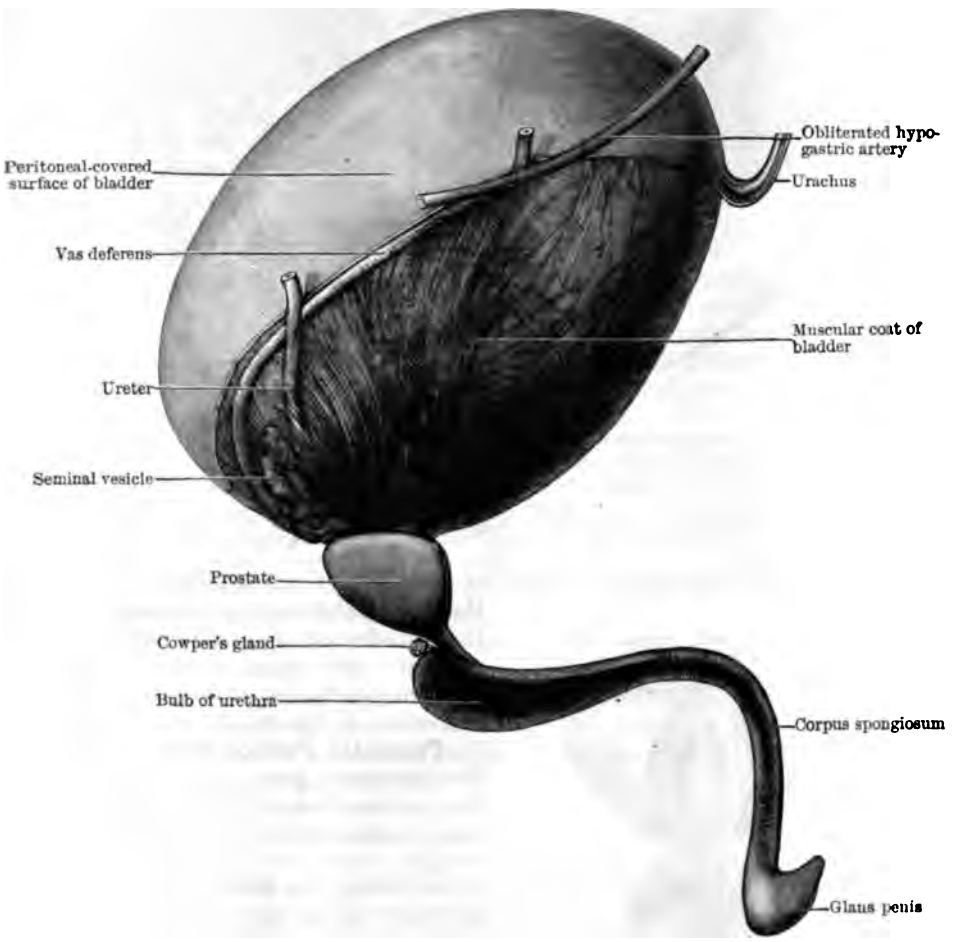

FIG. 844.—THE BLADDER AND THE STRUCTURES TRAVERSED BY THE URETHRA, seen from the outer side after removal from the body. The bladder has been artificially distended.

urethra describes a somewhat ∫ shaped course, and it is customary to divide it into certain sections which have received distinctive names. The first part of the urethra lies within the pelvic cavity, and has an almost vertical course as it traverses the prostate. Turning more forwards, the urethra passes below the pubic arch, and pierces the fibrous layers which form the pelvic wall in this region. Leaving the pelvic cavity, the canal enters the bulb of the corpus spongiosum, where the latter is attached to the triangular ligament, and throughout the rest of its course it lies in the erectile tissue of the corpus spongiosum and glans penis. The part of the urethra which lies embedded in the prostate is called the **prostatic portion**; the short portion which pierces the pelvic wall is called the **membranous portion**, and the part surrounded by the corpus spongiosum receives the name of **spongy portion**. Of these three sections of the urethra the spongy portion is much the longest, and the membranous is the shortest.

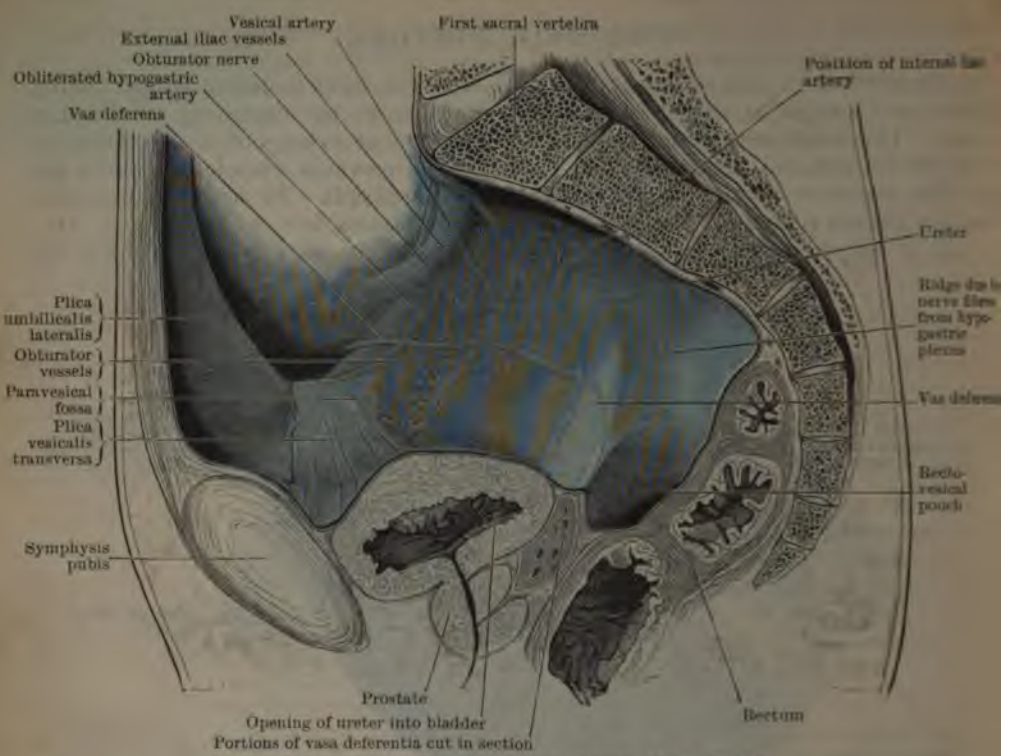

FIG. 845.—MESIAL SECTION OF AN ADULT MALE PELVIS.

The coils of the small intestine and of the pelvic colon which lay within the pelvis have been lifted out in order to give a view of the side wall of the pelvic cavity. The peritoneum is coloured blue.

Developmentally the spongy portion of the urethra has a different origin from the other subdivisions, as it is derived from the ectodermal cloacal fossa, while the prostatic and membranous portions owe their origin to the urinogenital canal,—a derivative of the endodermal cloaca.

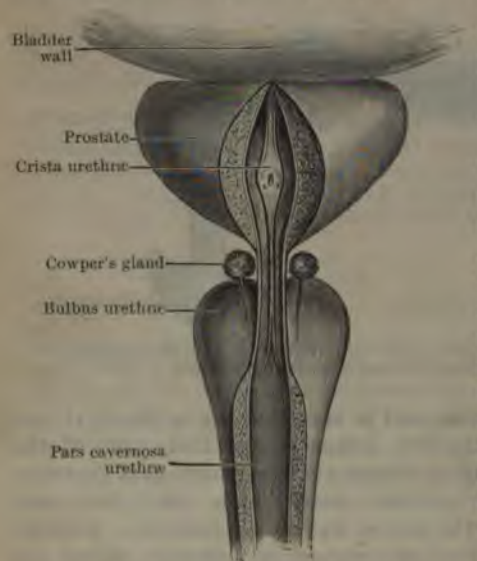

FIG. 846.—THE PROSTATIC, MEMBRANOUS, AND THE UPPER PORTION OF THE SPONGY URETHRA, opened from in front and above to show the posterior wall or floor. The minute openings of the common ejaculatory ducts and the orifice of the sinus pocularis are seen upon the crista urethræ.

Prostatic Portion of the Urethra.—The prostatic part (pars prostatica) of the urethra descends through the prostate from the base towards the apex, describing a slight curve which is concave forwards. It is about one inch in length, and is narrower above and below than in its middle portion, which is indeed the widest part of the whole urethral canal. Except while fluid is passing, the canal is collapsed, and the mucous membrane of the anterior and posterior walls is in contact, and thrown into a series of longitudinal folds. When distended, the middle, or widest part of the canal, may normally have a diameter of about one-third of an inch. The posterior wall, often termed the "floor" of the prostatic urethra, presents a distinct mesial ridge or elevation called the **crista urethræ** (crista urethralis) or **verumontanum** (Fig. 846). This projects forwards into the urethra to such an extent that the canal in transverse section presents a somewhat crescentic outline. In the depres-

sions or grooves on each side of the crista urethræ the numerous ducts of the prostatic glands open by minute apertures. Some few ducts from the middle part of the gland open nearer the middle line, on the sides of the urethral crest. On the summit of the crista urethræ is a slit-like opening which leads backwards and upwards for a distance of about a quarter of an inch, as a blind pouch, in the substance of the prostate. This little cavity is the **prostatic utricle** (utriculus prostaticus) or **sinus pocularis**, and represents the fused posterior ends of the Müllerian ducts from which the uterus and vagina of the female are developed. The term uterus masculinus is therefore sometimes applied to this little pouch. On each side of the mouth of the utricle is the much more minute opening of the common ejaculatory duct. When traced upwards towards the bladder, the urethral crest, diminishing in height, becomes indistinct, but in it can often be traced as a slight median ridge as far as the uvula vesicæ. When followed in the opposite direction the ridge becomes less marked, and can be followed on the urethral wall into the membranous portion of the canal, where it divides into a pair of inconspicuous folds or elevations, which gradually fade out into the urethral wall (Fig. 846).

The curvature and, to a less degree, the length of the prostatic urethra depends upon the amount of distension of the bladder and of the rectum.

Membranous Part of the Urethra.—The second or membranous portion (pars membranacea) of the urethra leads downwards and forwards from the apex of the prostate to the bulb of the corpus spongiosum, and is the shortest and narrowest of the three subdivisions of the canal, its length being somewhat less than half an inch. It begins at the deep layer of the triangular ligament, a layer of pelvic fascia which lies above the compressor urethræ muscle, where it is continuous with the prostatic portion, and ends, having pierced the superficial layer, by becoming continuous with the spongy portion of the urethra. Placed in front of the rectum, it lies about one inch behind and below the sub-pubic ligament, and is surrounded by fibres of the compressor urethræ muscle. Behind it, on each side of the mesial plane, are Cowper's glands. The posterior part of the bulbus urethræ projects backwards and overlaps to a considerable extent the posterior wall of the second, or membranous, part of the urethra.

The membranous portion of the urethra is the most firmly fixed and least dilatable part of the passage.

A slight median elevation, which is continuous above with the crista urethræ, projects into the canal from its posterior wall, and becoming less marked as it is traced downwards, is often seen to divide into two faint ridges. When the canal is empty other longitudinal folds or ridges are usually to be seen on the mucous membrane, but these become obliterated when the passage is distended. The lumen of the empty tube, in transverse section, presents a stellate outline.

The terminal portion of the membranous urethra, where it is overlapped posteriorly by the urethral bulb, lies in front of the triangular ligament. It is considerably wider than the upper part of this subdivision of the canal, and is very thin-walled (Figs. 844 and 845).

Spongy Portion of the Urethra.—The third or spongy portion (pars cavernosa) of the urethra is much the longest of the three subdivisions. It begins at a point about half an inch in front of the posterior end of the bulb, and ends at the external orifice on the glans penis. Its proximal or perineal portion has a fixed position and direction, while its distal part varies with the position of the penis. The canal is about six inches in length, and is related throughout its whole extent to the erectile tissue of the corpus spongiosum and glans. Directed at first forwards through the bulb of the corpus spongiosum, the canal turns downwards and forwards at the point where it comes to lie in front of the lower part of the symphysis pubis (Fig. 845). This bend in the direction of the canal, roughly speaking, corresponds to the place of attachment of the suspensory ligament to the dorsum of the penis. When the penis is drawn upwards towards the front of the abdomen, the direction of the terminal half of the canal is of course changed, and at the same time the whole length of this subdivision of the urethra becomes more uniformly curved. The urethra passing obliquely downwards and

forwards enters the bulb at a point nearly half an inch from its posterior extremity Immediately after the canal has pierced the triangular ligament its poster aspect becomes surrounded by the erectile tissue of the bulb, but the anterior wa remains uncovered for a distance of about a quarter of an inch (Figs. 844 and 84 The wall of the urethra is here very thin, and the passage is more readily dilatab than in other parts. In this region the urethral wall may readily be torn throu if undue force is used, or if the handle is depressed too soon when attempting pass an instrument into the narrower more fixed membranous part of the can The urethra lies at first in the upper part of the erectile tissue, but as it pas forwards it sinks deeper, and comes to occupy the middle part of the corp spongiosum (Fig. 845). In the glans, on the other hand, the erectile tissue lies the dorsal and lateral aspects of the urethra. Like the other parts of the ureth the canal is closed except during the passage of fluid, the closure being effected the apposition of its dorsal and ventral walls except in the part of the canal whi lies in the glans penis, where the lateral walls of the canal come into conta (Fig. 847). Thus the lumen of the first part of the canal, when empty,

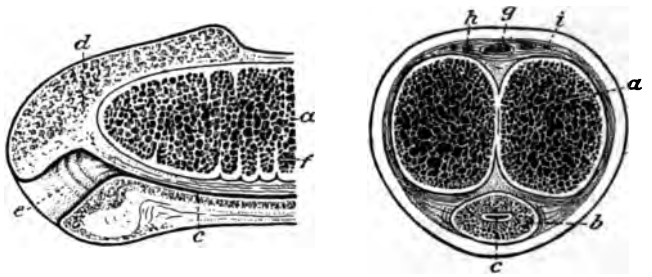

FIG. 847. A LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF THE TERMINAL PORTION OF THE PENIS, AND A TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE BODY OF THE ORGAN.

a. Corpus cavernosum. *d*. Glans penis. *g*. Dorsal vein.
b. Corpus spongiosum. *e*. Fossa navicularis. *h*. Dorsal artery.
c. Urethral canal. *f*. Part of septum pectiniforme. *i*. Dorsal nerve.

represented in cross se tion by a transverse sl and that of the termin part by a vertical sl The spongy part of t urethra does not prese a uniform calibre throu out, but is narrower in i intermediate part, whe it traverses the corp spongiosum, than it is those portions of its cour which are surrounded b the bulb and the glan The terminal dilated pa of the passage is termé the **fossa navicularis urethræ**, and opens on the surface by the vertically-place slit-like **external urethral orifice** (orificium urethræ externum), which is bounde by lateral lips, and is the narrowest and least dilatable part of the whole urethr canal.

The ducts of Cowper's glands open by very minute apertures in the und wall of the proximal part of the spongy portion of the urethra. Before openin into the canal, they lie for some distance immediately beneath its mucous mem brane. A number of little pit-like recesses, called the **lacunæ urethrales**, also ope into the spongy part of the urethra, and are so disposed that their openings le for the most part obliquely into the canal in the direction of its external orifice.

In some cases a somewhat valve-like fold (valvula fossa navicularis) of the mucous membra is found in the upper wall of the urethra in the region of the fossa navicularis. The free edge this fold is directed towards the external urethral orifice, and may engage the point of a ti instrument introduced into the urethra.

Structure.—The mucous membrane of the urethra contains numerous elastic fibe and varies in thickness in different parts of the canal. In many positions it sho distinct longitudinal folds and also minute depressions or pits,—the lacunæ alrea mentioned. The lining epithelium is composed of many layers of cells, and is continuo through the internal urethral orifice with the epithelium of the bladder, which at first closely resembles. At the fossa navicularis the lining cells, which throughout the spon portion of the canal are of a columnar type, become flat and scaly.

Numerous minute glands, **glands of Littré** (glandulæ urethrales) open into t urethra. These are most plentiful in the upper or anterior wall, but they also occur smaller numbers in the floor and side walls. They are most numerous in the anteri half of the spongy portion of the canal, and in the membranous subdivision of the urethr

The larger glands are deeply placed beneath the mucous coat, and communicate wi the urethra by long slender obliquely-placed branched ducts. The smaller glands lie

pelvic ligament), and is a portion of the upper and outer part of the broad ligament of the uterus, which here contains between its two layers the ovarian vessels and nerves as they pass down into the pelvis to reach the hilum of the ovary. The vessels and nerves entering the ovary along its anterior border are enclosed in a sheath of peritoneum derived from the posterior layer of the broad ligament. In this way the ovary is connected along the whole length of its anterior border by a very short mesentery, or **mesovarium**, to the posterior aspect of the broad ligament (Fig. 850). The lower pole of the ovary is connected with the lateral angle of the uterus by a ligament called the **ligament of the ovary** (ligamentum ovarii proprium). This has the form of a rounded cord enclosed between the peritoneal folds of the broad ligament, and is attached to the uterus, behind and below the point of entrance of the Fallopian tube. It is chiefly composed of smooth muscle fibres continuous with those of the uterus. The upper pole of the ovary is usually directly connected with one of the largest of the fimbriæ surrounding the abdominal end of the Fallopian tube, which receives the name **ovarian fimbria** of the tube (Fig. 850).

Descent of the Ovary.—Like the testes, the ovaries at first lie in the abdominal cavity, and only later assume a lower position. At birth the ovary lies partly in the abdominal, and partly in the pelvic cavity; soon, however, it takes up a position entirely within the pelvis. As in the male a gubernaculum is present in the early stages of development. The ligament of the ovary represents the upper part of the gubernaculum which is developed within the plica testis inferior in the male, and the round ligament of the uterus represents the lower part, which is formed within the plica inguinalis (see p. 1168). It is a rare abnormality for the ovary, instead of entering the pelvis, to take a course similar to that of the testis, and pass through the inguinal canal into the tissue of the labium majus.

Structure of the Ovary.—The ovary is for the most part composed of a connective tissue stroma (stroma ovarii), richly supplied by blood-vessels and nerves. The stroma contains very numerous spindle-shaped connective tissue fibres, and some elastic tissue. The surface of the ovary is covered by a layer of epithelium, which is composed of columnar cubical cells, and is continuous with the epithelium of the peritoneum forming the mesovarium. The ovarian epithelium is a persistent portion of the germinal epithelium of the embryo which covers the genital ridges, and from which the ova and other cells of the Graafian follicles are derived. The position in which it becomes continuous with the peritoneum can usually be distinguished as a fine white line near the hilum of the ovary. Shining through the epithelium of the fresh ovary (except in old age), are usually to be seen a variable number of small vesicles—the **Graafian follicles** (folliculi oophori vesiculosi), in which the **ova** are contained. The number of follicles visible, and also the size which each follicle reaches before it ruptures and sheds its contents, is by no means constant. When a follicle ruptures and discharges the ovum its walls at first collapse, but later the cavity becomes filled with extravasated blood and cellular tissue of a yellowish colour. The resulting structure, called a **corpus luteum**, slowly degenerates unless impregnation has taken place, in which case it develops and becomes larger during pregnancy. As it atrophies the cells of the corpus luteum disappear, and the structure, losing its yellow colour, receives the name of **corpus albicans**. After a time the corpus albicans completely disappears. Owing to the periodic rupture of the Graafian follicles, the surface of the ovary, which is at first smooth and even, becomes in old age dimpled and puckered.

A section through the ovary, especially in young children, presents in its superficial part a somewhat granular appearance, which is due to the presence of enormous numbers of small follicles, or collections of epithelial cells, embedded in the connective tissue near the surface of the ovary. The larger follicles lie deeper in the stroma, but when they become fully developed they pass towards the surface, where the ripe follicles are often seen slightly projecting and ready to burst. In the deepest part of the ovary the blood-vessels are most numerous, and here also some smooth muscle fibres are to be found.

The ova and the other cells that compose the Graafian follicles are derived originally from the germinal epithelium which covers the developing ovary in the embryo. The epithelium, at first simple, grows down into the underlying tissue in the form of branching tube-like processes, or "egg tubes." This takes place during fœtal development, and the branching cellular processes so formed become broken up, within the stroma, into little nests or clumps of cells, each of which becomes a Graafian follicle. From the beginning some cells of the egg tubes are larger than the others; these become the future ova

much narrower when the muscular coat of the tube is contracted. This openi placed at the bottom of a funnel-like expansion of the tube called the **infundib** (infundibulum tubæ uterinæ), the margins of which are produced into a numb irregular processes or **fimbriæ** (fimbriæ tubæ). The presence of these fimbriæ, n of which are branched or fringed, has given the name **fimbriated extremity** to end of the Fallopian tube. The surface of the fimbriæ which looks into the c of the infundibulum is covered by a mucous membrane continuous with that li the tube, while the outer surface is clothed by peritoneum. The mucous sur of the larger fimbriæ present ridges and grooves which are continued into the and furrows of the mucous coat of the tube. One of the fimbriæ, usually r larger than the rest, is connected either directly or indirectly with the upp tubal pole of the ovary, and to it the name **ovarian fimbria** (fimbria ovaric applied. The part of the tube continuous with the infundibulum, and into w the ostium abdominale leads, is called the **ampulla** (ampulla tubæ uterinæ). the widest and longest portion of the Fallopian tube, is usually tortuous a varying diameter, being in some places slightly constricted, and in others tended. The wide, thin-walled ampulla ends in the narrower, thicker-walled, much shorter **isthmus** (isthmus tubæ uterinæ) which joins the lateral angle o uterus. The last portion of the canal, or **pars uterina**, is embedded in the subst of the uterine wall, which it traverses to reach the cavity of the uterus (Fig. 85 The opening into the uterus (ostium uterinum tubæ) is smaller than the os abdominale, being about 1 mm. in diameter. The lumen of the canal gradu increases in width as it is traced outwards from the uterus towards the ovary.

Course of the Fallopian Tube.—Traced from the lateral angle of the u the Fallopian tube is directed at first horizontally outwards towards the lowe uterine, pole of the ovary. It then passes upwards in relation to the inner si the anterior border of the ovary, until it reaches the upper or tubal pole, w arching backwards, it descends along the posterior border, resting against the i surface of the gland (Fig. 852). As the Fallopian tube describes this loop it c covers almost the entire inner surface of the ovary. The fimbriated end of tube lies against the lower part of the inner surface of the ovary, and from it ovarian fimbria passes upwards to gain attachment to the tubal pole.

The fimbriated end of the Fallopian tube lies in the abdominal cavity until the ovary i descent has entered the pelvis.

Structure of the Fallopian Tubes.—The wall of each tube, which is surrou by a covering of peritoneum (tunica serosa), is composed of a number of concentric la or coats. Immediately beneath the peritoneum is a layer of loose connective tissu which lie many vessels and nerves (tunica adventitia). Beneath this is the **muscular** (tunica muscularis) composed of two strata of smooth muscle fibres,—a more super thin stratum of longitudinally arranged fibres (stratum longitudinale), and a de thicker layer, the fibres of which are circularly disposed (stratum circulare). Deeper **submucous layer** (tela submucosa), and then the lining membrane or **mucous coat** (tu mucosa). In the part of the tube near the uterus the muscular layer is thicker towards the other end, and in the isthmus it forms the chief part of the wall. mucous membrane, on the contrary, is thickest towards the fimbriated end, and he forms the chief part of the tube wall. The stratum of circular muscle fibres is espec well developed near the uterus. The mucous membrane is thrown into numerous l tudinal folds (plicæ tubariæ), which in the ampulla are exceedingly complex, the la ones being beset on the surface by smaller folds. In transverse sections of this pa the tube the folds of the mucous membrane look like large branching processes proje into, and almost completely filling up, the lumen of the tube. The mucous membra covered by a ciliated epithelium, the cilia of which tend to drive the contents of the towards the uterus. The epithelium is continuous with that of the uterus, and at fimbriated end joins the peritoneum.

Vessels and Nerves of the Fallopian Tube.—The Fallopian tube receives its chief bl supply from a branch of the **uterine artery** (ramus tubarius), but it also receives small bra derived from the **ovarian artery**. The veins of the tube pour their blood partly into the ut and partly into the ovarian veins. The **nerves** are derived from the plexus that supplies ovary, and also from the plexus in connexion with the uterus. The afferent fibres appe belong to the eleventh and twelfth thoracic and the first lumbar nerves. The **lymphatics** the lumbar group of glands.

The **neck**, or **cervix uteri**, is cylindrical, and at its commencement it is sometimes marked off from the body by a slight constriction. Its length is about one inch, and its lower end, tapering somewhat, enters the upper part of the vagina. The cervix is attached to the margin of the opening in the vaginal wall, through which it passes, and in this way a **supravaginal portion** (portio supravaginalis) is marked off from the **vaginal portion** (portio vaginalis) of the cervix. In the vaginal portion of the cervix there is an opening—the **external os uteri** (orificium externum uteri)—through which the cavity of the uterus communicates with that of the vagina. In the uterus which has never been pregnant this opening is nearly circular, but in women who have borne children it is usually a transverse slit with a somewhat irregular outline. In front of and behind this opening the cervix forms two lips, an *anterior* and a *posterior* (labium anterius et labium posterius). The anterior lip is thicker, and slightly more rounded; it is placed upon a lower level than the posterior lip, which is slightly longer and thinner. The cervix enters the vagina through the upper part of its anterior wall in such a manner that the external os uteri is directed backwards and downwards against the upper part of the posterior vaginal wall (Fig. 853).

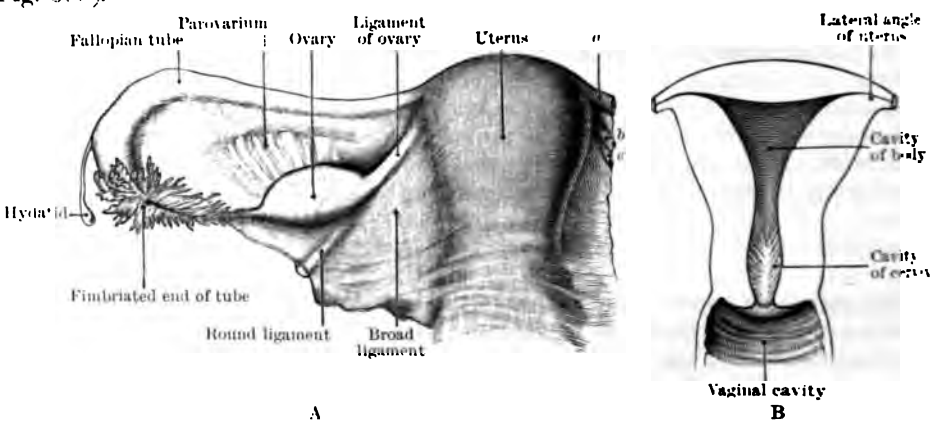

FIG. 852. A. THE UTERUS AND BROAD LIGAMENT SEEN FROM BEHIND (the broad ligament has been spread out).

a, *b*, and *c*, the isthmus tubæ, the ligament of the ovary, and the round ligament of the right side cut short.

B. DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE UTERINE CAVITY OPENED UP FROM IN FRONT.

Cavity of the Uterus.—In comparison with the size of the organ, the cavity of the uterus (cavum uteri) is of small size owing to the great thickness of the uterine wall. In the body, or corpus uteri, the cavity is merely a narrow chink between the anterior and posterior walls, which are almost in contact (Fig. 853). When, however, the organ is opened from above downwards in coronal section the cavity of the body has a triangular outline (Fig. 852). The base of the triangle is directed upwards, and corresponds to a line drawn between the openings of the Fallopian tubes, while the apex is directed downwards towards the cervix. The sides of the triangle are convex inwards towards the cavity. The cavity of the body becomes continuous with that of the neck, or cervix, by an opening called the **internal os uteri** (orificium internum uteri), which is a little smaller and more circular than the external os uteri. The cavity of the cervix, or **cervical canal** (canalis cervicis uteri), extends from the internal os uteri, where it joins the cavity of the body, to the external os uteri, where it opens into the vagina. It is a somewhat spindle-shaped passage, which is narrower above and below than in its middle part; also sections show that its antero-posterior diameter is shorter than its transverse one, owing to an approximation of its anterior and posterior walls. In the body of the uterus the walls of the cavity are smooth and even, but in the cervical canal the mucous membrane forms a remarkable series of folds, called the **arbor vitæ uterina** or **plicæ palmatæ**. These consist of an anterior and a posterior longitudinally directed fold or ridge, from which a large number of secondary folds, or rugæ, branch off obliquely upwards and outwards (Fig. 852).

Connexions of the Uterus and its Relations to the Peritoneum.—In addition to the Fallopian tubes at its upper lateral angles, and the vagina below, the uterus possesses other important connexions. Some of these are simply peritoneal folds passing from the uterus to neighbouring structures; others contain fibrous connective tissue, or smooth muscle fibres.

The peritoneum covering the fundus of the uterus is continued down over the anterior surface as far as the junction of the body and cervix, where it leaves the uterus to be reflected on to the bladder, forming the **utero-vesical fold**, or "anterior ligament of the uterus." The peritoneal recess between the bladder and the uterus is called the utero-vesical pouch (excavatio vesico-uterina). Below the level of the floor of this pouch the anterior aspect of the cervix is connected by loose tissue with the posterior, or basal, part of the bladder. Posteriorly the peritoneum covers the whole of the uterus, except the small portion of the cervix which projects into the upper part of the vagina. The peritoneum covering the posterior surface of the uterus is continued to such a depth that it invests a small portion of the upper part of the posterior wall of the vagina before it is reflected on to the rectum, to form the **recto-vaginal fold** (Fig. 853). The deep pouch between the uterus and vagina in front and the rectum behind is called the **pouch of Douglas** (excavatio recto-uterina or recto-genital pouch), and its entrance is bounded on each side by a crescentic peritoneal fold, which passes from the posterior surface of the cervix uteri to the posterior wall of the pelvis, and ends near the side of the rectum. These crescentic folds are called the **recto-uterine folds** (plicæ recto-uterinæ, recto-genital folds), or **folds of Douglas**, and each contains between its layers a considerable amount of fibrous and smooth muscular tissue. Some of these fibres, which are continuous with the uterine wall, pass backwards to reach the rectum and constitute the **recto-uterine muscle** (musculus recto-uterinus); others, gaining an attachment to the front of the sacrum, form the **utero-sacral ligament**. In many cases the recto-uterine folds become continuous with one another across the middle line behind the cervix uteri, and form, in this position, a transverse ridge termed the **torus uterinus**. The pouch of Douglas, or recto-genital pouch of the female, represents the recto-vesical, or recto-genital pouch of the male, and the folds which bound it laterally, namely, the recto-uterine folds, correspond to the sacro-genital folds (sometimes called posterior false ligaments of the bladder) in the male sex. The peritoneum of the anterior and posterior surfaces, leaving the uterus along each lateral border to reach the side wall of the pelvis, forms the broad ligament of the uterus.

The **broad ligament** (ligamentum latum uteri) is a wide peritoneal fold which passes from the lateral border of the uterus to the pelvic wall, and contains between its layers several important structures (Fig. 852). The plane of the inner part of the ligament is determined by the position of the uterus. When the uterus is normally placed, the ligament has an anterior surface which looks downwards as well as forwards, and a posterior one which looks upwards and backwards. Near its attachment to the pelvis the ligament is placed more vertically. The free edge of the ligament contains the Fallopian tube, and follows the course pursued by that structure. Thus, in the undisturbed condition of parts, it at first passes horizontally outwards towards the lower end of the ovary, where it ascends to arch over the upper pole of the ovary on its inner side. Owing to the course pursued by the Fallopian tube round the ovary, the broad ligament forms a kind of curtain over the gland, and the ovary lies in a little pocket formed by the broad ligament, to which the name of **bursa ovarii** is applied (Figs. 848 and 849). This bursa ovarii is not to be confused with the fossa ovarica, or depression on the side wall of the pelvis, against which the ovary is usually placed.

The various structures in connexion with the broad ligament are most easily demonstrated when the ligament is spread out as flat as possible.

The ovary is connected with the posterior layer of the broad ligament by a very short mesentery, called the **mesovarium**, which, passing to the hilum, encloses the ovarian vessels and nerves as they reach the ovary. The part of the broad ligament which slings the Fallopian tube is called the **mesosalpinx**. When the ligament is spread out, the mesosalpinx has the form of a narrow triangle, the

apex of which is at the lateral angle of the uterus, while the upper side is form by the Fallopian tube, and the lower one by the ligament of the ovary and t ovary itself. The narrow base of the triangle is directed outwards. Between t layers of this part of the broad ligament are situated the parovarium (epoophor and the paroophoron (Fig. 852). The part of the broad ligament below the le of the mesosalpinx is termed **mesometrium**, and contains, especially in its lo part, a considerable amount of fatty connective tissue (parametrium) and unstri muscle fibres. The ureter and the uterine vessels lie in the lowest part of broad ligament where it joins the pelvic floor.

The highest part of the attached lateral portion of the broad ligament forms suspensory ligament of the ovary and contains between its layers the ovar vessels and nerves, as they enter or leave the pelvis.

The **ligament of the ovary** (ligamentum ovarii proprium) is a rounded fibr cord, of about one to one and a half inches in length, which is attached by its ou end to the lower pole of the ovary, and by its inner end to the lateral angle of uterus immediately below and behind the entrance of the Fallopian tube. T ligament, which is largely composed of unstriped muscle fibres continuous w those of the uterus, is enclosed in a slight fold derived from the posterior layer the broad ligament.

The ligament of the ovary represents the upper portion of the gubernaculum which app in the embryo.

The **round ligament** of the uterus (ligamentum teres uteri) is a narrow band attached to the uterus just in front of and a little below the opening of Fallopian tube. Near the uterus it contains numerous smooth muscle fibres, wh are continuous with those of the uterus; further on it is chiefly composed fibrous connective tissue. Lying in the anterior part of the broad ligament, reaches the pelvic wall, and is then directed forwards and slightly upwards to cr the obliterated hypogastric artery and the pelvic brim. After it has reached t pelvic wall its course is comparable to that of the vas deferens in the male, a like the latter, it leaves the abdomen to traverse the inguinal canal (Figs. 845 a 848). It finally ends in the subcutaneous tissue and skin of the labium majus. terminal part is composed of connective tissue only.

In some cases a small diverticulum of the peritoneal cavity can be traced accompanying round ligament through the abdominal wall. This is called the **canal of Nuck** (proces vaginalis peritonæi), and corresponds to the processus vaginalis of the male (p. 1167).

The round ligament of the uterus represents the lower portion of the gubernaculum te which appears in the male embryo (see pp. 1168 and 1184).

Position and Relations of the Uterus.—The position occupied by t uterus in the pelvis is not always the same, but varies with the conditions of t neighbouring organs. The lower cervical part is, however, much more firmly fix in place than the body and fundus, which possess a considerable amount of mobili Usually the level of the external os uteri will be found to correspond to that of horizontal plane passing through the upper margin of the symphysis pubis. T uterus rarely lies exactly in the mesial plane of the body, but usually bends to o or other side, most frequently towards the right. The anterior surface of the uter rests against the bladder, and follows the rising or falling of its superior wall that organ becomes filled or emptied. When the bladder is empty the long axis the uterus points forwards and upwards, and the organ is said to be in an *anteverte* position. Also the long axis of the uterus is bent on itself where the body joins t cervix, and so the organ is said to be *anteflexed*. The anteflexion is due to the f that the more rigid cervix is fixed, while the movable upper part of the uterus sin forwards, following the bladder wall. With the empty condition of the blad the angle formed between the long axis of the uterus and that of the vagina about a right angle. When the bladder becomes filled, the anteversion a anteflexion of the uterus become less marked, owing to the body and fund being pushed backwards. Finally, if the rectum be empty and the bladder ve much distended, the uterus is pushed so much backwards that the long axis of t organ may nearly correspond to that of the vagina. The uterus is then said to

remains permanently somewhat wider and larger than in cases where the uter has never been pregnant.

In old age the uterine wall becomes harder and has a paler colour than possesses in the young subject.

Variations.—In rare cases the uterus may be divided by a septum into two distinct cavit or its lateral angles may be produced into straight or curved processes, called "horns" or corn The latter abnormality recalls the appearance of the bicornuate uteri of some animals. Both above conditions arise from an arrest in the fusion of the two separate tubes—the Mulleri ducts—which normally unite to form the uterus.

Periodic Changes in the Uterine Wall.—At each menstrual period a remar able series of changes occurs which results in a periodic shedding of the sup ficial parts of the uterine mucous membrane. For a few days before menstruati begins, the mucous membrane gradually thickens and becomes more vascular, wh at the same time its surface becomes uneven. Soon the superficial parts of t mucous membrane disintegrate and haemorrhage takes place from the small sup ficial blood-vessels. In this way a haemorrhagic discharge is caused, and t superficial parts of the uterine mucous membrane are shed at each period. Wh menstruation is over the mucous membrane is rapidly regenerated.

Pregnant Uterus.—The pregnant uterus increases rapidly in size and weig so that from being three inches in length and one ounce in weight, it becomes the eighth month about seven or eight inches in length and sometimes as mu as two pounds in weight. In shape the uterus is now oval or rounded, with a thi wall composed chiefly of muscle fibres arranged in distinct layers. The round fundus is very prominent. The round ligaments are stronger and better mark and the layers of the broad ligament become separated in their inner parts by t growth of the uterus between them. The blood-vessels, especially the arteries, very large and tortuous. The changes which occur in the mucous membrane the pregnant uterus are intimately connected with the manner in which t developing fœtus receives its nutrition, and have been noticed on p. 53.

Vessels and Nerves of the Uterus. The uterus receives its arterial supply fro **uterine arteries**, which are branches of the internal iliac arteries, and also from the **ovarian arter** branches of the aorta. The vessels derived from these two sources communicate freely with another. Each uterine artery, reaching the side of the lower part of the uterus, divides int large branch which passes upwards to supply the body and fundus, and a much smaller bran which passes downwards to supply the cervix. The vessels distributed to the body and fun have an exceedingly tortuous course. The branches of the uterine artery, having entered t muscular coat, break up within its deeper layers into smaller twigs which supply the muscu tissue and the mucous coat. The small uterine branch from the ovarian artery reaches t uterus in the region of the lateral angle. During pregnancy the arteries become enormo enlarged.

The thin-walled **veins** form a plexus which pours its blood into the tributaries of the inter iliac vein.

The **nerves** of the uterus are derived chiefly from a plexus placed in the neighbourhood the cervix uteri, to which the term **cervical ganglion** or **plexus utero-vaginalis** is appli Superiorly this plexus is continuous with the hypogastric plexus, but it also receives fibres fr the third and fourth sacral nerves. In addition to fibres from the plexus utero-vaginalis, t uterus receives fibres directly from the **hypogastric plexus**, and also from the **vesical plexus**.

Clinical observations indicate that afferent impulses reach the central nervous system from t uterus through the posterior roots of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth thoracic nerves, the fi lumbar, and the second, third, and fourth sacral nerves.

The numerous **lymphatic vessels** coming from the body of the uterus join those from the ov and end for the most part in the lumbar lymphatic glands. Along the course of the ro ligament of the uterus there are a few lymphatic vessels which establish a connexion between t lymphatic network surrounding the uterus and the inguinal lymphatic glands. T lymphatics from the cervix uteri end in the gland placed near the bifurcation of the comm iliac artery.

THE VAGINA.

The **vagina** is a passage about three inches in length, open at its low end, and communicating above with the cavity of the **uterus**. The passage directed downwards and forwards, describing a slight curve which is convex bac wards. The axis of the vagina forms with that of the uterus an angle which

has a firm fibrous sheath, which is covered by the corresponding **ischio-cavernosus** or erector clitoridis muscle. In structure the crura and body of the clitoris resemble the corpora cavernosa penis, while the glans more closely resembles the bulbus vestibuli, with which it is continuous through a structure known as the pars intermedia.

In the seal and some other animals, a bone, which represents the os penis of the male, is developed in the septum of the clitoris. This bone receives the name **os clitoridis**.

Arteries and Nerves of the Clitoris.—Each crus receives a branch (arteria profunda clitoridis) from the **internal pudic artery**, while the glans is supplied by branches of the **dorsal artery** of the clitoris (arteriæ dorsalis clitoridis). The nerve supply of the clitoris is derived partly from the **hypogastric sympathetic plexus** and partly from the **dorsal nerves** of the clitoris.

Bulbus Vestibuli.—The bulbus vestibuli is a mass of erectile tissue, in the female, which corresponds developmentally to the corpus spongiosum urethræ in the male. In the female the fusion of the two halves of this structure is not nearly so complete as in the male, for the vagina and urethra separate the bulbus vestibuli into two lateral portions which are only slightly connected in front by a narrow median part called the **pars intermedia**. Each lateral portion of the bulb is thick and massive posteriorly, and more pointed in front where it joins the pars intermedia. It rests against the side wall of the vagina, and upon the superficial aspect of the triangular ligament. Superficially it is covered by the bulbo-cavernosus muscle. The pars intermedia lies above the urethra, and becomes continuous with the tissue of the glans clitoridis. It represents one-half of the corpus spongiosum urethræ of the male.

The bulbus vestibuli is for the most part composed of minute convoluted blood-vessels, held together by a very small amount of connective tissue. These vessels frequently anastomose with one another, and those of each lateral half communicate with the vessels of the pars intermedia and the glans clitoridis.

The blood-supply of the bulb is derived on each side from a branch (arteria bulbi vestibuli) of the internal pudic.

The Glands of Bartholin.

The **glands of Bartholin** (glandulæ vestibulares majores) are placed one on each side of the lower part of the vagina, and represent Cowper's glands in the male. They are often overlapped by the posterior ends of the bulbi vestibuli, and are covered by the bulbo-cavernosus muscle. Each is about the size and shape of a small bean, and possesses a long slender duct which opens into the urinogenital cleft in the angle between the attached border of the labium minus and the vaginal opening.

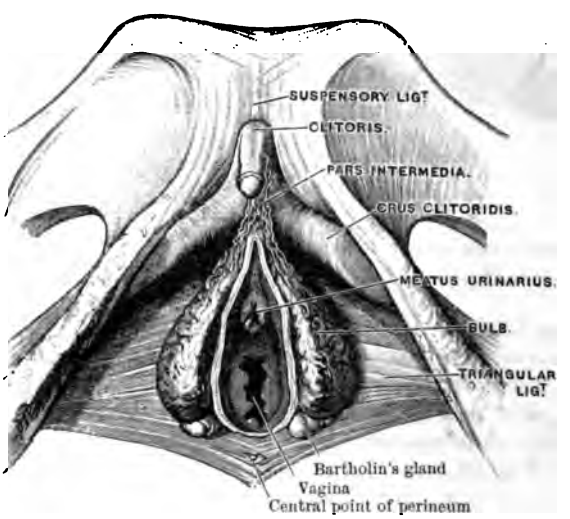

Fig. 857.—Dissection of Female Perineum to show the Clitoris, the Bulb of the Vestibule, and Bartholin's Glands (D. J. Cunningham).

Development of the Urinogenital Organs

In tracing the development history of the urinogenital system we may for convenience begin with an embryo of fifteen days old. About this time a duct, which runs in a longitudinal direction, and occupies a position on the outer side of the protovertebral somites, begins to develop on each side of the body. With the exception of the anterior portion of the cloaca and the proximal part of the allantois, this duct, which has received the name of **Wolffian duct**, is the earliest formed structure from which, or in connexion with which, the parts of the adult urinogenital system arise.

The Wolffian duct serves as the canal, or duct, for the primitive secretory organ or **mesonephros** of the embryo. With the atrophy of the mesonephros the duct suffers modification, yet both sexes in the adult possess structures which have their embryonic origin from the Wolffian. In the male the **canal of the epididymis**, the **vas deferens**, and the **common ejaculatory duct**, are to be looked upon as directly developed from the Wolffian duct of the embryo; while in the female the **longitudinal duct of the parovarium** and the **hydatids of Morgagni** are rudimentary structures having a like origin. Further, the **ureter** and its **pelvis**, together probably with the complicated system of

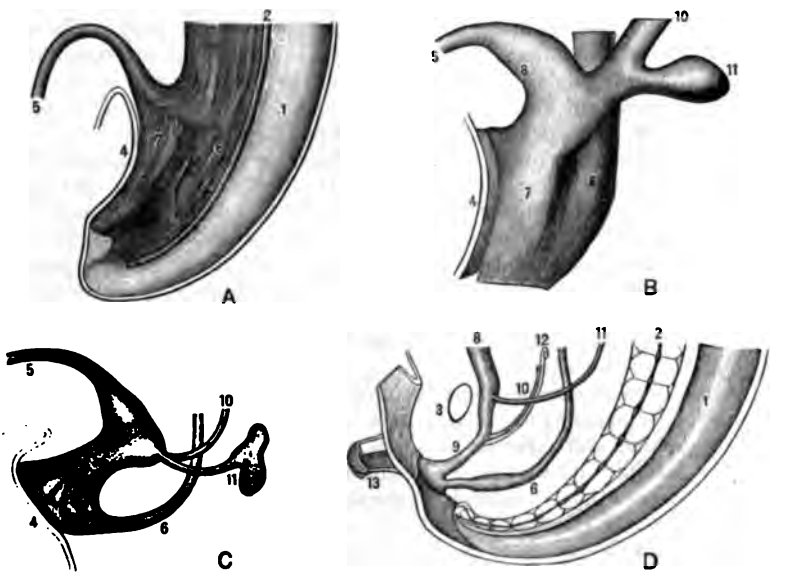

FIG. 858. -DEVELOPMENT OF THE BLADDER, URETER, AND KIDNEY. From the models by Professor Keibel.

A. Caudal portion of an embryo of 15 to 18 days old. The cloaca is relatively very large, and is not yet joined by the Wolffian ducts; an indication is present of the separation of the cloaca into dorsal or rectal, and ventral or urinogenital, subdivisions.

B. The cloaca of an older embryo--25 to 27 days old. The subdivision of the cloaca is more clearly marked. The Wolffian duct is seen joining the anterior subdivision, and from the lower part of the duct an outgrowth is present, which gives origin to the ureter and the kidney.

C. Still older stage (36 to 37 days old). The ureter has acquired a separate opening into the developing bladder which is placed upon the same level as that of the Wolffian duct. The kidney is much more advanced, and the rectum is becoming separated from the urinogenital canal.

D. Female embryo 8½ to 9 weeks old. The openings of the ureter and genital ducts have become separated by a considerable interval. The urinogenital canal and rectum have acquired separate openings.

1, Spinal cord; 2, Notochord; 3, Pubic symphysis; 4, Cloacal membrane, forming the floor of the ectodermal cloacal fossa; 5, Allantoic canal; 6, Rectum, or rectal subdivision of cloaca; 7, Urinogenital subdivision of cloaca; 8, Bladder; 9, Urinogenital canal; 10, Wolffian duct; 11, Ureter (or ureter and developing kidney); 12, Müllerian duct; 13, Genital eminence.

kidney tubules which open into it, arise in both sexes as an outgrowth from the Wolffian duct. In the male the **vesicula seminalis** also arises as a diverticulum of the Wolffian duct (Fig. 860).

The primitive secretory organ, the **mesonephros**, or Wolffian body develops in connexion with the anterior part of the Wolffian duct (p. 32), and is, during the early life of the embryo, a most important structure. With the development of the permanent kidney the mesonephros atrophies, yet some of its tubules persist in the adult. The **vasa efferentia**, the **ductuli aberrantes**, and the rudimentary **paradidymis** (organ of Giraldés) in the male, and the rudimentary tubules of the **parovarium** (epoophoron) and of the **paroophoron** in the female, are structures which owe their origin to tubules of the mesonephros.

Soon after the formation of the Wolffian ducts two other longitudinally-disposed canals, called the **Müllerian ducts**, are developed. These open at their cephalic ends into the body cavity, and at their caudal ends, unlike the Wolffian ducts, they unite with one another in the *middle line*. From them are formed, in the female—the **Fallopian tubes**, **the uterus**, and the **vagina**; and in the male—the **hydatids** of the testis and the **utriculus prostaticus**.

The *Wolffian and Müllerian* ducts open at their caudal ends into the ventral or

urinogenital part of the **cloaca**, which in the course of development becomes transform into the **bladder** and the **urinogenital canal** of the embryo (Figs. 858 and 860). T developing ureter at first arises as a diverticulum from the Wolffian duct, at a sh distance from the point where the latter joins the cloaca. Soon, however, the uret acquire independent openings into the cloaca, which become gradually shifted furt from one another and from those of the Wolffian ducts. The ureters are now found open into the anterior portion of the cloaca which lies nearer to the head of the emb than the part with which the Wolffian ducts are connected. This cephalic portion rec ing the ureters becomes, in the male, the bladder and the upper part of the prost urethra; in the female, the bladder and the entire urethra (Fig. 861). The caudal p lying below the level of the entrance of the Wolffian ducts, is the urinogenital canal, is represented in the adult male by the lower part of the prostatic and by the membran portions of the urethra; in the female by the part of the urinogenital fissure wh immediately surrounds the openings of the urethra and vagina (Fig. 861). The un Müllerian ducts open into the lower part of the cloaca or urinogenital canal, between Wolffian ducts of opposite sides. In the male the position of this opening, whic represented in the adult by the opening of the uterus masculinus, remains almost changed; in the female, on the other hand, the urinogenital canal becomes relati shorter during development, and thus the opening, which in this sex is represented the orifice of the vagina, comes to the surface at the bottom of the urinogenital fis (Fig. 861). The cavity of the developing bladder is directly continuous above with of the allantois, and by some authorities the bladder is described as arising as a dilata of the proximal part of the allantois.

When the ectodermal **cloacal fossa** is formed, after the complete separation of cloaca into anterior or urinogenital, and posterior or rectal parts, it communicates at with the rectum behind and later on with the urinogenital canal in front (p. 45). fossa is bounded laterally by well-marked skin folds, the **labio-scrotal folds**, and at anterior end is situated the **genital eminence**. This eminence becomes the p portion of the **penis** or of the **clitoris**, and its posterior surface is grooved longitudin in such a manner that the proximal end of the groove lies near the opening of the ur genital canal into the cloacal fossa.

In the male the lips of this groove on the genital eminence, meeting together, for canal which, in the adult, traverses the penis as the terminal part of the urethra. lateral margins of the cloacal fossa, behind the genital eminence, meet together, and fu in the middle line, convert the fossa into a canal, which completes the spongy portio the adult urethra. In this way all the cloacal fossa lying in front of the rectum, and groove on the genital eminence, become closed over to form the third part of the uret The spongy part of the urethra is thus derived from the *ectodermal cloacal fossa* and groove on the genital eminence, while the prostatic and membranous parts owe t origin to the *endodermal cloaca*.

In the female the margins of the ectodermal cloacal fossa remain separate throughout life, and the fossa persists as the **urinogenital cleft**. The groove on the genital emine closes over, but does not form a canal as in the male. The urinogenital canal first like that of the male, becomes relatively shorter and shorter during deve ment, and, as a result, the lower end of the fused portions of the Müllerian ducts, wh opens into the canal, and f which the **vagina** is form appears in the adult to directly into the fossa (ur genital space) behind channel leading from bladder. From the la channel is formed the fen urethra (Fi

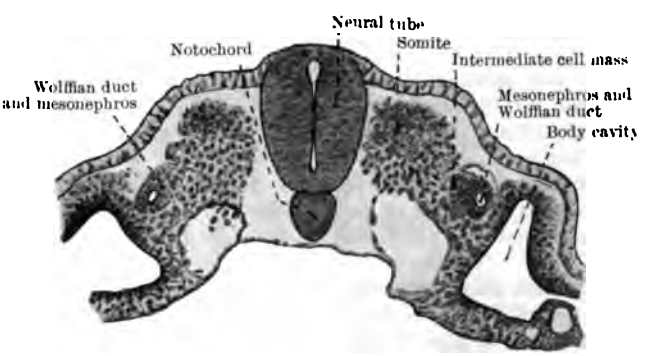

FIG. 859.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE BODY OF A FOWL EMBRYO.

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Wolffian duct becomes the canal of the epididymis and the vas deferens of the adult (see p. 1204). *In the female*, when the permanent kidney is formed, the mesonephros and its duct undergo atrophy to a greater extent than in the male, and they are only represented in the adult by the rudimentary structures present in the broad ligament of the uterus (see p. 1205).

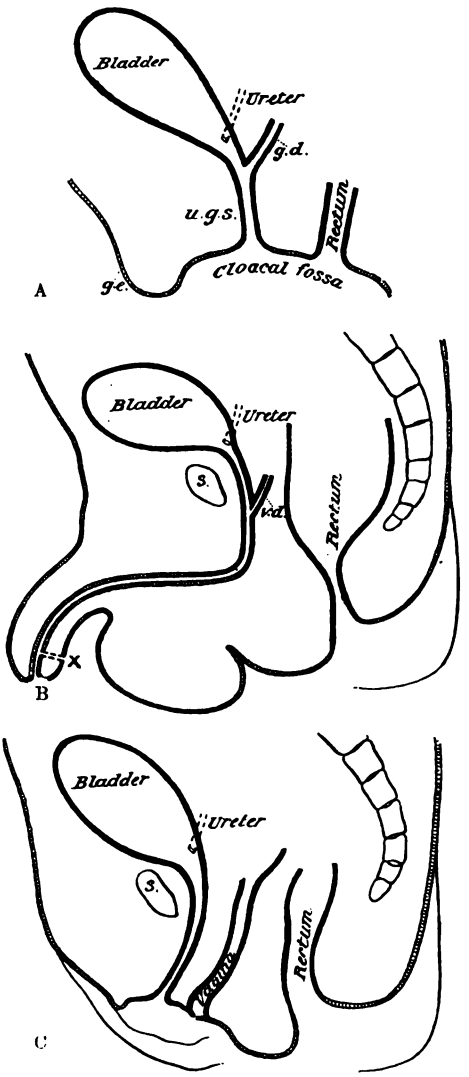


FIG. 861. — DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION AND COMPARISON OF THE MANNER IN WHICH THE URINOGENITAL PASSAGES ARISE IN THE TWO SEXES.

In each case the hypoblast is indicated by a thick black line, while the epiblast is shown by a double line with cross shading.

A. Represents a stage passed through by both sexes, and illustrates the connexions of the urinogenital ducts and of the rectum with the ectodermal cloacal fossa; *gd*, indicates the position where the Wolffian and Müllerian ducts open into the urinogenital canal; *ge*, genital eminence; *ugs*, urinogenital canal.

B. Male condition. The greater portion of the urethral canal is ectodermal in origin, and is derived from the ectodermal cloacal fossa and the groove on the genital eminence by the meeting of their lateral boundaries. (The portion of the canal which is usually the last to be closed in is indicated at *x*.) The upper part of the urethra is endodermal in origin. The position where the genital ducts (in the male represented by the vasa deferentia and uterus masculinus) join the urinogenital canal is indicated at *wd*; *s*, symphysis pubis.

C. Female condition. Owing to the shortening of the urinogenital canal (*ugs*, in A) and the rapid growth of the vagina the urethral and genital openings come to lie in the bottom of the urinogenital fissure. The deepest part of this fissure, immediately surrounding the openings, is formed by endoderm derived from the urinogenital canal.

Ureter and Permanent Kidney.— The kidney and ureter arise as a tubular diverticulum from the Wolffian duct close to the point where the latter joins the cloaca. This diverticulum is seen first during the fourth week, and grows from behind forwards, dorsal to the body cavity. Even in its very early condition the portion of the outgrowth which lies nearest to the Wolffian duct, and from which the adult ureter is developed, is more slender than the distal part, which becomes branched, and grows out to form the pelvis and calyces of the ureter. The uriniferous tubules of the kidney appear to arise as branching tubular outgrowths from the calyces. The blind distal end of each tubule soon dilates to form a capsule which, becoming invaginated on itself, encloses a tuft of capillary blood-vessels. The Malpighian corpuscles arising in this manner are found in the human kidney as early as the eighth week.

According to many embryologists it is only the collecting tubules that are formed in this manner, and the other tubules of the kidney have a mesoblastic origin similar to that of the tubules of the mesonephros and independent of the outgrowth which gives origin to the ureter and its pelvis. These authorities state that the kidney tubules arising in the mesoblast, only later acquire connexions with the outgrowths from the ureter.

It is possible that the tubules which give rise to the permanent kidney really lie in series with those which form the mesonephros, and hence begin where the latter cease to be formed, namely at the first sacral segment.

As the ureter increases in length, it becomes separated from the Wolffian duct, and acquires a distinct opening into the anterior part of the cloaca nearer the head of the embryo than that of the Wolffian duct. This part of the cloaca receiving the ureters becomes the bladder. The kidney is at first a distinctly lobulated body, and shows at birth, and sometimes even in the adult, traces of its original subdivision into lobule.

Bladder.—The bladder is formed from

hymen is placed where the fused Müllerian ducts (vagina) open into the urinogenital canal.

Sexual Glands.—In the development of the sexual glands, male and female, a differentiated thickened portion of the peritoneal epithelium is first recognised. This specialised epithelium, which has received the name of **germinal epithelium**, is situated to the inner side of the mesonephros and of the Wolffian and Müllerian ducts. Here it covers a longitudinally-disposed ridge or elevation called the **genital ridge**. The germinal epithelium is not strictly limited to this ridge, but extends to some extent beyond its limits. The genital ridge is soon found to have numerous epithelial cells embedded in its connective-tissue stroma which appear to originate, in both sexes, by a proliferation from the deep surface of the germinal epithelium covering the ridge. From these epithelial cells the seminiferous tubules of the male, and Graafian follicles with their contained ova of the female are developed.

In the male, as early as the thirty-third day, the epithelial cells embedded in the stroma of the developing testis have become arranged into a network of anastomosing cords within which certain larger cells are seen to be irregularly scattered. These larger cells have received the name of **primitive sperm cells**, and are relatively few in number. They undergo frequent division, and in the later stages are not to be distinguished from the other cells of the cords. The cellular cords undergo direct transformation into the **seminiferous tubules** of the testis, but the excretory apparatus, including the **rete testis** and **tubuli recti**, is derived by outgrowths from the anterior tubules of the mesonephros. At a very early stage the superficial part of the stroma of the developing testis, becomes denser, and gives origin to the **tunica albuginea**.

It has been stated that the sexual epithelium of the testis, unlike that of the ovary, is not derived from the germinal epithelium, but that it has its origin in an outgrowth of the mesonephros. The course of the development of the sexual glands is without doubt extremely difficult to follow.

In the female large epithelial cells are found in the stroma of the developing ovary, beneath the germinal epithelium, as early as the thirty-third day. These **primitive ova** are much more numerous than the primitive sperm cells of the male, and form a very characteristic feature of the developing ovary. At first they lie isolated, but later—about the fifth week—they become surrounded by other smaller cells having a like origin from the germinal epithelium. Each primitive ovum surrounded by its cells becomes a **primitive follicle**, the further development of which has already been described (p. 1184). The proliferation of cells from the germinal epithelium goes on until the seventh month, and during the later stages the epithelium has the appearance of growing down into the stroma in the form of long branching cellular processes which break up into little nests of cells to form the future follicles (p. 851). It is extremely doubtful if any new ova arise after birth.

Generative Ducts.—As has been already stated, the male ducts arise from the Wolffian, and the female from the Müllerian ducts of the embryo. Both sexes at first possess well-developed Wolffian and Müllerian ducts, which are arranged in a very definite manner. The Wolffian ducts communicating directly with the tubules of the mesonephros lie at first parallel to, and at a considerable distance from one another. As they pass backwards towards the caudal end of the embryo they approach one another, and each becomes enclosed in a fold of peritoneum called the **plica urogenitalis**. More caudally the ducts become closely approximated to each other, are embedded in a cord-like mass of connective tissue, to which the term **genital cord** is applied. They finally open into the lower part of the anterior subdivision of the cloaca.

The Müllerian ducts, opening freely into the body cavity at their cephalic ends, lie to the outer side of the Wolffian ducts. As they are traced caudally they cross the Wolffian ducts and enter the genital cord, within which they unite and form a canal, which occupies the mesial plane, and opens into the lower part of the anterior subdivision of the cloaca between the Wolffian ducts. The manner in which the ureters become separated from the Wolffian ducts has already been described.

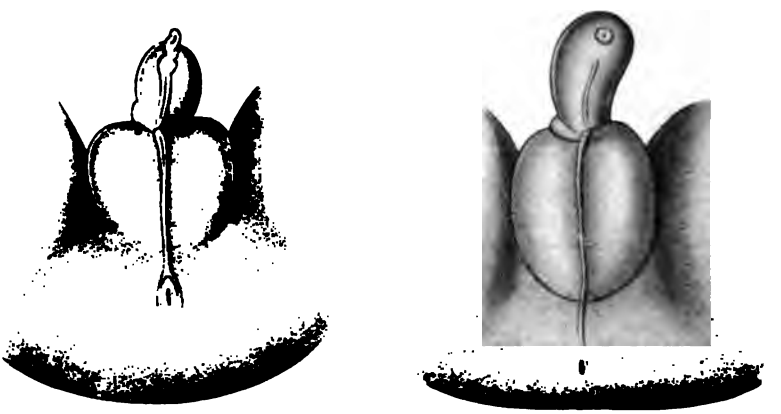
Ducts in the Male.—The seminiferous tubules of the testis become connected with the Wolffian duct through a fusion with the anterior canals of the mesonephros. At the place where this fusion occurs the **rete testis** and the **tubuli recti** are formed. The connexion is definitely established in the third month. The number of tubules taking part varies considerably, but corresponds to the number of **vasa efferentia** found in the adult. The connecting tubules becoming much convoluted, just as they join the Wolffian duct, form the **coni vasculosi**. The **canal of the epididymis** is directly formed from the anterior part of the Wolffian duct, and the **vas deferens** from the more

which are at first simple, become branched and finally acquire a lumen. They arranged in three groups—an upper and a lower dorsal, and a ventral group. The gla of the ventral group soon become reduced in number and often completely disapp those of the upper dorsal group form the chief part of the gland.

Cowper's glands arise in the third month, and appear to be developed from epithelium of the urinogenital canal. Since in the Echidna these glands have been sh to have an ectodermal origin, and as in man their ducts are connected with a part of urethra which is ectodermal in its origin, it is possible that further investigation show that Cowper's glands arise superficial to the cloacal membrane and form the ecto in the human embryo.

The **glands of Bartholin** arise as epithelial outgrowths in the same manne Cowper's glands.

External Genital Organs.—The external genital organs are developed in region of the ectodermal cloacal fossa, and those of the male and female cann distinguished from one another in the earlier stages. The ectodermal cloacal foss first very narrow, is completely filled by a wedge-shaped mass of ectodermal cells. A anterior end lies the **genital eminence**, a somewhat conical projection which represents future penis or clitoris. The genital eminence appears very early, even before endodermal cloaca has become divided into urinogenital and rectal subdivision. On



A B

FIG. 861.—EXTERNAL GENITAL ORGANS IN MALE FŒTUS. From figures of Professor Herzog.

The prepuce has grown forwards so as to cover glans completely. The urethra has been continued for to the apex of the glans. As in the body of the penis the portion of the urethra, which traverses glans, is at first represented by a cleft in the "urethral septum."

side of it is a prominent fold-like projection—**labio-scrotal fold**—which is conti backwards to bound the ectodermal cloacal fossa laterally (see Fig. 863). An openi the rectum on the surface of the body is established at an earlier date than that at w the communication between the urinogenital canal and the ectodermal fossa is formed the later opening becomes established, the wedge-shaped mass of ectoderm, which fil the anterior part of the fossa, and is continued as a kind of septum into the substan the genital eminence, becomes converted into a groove or gutter. At a later tim margins of this groove, meeting in the middle line, give rise to a canal which is the r sentative of the spongy portion of the urethra. The mass of ectoderm which becomes to form the groove, and later on forms the lining of the spongy portion of the ure has been termed the **urethral septum**. The septum is cleft from behind forwards, an groove which results is closed in gradually from behind forwards to form the urethra. part of the septum which extends forwards into the glans penis remains solid, after th of the canal has been formed, hence the urethra for some time appears to end in a diamond-shaped fossa situated at the base of the glans which at the time forms a prom knob-like projection on the apex of the genital eminence (Fig. 863, E). At a later tim septum within the glans is cleft and converted into a canal, and the urethra is then tinued to the end of the penis. The glans is at first uncovered and marked off fro rest of the penis by a circular constriction behind which the prepuce takes origin. A prepuce grows forwards the groove disappears and the glans becomes covered. Whil

spongy portion of the urethra is being formed, the labio-scrotal folds grow backwards and meet together in the middle line behind the penis and in front of the anus. From them is formed the scrotum of the adult, and the line along which they meet is the raphe scroti.

In the female the labio-scrotal folds do not fuse together, but become the labia majora, and the interval between them the urinogenital cleft of the adult. A groove arises on the genital eminence, but it closes in again without forming a canal, and hence when the urinogenital canal, which forms the urethra, opens into the ectodermal fossa it is not continued into the clitoris.

THE MAMMARY GLANDS.

The **mammary glands** (mammæ) or breasts are accessory organs connected with the female reproductive system. Each gland is situated in the superficial fascia covering the anterior aspect of the thorax, and usually extends from the level of the second or third to that of the sixth rib. The hemispherical projection formed by the gland lies upon the superficial aspect of the pectoralis major and to a less extent upon the serratus magnus muscle. Near the summit of each mammary elevation, and usually at the level of the fourth or fifth rib, is placed the wart-like **nipple** (papilla mammæ), which is pierced by the minute openings of the lactiferous ducts and is surrounded by a coloured circular area of skin called the **areola**. The skin covering the nipple is thrown into numerous wrinkles, and on the areola exhibits many minute rounded projections due to the presence of underlying cutaneous glands. These have received the name of **Montgomery's glands** or **glandulæ areolares**, and are considered to represent rudimentary portions of the mammary gland. The colour of the nipple and areola varies with the complexion of the individual, but in young subjects they are usually of a somewhat rosy-pink colour, which changes to a deep brown during the second and third months of first pregnancy. Also during pregnancy the areola increases in size and its glands become more marked. The nipple contains a considerable number of unstriped muscle fibres, and becomes firmer and more prominent as a result of mechanical stimulation.

The size and appearance of the mammary glands vary much, not only in the different races of mankind, but also in the same individual under different conditions. In the young child the mammæ are small, and there is little difference between those of the male and female. Their growth is slow until the approach of puberty, and then the female mammæ increase rapidly in size. At each pregnancy the mammæ become large, and they attain their greatest development during lactation. The size of the mamma depends partly on the amount of superficial fat and partly on the amount of glandular tissue present.

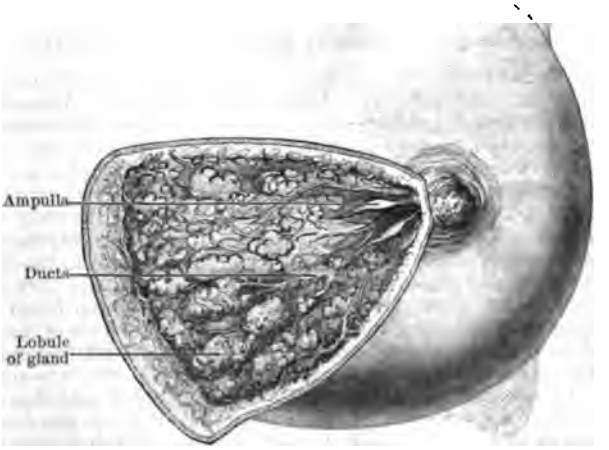


FIG. 865.—DISSECTION OF THE MAMMARY GLAND.

Structure of the Mamma.—The mamma is composed of a mass of glandular tissue traversed and supported by strands of fibrous connective tissue, and covered by a thick layer of fat. The glandular tissue, to which the term **corpus mammæ** is applied, forms a somewhat conical mass whose apex corresponds to the position of the nipple while its base is loosely connected to the fascia covering the pectoralis major and serratus magnus muscles. In section the corpus mammæ is readily distinguished from the surrounding fat by its firmer consistency and by its pinkish-white colour. The corpus mammæ is composed of lobes and lobules, and its superficial aspect and edges

THE DUCTLESS GLANDS.

By D. J. Cunningham.

Under this title we include a heterogeneous group of organs, the common fea of which is that the products of their activity are not conveyed from them means of ducts, but are discharged directly into the vascular system through veins or lymphatic vessels which take origin within them. This physiolo process is termed *internal secretion*, and in the case of certain of these organs secretion has been shown to exert a profound influence upon the nutritive cha of the body.

The ductless glands include the lymphatic glands, which have been alre described with the vascular system; the pineal and pituitary bodies, which h been referred to in the account which has been given of the brain; and the spl the suprarenal capsules, the thyroid body, the parathyroids, the thymus body, coccygeal body, the carotid body—all of which still remain to be studied.

THE SPLEEN.

The **spleen** (lien) is the largest of the ductless glands. It varies greatly in in different individuals, and also in the same individual under different conditi consequently it is difficult to give its average dimensions. Roughly speaking, it r be said to be as a rule about five inches in length and three inches in width at widest part. It is a soft yielding organ, very vascular, and somewhat purple colour. It lies far back in the abdominal cavity between the stomach and diaphragm, and its position is such that, whilst the greater part of the orga situated in the left hypochondrium, its upper end extends inwards beyond the Poupart plane, and thus comes to lie in the epigastric region. It is placed v obliquely, and its long axis corresponds closely in its direction to that of back part of the tenth rib.

Form and Relations of the Spleen.—The spleen has the shape of an irregu tetrahedron. The **upper end** (extremitas superior) points inwards and backwa and is curved to some extent forwards on itself. Of the four surfaces the m extensive is the **diaphragmatic** (facies diaphragmatica), which looks backwa and outwards. It rests upon the back part of the diaphragm, to the curvat of which it is accurately adapted. By the diaphragm it is separated from the nin tenth, and eleventh ribs. It is necessary also to remember that the pleura desce between this portion of the chest wall and the diaphragm, and thus comes to superficially to the greater part of this diaphragmatic surface of the spleen. thin basal margin of the lung, which occupies the upper part of the pleural rec likewise intervenes between the upper part of the spleen and the surface of body.

In the fœtus and infant, in which the liver is relatively very large, the left lobe of that o extends to the left so far that it comes as a rule to intervene between a portion of the splee the diaphragm. Such a relation is sometimes seen in the adult, but, except in childhood, usual for the liver to fall short of the spleen.

The remaining three surfaces of the spleen are turned towards the cavity of the abdomen, and are closely applied to the viscera which support the organ in its place. These three surfaces, which may be grouped together under the one term of *visceral aspect* of the organ, are separated from each other by three ridges which radiate from a blunt and often inconspicuous prominence which may be termed **the intermediate angle** and represents the apex of the tetrahedron. One of these ridges, a salient and prominent border (margo intermedius), extends to the upper end of the spleen, and separates an extensive anterior gastric area from a narrower posterior renal area. A second short border passes backwards to the **posterior angle**, and intervenes between the renal and colic surfaces; whilst the third ridge, often obscurely marked, proceeds forwards to the **anterior angle** and separates the gastric

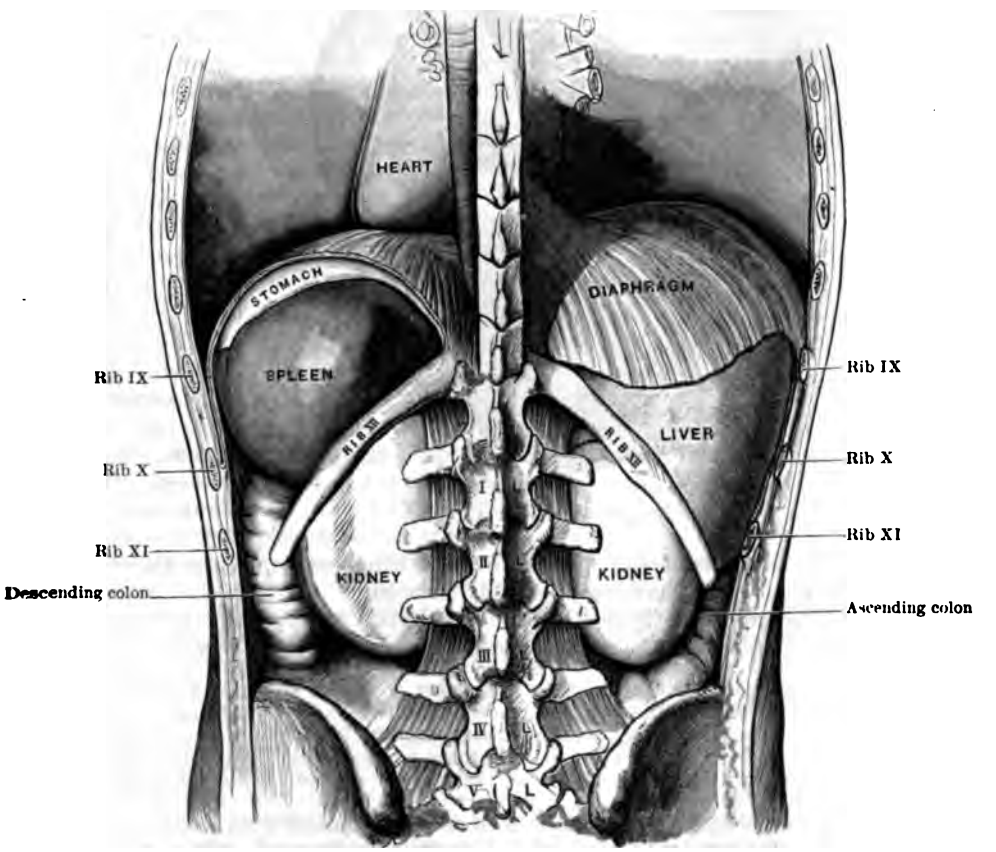


FIG. 867.—DISSECTION OF THE SPLEEN, LIVER, AND KIDNEYS FROM BEHIND, IN A SUBJECT HARDENED BY FORMALIN-INJECTION.

and the colic surfaces from each other. The term colic surface is applied to a triangular area which is mapped out by the two last-named ridges together with the lower border of the organ.

The **gastric surface** (facies gastrica) is the most extensive of the three visceral districts. It is deeply concave, and is moulded on the fundus of the stomach. Within its area, and about an inch or so in front of the margo intermedius, is the **hilum** of the organ. This is a slit, frequently broken up into two or more pieces, which gives passage to the vessels and nerves which enter and leave the spleen. Behind the hilum, and immediately in front of the intermediate angle, there is a depression of variable extent and depth into which the tail of the pancreas is received.

The **renal surface** (*facies* renalis) is flat and even. It is applied to the anterior surface of the upper part of the kidney, close to its outer border. Sometimes the part of this surface which adjoins the upper end of the organ is applied to the left suprarenal capsule, but as a rule it falls short of that structure.

The **colic surface** (facies basalis) is the smallest of the three visceral areas. is triangular in form, and looks downwards and inwards, and is in contact with splenic flexure of the colon and the costo-colic ligament (*vide* p. 1083).

The **anterior border** (margo anterior) of the spleen is sharp and prominent. intervenes between the gastric and diaphragmatic surfaces. Its leading charac istic is that i irregularly note The **posterior bo** (margo poste separates the r from the diaph matic surface. is important know that, if in living subject finger is dr along the last tercostal space will indicate tolerable accu on the surface the body the tion and direc of the poste border. The **ferior border** (m inferior) of spleen interv between the phragmatic sur and the colic face. The other margins of the spleen are those which separate the visceral a from each other, and they have been already noticed.

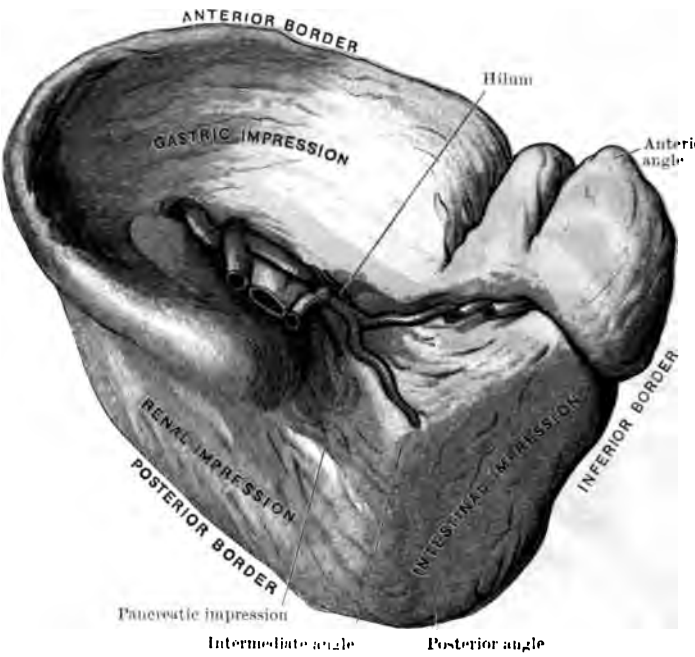


FIG. 868.—THE SPLEEN VISCERAL ASPECT.

A marked feature of the typically-formed spleen is the great prominence of **anterior angle**. It forms the most anteriorly-placed part of the organ.

The form of the spleen varies much in accordance with the changing conditions of neighbouring hollow viscera. Shepherd has shown that there are two extreme forms, viz **tetrahedral**, which is described above, and the **orange-segment type**. In the case of the fo the colon is distended, and the stomach as a rule more or less empty: the colon displac stomach from contact with the lower part of the visceral surface of the spleen, and t pressure produces the colic impression.

When the spleen presents a form similar to that of the segment of an orange its lowe becomes pointed, and the entire visceral surface is occupied by the renal, gastric, and panc impressions or areas. The colon is as a rule empty and exerts no pressure on the spleen, w the stomach is in all probability distended. As Shepherd has shown, every intermediate of spleen between the two extreme types are met with, and may occur with varying condi of the hollow viscera, at different times, in the same individual.

Notches and Fissures.—The usual number of notches on the anterior border of the sple two, although in exceptional cases there may be as many as six or even seven. It is no common to find one or more fissures on the posterior border and also on the parietal su of the organ (Parsons).

Peritoneal Relations of the Spleen.—The spleen is almost completely envel by peritoneum, and two folds of peritoneum, viz. the gastro-splenic omentum the lieno-renal ligament, pass from it. Both of these folds are attached in neighbourhood of the hilum. The **lieno-renal ligament** proceeds backwards to anterior surface of the left kidney (p. 1099); the **gastro-splenic omentum** conn the spleen with the fundus of the stomach (p. 1104).

Accessory Spleens.—Small globular masses of splenic tissue are not infrequently foun the neighbourhood of the spleen. These are termed **accessory spleens**.

Blood-vessels, Lymphatics, and Nerves of the Spleen.—The large **splenic artery** gain spleen by passing between the two layers of the lieno-renal ligament. It breaks up into se

branches which enter the organ through the hilum. Some twigs proceed from the splenic artery to the stomach, which they gain by insinuating themselves between the two layers of the gastro-splenic omentum. The **splenic vein** is formed in the lieno-renal ligament by the union of the branches which emerge from the hilum of the organ. It joins the superior mesenteric vein to form the vena portæ.

The **splenic plexus of nerves** is an offset from the cœliac part of the solar plexus, and accompanies the arteries into the spleen.

The **lymphatic vessels** leave the spleen at the hilum, and accompany the great vessels. There are no lymphatic channels within the spleen, although they are present in its capsule (Mall).

Structure of the Spleen.—In our study of the structure of the spleen we have to consider—(1) the tunica propria, (2) the trabecular framework, (3) the spleen pulp, and (4) the distribution of the blood-vessels and the Malpighian corpuscles.

Tunica propria (tunica albuginea).—Subjacent to the serous coating furnished by the peritoneum the spleen is provided with a strong capsule termed the tunica propria. This is formed of fibrous tissue, with a large proportion of elastic fibres and a certain amount of involuntary muscular tissue. It is therefore highly distensible, and perhaps feebly contractile. To the outer surface of this capsule the peritoneum is inseparably attached.

Trabecular Framework (trabeculæ lienis).—From the deep surface of the tunica propria numerous processes or trabeculæ are given off, and these penetrate into the substance of the spleen. Some are cord-like, others are in the form of flattened bands, and all are composed of fibrous tissue and involuntary muscular fibres. Within the spleen the trabeculæ branch and re-branch, and join with each other to form a supporting framework for the organ. The blood-vessels, as they enter at the hilum, carry in with them connective tissue sheaths, and these also take part in the formation of the trabecular framework

Spleen Pulp (pulpa lienis).—The interstices between the strands of the trabecular framework are filled with spleen pulp. This is supported by a delicate reticulum formed by branching cells. The spaces of the network freely communicate, and are occupied by blood in which there are large numbers of leucocytes, and also large cells special to the spleen. These are termed **splenic cells**, and contain pigment, and not infrequently red blood corpuscles, in their interior.

Blood-vessels and Malpighian Corpuscles.—The splenic arteries, as they traverse the spleen, run in the trabeculæ. The small branches ultimately leave these and enter the spleen pulp. As they do so they become ensheathed in a coating of adenoid tissue. At certain points in the course of the arteries this sheath suddenly increases in thickness, and forms small round or oval masses of adenoid tissue upon the vessel. In sections through the spleen these small nodular masses are visible to the naked eye as minute white spots. They are called **Malpighian corpuscles** (noduli lymphatici lienales). The artery rarely passes through the centre of such a corpuscle. As a rule the adenoid tissue is massed chiefly upon one side of the vessel, and a plentiful supply of blood is given to the nodule by means of a capillary network in connexion with the artery on which the Malpighian corpuscle is developed.

The manner in which the minute terminal arteries end in the spleen pulp is peculiar. The wall becomes reduced to the endothelial lining, and the cells forming this gradually separate from each other and become continuous with those of the reticulum of the spleen pulp. The blood therefore flows directly into the meshes of the reticulum of the pulp. The minute radicles of the veins begin in the same way as the arteries end. The walls are gradually built up by the union of cells continuous with the open reticulum, and the blood flowing into the vessels so formed is led away towards the larger veins which occupy the trabeculæ.

Development of the Spleen.—It is not until the second month of intrauterine development that the spleen begins to develop. It is formed from mesoderm, and appears in the dorsal mesogastrium in the neighbourhood of the pancreas. After a short time it becomes invaded by blood-vessels, but the Malpighian corpuscles are somewhat late in making their appearance. The spleen grows to the left in the direction of least resistance, protruding the left layer of the mesogastrium before it, and its form is determined by the pressure to which it is subjected by the neighbouring viscera and the abdominal wall.

THE SUPRARENAL CAPSULES.

The suprarenal *capsules* (glandulæ suprarenales) are two small flattened organs which lie in the *epigastric* region, one on either side of the spine, and in intimate relation to the *upper end of* the corresponding kidney.

The **right suprarenal capsule** is, as a rule, triangular in form, and rests by its base upon the *anterior and inner* aspect of the upper end of the right kidney. It

is placed between the posterior surface of the right lobe of the liver and that po of the diaphragm which covers the side of the spine.

The *anterior surface*, which looks outwards as well as forwards, presents impressions—(1) The one is a narrow flattened strip adjoining the anterior b of the capsule which is overlapped by the inferior vena cava; (2) the se impression comprises the remainder of the anterior surface, and is in contact

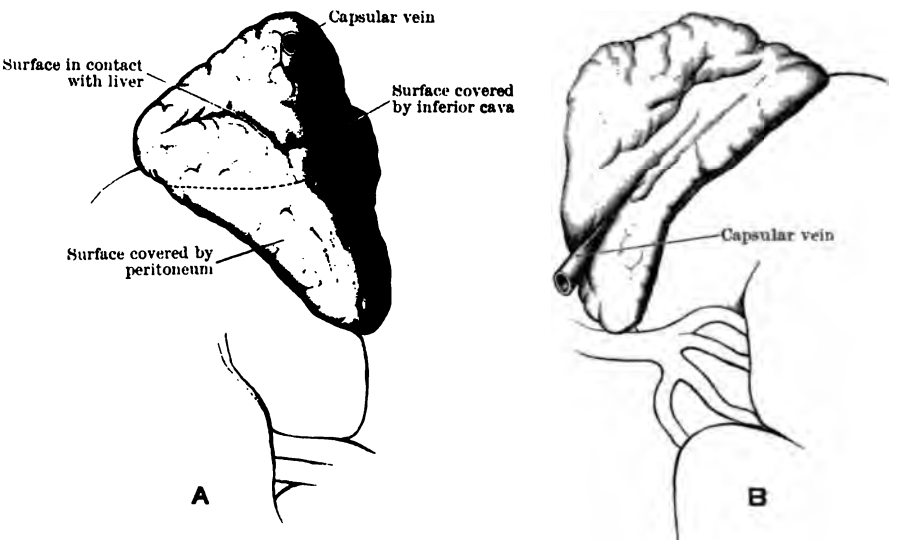


FIG. 869.

A. Anterior surface of right suprarenal capsule. B. Anterior surface of left suprarenal capsule. The upper and inner parts of each kidney are indicated in outline. On the right capsule the dotted indicates the upper limit of the peritoneal covering.

the liver. Only a small and variable part of the lower portion of the an surface of the right suprarenal capsule is covered by peritoneum. On the part of the impression for the vena cava, not far from the apex of the caps short fissure termed the **hilum** may be observed. From this issues a short vein which immediately enters the vena cava inferior. The *posterior surfa* the right suprarenal capsule is divided by a salient curved ridge into an upp

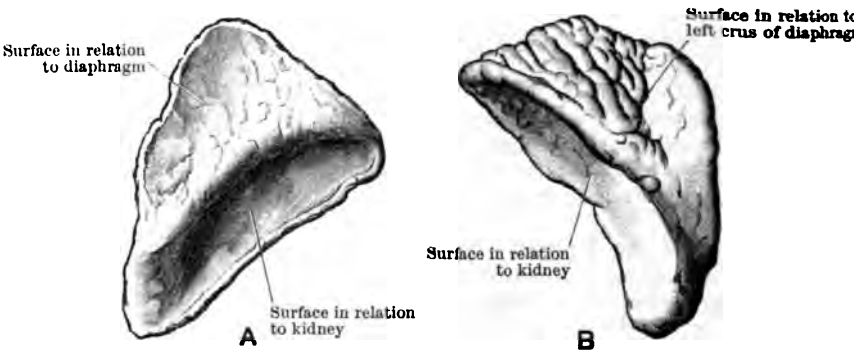

Surface in relation to diaphragm
Surface in relation to kidney
A
Surface in relation to left crus of diaphrag
Surface in relation to kidney
B

FIG. 870.

A. Posterior surface of right suprarenal capsule. B. Posterior surface of left suprarenal capsule

part, which is applied to the diaphragm, and a concave lower part, whi occupied by fat and rests upon the kidney.

The **left suprarenal capsule** presents a semilunar form, and as a rule is sli larger than the right capsule. Its position on the kidney is also somewhat diff It is usually placed on its inner border immediately above the hilum. *anterior surface* presents, not far from its lower end, a very obvious slit or with a large emerging vein. The greater part of this surface is in relation t

Development of the Suprarenal Capsule.—It would appear that the cor and medullary parts of the suprarenal body have a totally different origin. The med is derived as a mass of cells which grows out from the ganglia of the sympathetic c and becomes in the process of development encapsulated within the cortex. It is impor to note in this connexion that a certain number of chromaffin cells are found within sympathetic ganglia. Although nervous in its origin, the medulla of the suprarenal bec glandular and gives to the blood an internal secretion which exercises a most p physiological action.

The **cortical part** of the suprarenal body is formed from a mass of mesodermic which on the right side become grouped together in the immediate vicinity of the inf vena cava soon after that vessel is formed. The cells thus accumulated together are to be derived directly or indirectly from the epithelial cells which line the body cavit the region of the Wolffian ridge.

As we ascend the scale of vertebrates, the suprarenal bodies show an interesting s of evolutionary stages. "In fishes the two constituents (*i.e.* medulla and cortex) are c separate; in amphibians they come into contact; in reptiles they are beginning t intermixed; in birds the cortex and medulla interlace; whilst in mammals the med is surrounded by the cortex" (Swale Vincent).

THE THYROID BODY.

The **thyroid body** (glandula thyreoidea) is a highly vascular, pliant struct which clasps the upper part of the trachea and extends upwards for some dista upon each side of the lar In size it varies greatly different individuals, and the female and child it always relatively larger t in the adult male. It cons of three well-marked s divisions — viz. two lat lobes, joined across the mi line by the isthmus.

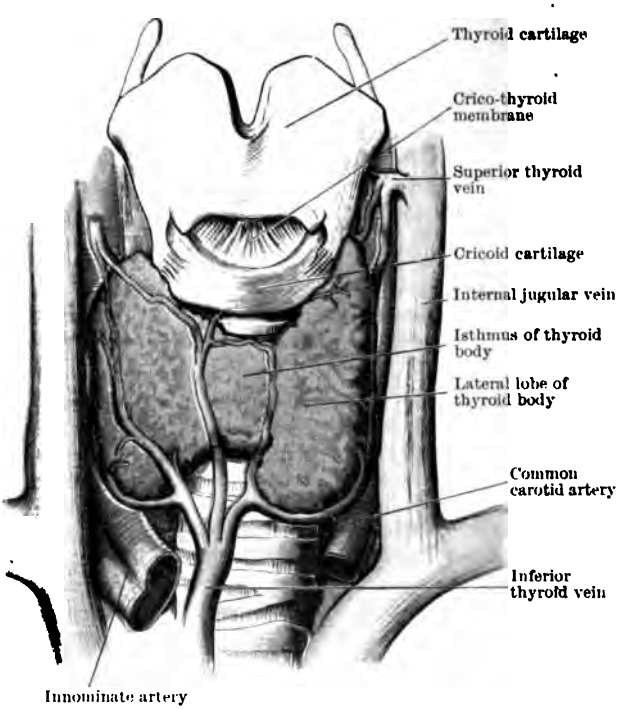


FIG. 872.—DISSECTION OF THE THYROID BODY AND OF THE PARTS IN IMMEDIATE RELATION TO IT.

Each **lateral lobe** is con in form. Its base exte downwards upon the side the trachea as far as the f or sixth tracheal ring, wh its apex rests upon the al the thyroid cartilage. *superficial surface* is somew flattened, and is clothed by pretracheal layer of cerv fascia, from which the or derives a sheath, and also the sterno-thyroid, ster hyoid, and omo-hyoid musc It is also overlapped by sterno-mastoid muscle. *deep surface* is adapted to parts upon which it lies— to the side of the trachea, to the cricoid cartilage, and to the inferior cornu a adjoining part of the surface of the ala of the thyroid cartilage; whilst its *poster border* extends backwards so as to touch the œsophagus and pharynx and over the common carotid artery (Fig. 694, p. 974).

The **isthmus** of the thyroid body is a narrow band of varying width which l in front of the second, third, and fourth rings of the trachea, and unites the la or lower ends of the two lateral lobes.

A third lobe is frequently found in connexion with the thyroid body. This the **pyramidal** or **middle lobe** (Fig. 873). When present it assumes the form of

it joins with the isthmus or median rudiment to form the greater part of the late of the thyroid body.

The thyroid body in its primitive condition, and in each of its three parts, is e Soon it is invaded by connective tissue and blood-vessels, but the hypoblastic ep is retained as the cellular lining of its constituent vesicles.

Parathyroids.

The **parathyroid glands** are two minute structures which lie in more or l relation to each lateral lobe of the thyroid body. They are apt to be mista accessory thyroids, but in structure they are different. One, more con position than the other, is situated on the posterior aspect of the œsoph the level of the lower border of the cricoid cartilage, and in more or less i relation to the posterior border of the lateral lobe of the thyroid bod second parathyroid body is placed either in close apposition with the lowe of the lateral lobe of the thyroid, or on the trachea at a varying distance The inferior thyroid artery intervenes between the two parathyroid bodies (

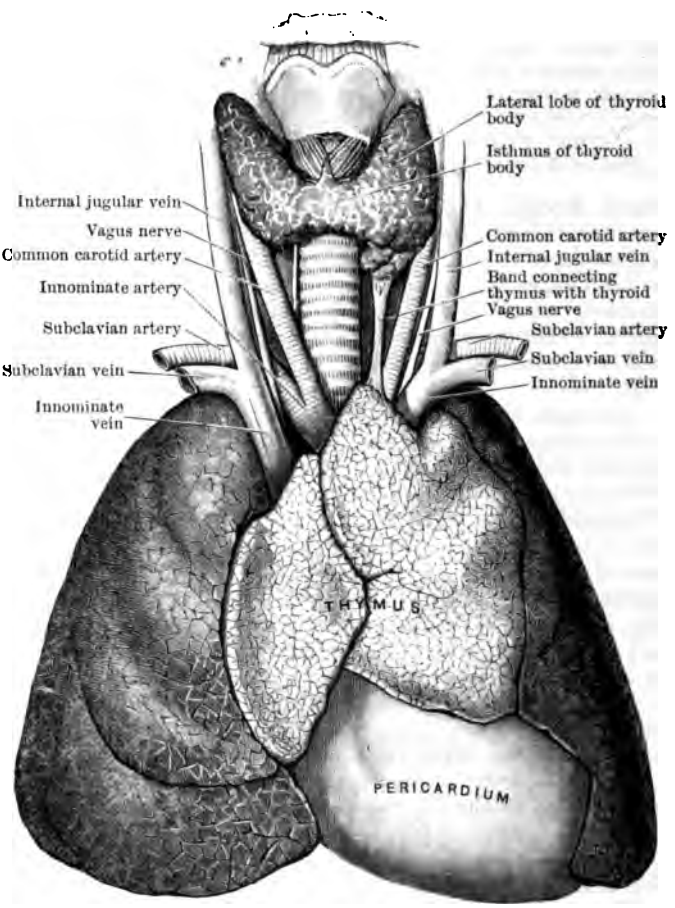


Fig. 873.—Thymus Gland in a Full-time Fœtus hardened by Formalin-injection.

The parat bodies are comp reticulating rows with blood- arranged betwee In structure the close resemblanc of the anterior lo pituitary body upper parathyro is derived as a hy bud, which gro from the botto pharyngeal side third visceral cl lower body has a origin from the visceral cleft.

It has been that the removal four parathyroid the cat is follo very severe sy and in two case three death ens the course of a f (Welsh).

THYMUS GL

The **thymus** can only be stu advantage in th period of fœtal li early childho attains its ma development towards the end of the second year, and from this time on it d away until only a comparatively small portion of it is left. In the n child it is of a pinkish colour, and is composed of two lateral lobes, very of equal size, and separated by an intervening fissure. The main portion gland is placed within the thorax, but the two lobes end above in tw prolongations which are carried upwards for a varying distance into the ne

After the second year the thymus gland remains stationary, or it begins s to diminish in size, but when puberty is reached a rapid degeneration sets i lobules become infiltrated with fat and loose strands of connective tissue. W has shown, however, that throughout the whole of life it not only retains som of its old form, but also that the degeneration is never complete. Preserved i its substance (either uniformly diffused through it or in distinct masses the always be found remains of the original thymus-tissue. Indeed, more of th is retained in the adult than is generally supposed. It is easy to demon in subjects hardened by formalin-injection that as a rule both lobes are pre the front part of the superior mediastinum in the form of two elongated fl like bodies.

Blood-vessels and Nerves.—The arteries which carry blood to the thymus come fr inferior thyroid, the internal mammary, and perhaps also from other sources. The ve the neighbouring venous trunks - viz. the inferior thyroid, the internal mammary, and t innominate veins.

The **nerves** to the thymus are derived from the vagus and sympathetic trunks.

The **lymphatic vessels** are of large size, and accompany the blood-vessels.

Structure of the Thymus.—The thymus is composed of a large number o polyhedral lobules. The sheath which envelops the organ sends off from its deep fine partitions or septa which pass into the gland and separate the different lobule each other.

Each lobule is composed of clusters of lymphoid follicles, with a small amo delicate connective tissue intervening between them. A follicle consists of an **cortical** and an inner or central **medullary portion.** Both are formed of adenoid but in the cortex the lymphoid cells are packed much more closely, whilst in the m the retiform matrix is coarser and the lymphoid cells less numerous. Further, the m contains the *concentric corpuscles of Hassall.* These are curious bodies, compo flattened cells arranged concentrically around a granular nucleated corpuscle.

The blood-vessels form a fine plexus around the various follicles, and from capillaries penetrate into the central medulla.

Development of the Thymus Body.—The thymus gland is derived fro hypoblastic lining of the pharynx. It takes origin as a tubular diverticulum fro dorsal part of the pharyngeal aspect of the third visceral cleft on each side (see This diverticulum has thick epithelial walls, and it grows by rapid proliferation of it It extends downwards on the side of the trachea towards the pericardium, and c into contact with the corresponding hypoblastic outgrowth of the opposite side, th lobes of the organ are formed - one from lateral diverticulum. The narrow upper of the outgrowth remains for a time tu and connected with the pharyngeal cleft which it originates. Ultimately this com is broken through, and the expanded low sends out solid bud-like branches after manner of an acinous gland. The conn tissue sheath and framework of the th are derived from the surrounding mesobl

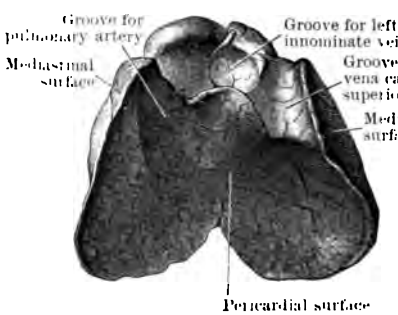


FIG. 875.- DEEP SURFACE OF THYMUS GLAND, TAKEN FROM A FŒTUS HARDENED BY FORMALIN-INJECTION.

Originally epithelial in its composition thymus becomes lymphoid by the rapid liferation of its cells. The products of division become the lymphoid cells of follicles of the gland. The corpuscles Hassall were formerly believed to be epit remnants, but this is now known not to be the case, as the transformation of the or elements of the organ into lymphoid cells is complete. The corpuscles of Hassal derived from the repeated divisions of one cell, the products of which remain attach each other.

THE CAROTID AND COCCYGEAL BODIES.

The **carotid body** is a minute oval reddish-brown structure placed on the aspect of the common carotid artery at the point where it bifurcates into its terminal branches. It is closely connected with the sympathetic nerve filam which twine around the carotid vessels, and numerous minute arterial t

SURFACE AND SURGICAL ANATOMY.

By Harold J. Stiles.

THE HEAD AND NECK.

THE CRANIUM.

Scalp.—The first and third layers of the scalp, namely, the **skin** and the **occipi frontalis muscle**, are firmly united by fibrous processes which pass from the one the other through the second or subcutaneous **fatty layer**. Intervening betwe these three layers and the pericranium is a **loose cellular layer** which supports t small vessels passing between the scalp proper and pericranium. The thin **pe cranium**, although regarded anatomically as periosteum, possesses very limit bone-forming properties; over the vertex it is readily separated from the skull-ca except along the lines of the sutures, where it gives off intersutural processes join the endosteal layer of the dura.

The free **blood-supply of the scalp** is for the purpose of nourishing its abunda hair follicles and glands. The main vessels lie in the dense subcutaneous tiss and are superficial, therefore, to the occipito-frontalis (Fig. 878). The arteri supplying the frontal region are derived from the internal carotid, while those f the remainder of the scalp spring from the external carotid. These two sets vessels anastomose freely with one another, and freely also across the mesial plan hence the failure of ligature of the external carotid to cure cirsoid aneurysm of t temporal artery.

Wounds of the scalp bleed freely, and the vessels are difficult to ligature on account of t adhesion of their walls to the dense subcutaneous tissue. In extensive flap wounds and in diffu suppuration beneath the occipito-frontalis there is little danger of sloughing of the scal **Abscesses** and **hæmorrhages** superficial to the occipito-frontalis are usually limited on account the density of the subcutaneous tissue. Hæmorrhage beneath the occipito-frontalis is seldo extensive on account of the small size of the vessels, but suppuration in this situation m rapidly undermine the whole muscle; incisions to evacuate the pus should be made early, a parallel to the main vessels of the scalp. Extravasation of blood beneath the pericranium lea to a hæmatoma which is limited by the sutures.

The **veins** of the scalp communicate with the intra-cranial venous sinuses- (1) directly through their anastomoses with the large emissary veins, namely, th parietal, which opens into the superior longitudinal sinus, and the mastoid an posterior condyloid, which open into the lateral sinus; (2) through the anastomos of the frontal and supra-orbital veins with the ophthalmic vein, which opens in the cavernous sinus; (3) through the veins of the diplöe, which connect the vei of the scalp and the pericranium on the one hand with those of the dura mat and the venous sinuses on the other; (4) through small veins which pass from th pericranium through the bones and the intersutural membranes to the dura. It along these various channels that pyogenic infection may extend, from the scal and pericranium, through the bone to the dura mater and venous sinuses, and fro the latter to the cerebral veins, the pia-arachnoid, and the substance of the brai More rarely the infection spreads from the cranial cavity along the emissary vei to the scalp.

The **lymphatics** of the anterior part of the scalp join the facial lymphatics; those of the temporal and parietal regions open into the pre-auricular and parotid lymphatic glands, situated in front of and below the ear, and into the post-auricular

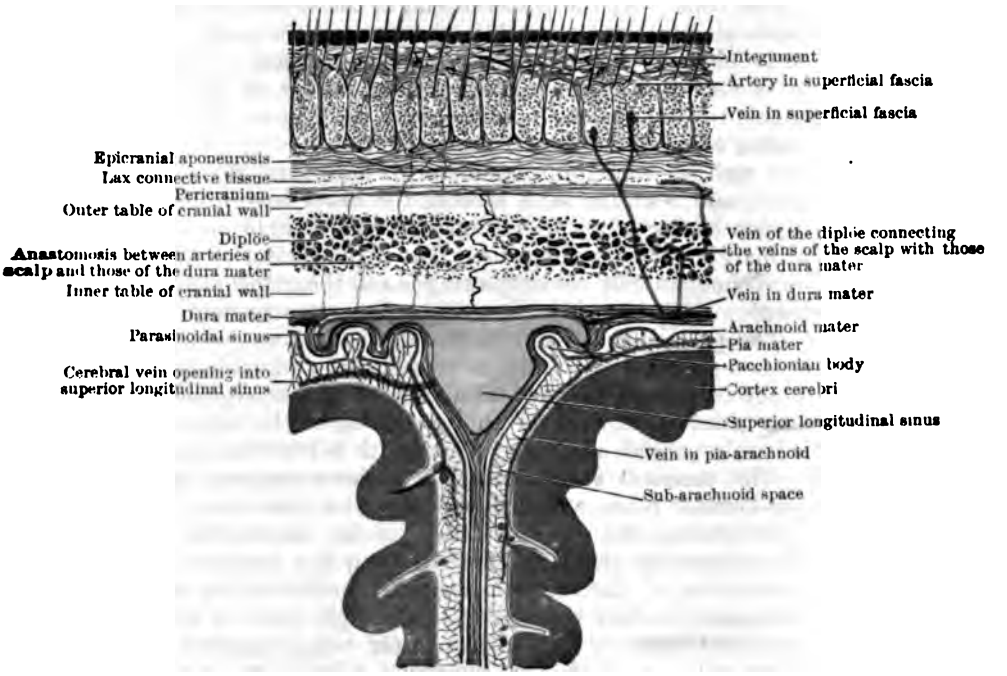


FIG. 878.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF A CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE SCALP, CRANIUM, MENINGES, AND CORTEX CEREBRI (modified from Cunningham).

or mastoid glands, situated upon the insertion of the sterno-mastoid muscle. The lymphatics of the occipital region open into the occipital glands, which lie close to the occipital artery where it becomes superficial in the scalp.

Bony Landmarks of the Cranium.—At the root of the nose is the fronto-nasal suture (**nasion**); a little above it is the **glabella**, a slight prominence which connects the superciliary ridges. About 1 in. below the posterior pole of the cranium, and 2 in. above the spine of the axis, is the external occipital protuberance (**inion**). In the child the protuberance is not developed; its position may be defined by taking a point at the junction of the upper and middle thirds of a line extending from the posterior pole of the skull to the spine of the axis. About a third of the distance from the nasion to the inion is the **bregma** or junction of the coronal and sagittal sutures; with the head in the natural erect posture the bregma corresponds to the middle of a line carried across the vertex between the pre-auricular points of the zygomatic arches.

At birth the position of the bregma is occupied by the **anterior fontanelle**, a rhomboidal membranous area which generally becomes ossified at about the eighteenth month. The size and date of closure of the fontanelle, as well as its tension and pulsation, are all points to be carefully noted in the clinical examination of children.

The **lambda**, or junction of the sagittal and lambdoidal sutures, situated 2½ in. above the inion, can generally be felt through the scalp; a line drawn from it to the posterior border of the root of the mastoid process corresponds to the **lambdoidal suture**. In the adult the *parieto-occipital fissure* of the brain lies opposite, or a few millimetres in front of, the lambda; in the child, however, the fissure may be as much as 1 in. in front of it.

Crossing the supra-orbital margin close to its inner angle, a finger's-breadth from the middle line, are the **supra-trochlear nerve** and the **frontal branch of the ophthalmic artery**; the latter nourishes the flap in the operation of rhinoplasty. At the junction of the inner and middle thirds of the supra-orbital margin, 1 in

from the middle line, is the **supra-orbital notch** or **foramen**, the guide to the **supra-orbital vessels** and **nerves**. A little above the level of the outer canthus of the eyelid is the **fronto-malar suture**, immediately above which is the **external angular process** of the frontal bone. At the posterior end of the suture the **temporal branch** of the **orbital nerve** pierces the temporal fascia to reach the scalp. Half an inch above the suture is the **lower margin** of the **cerebral hemisphere**: while half an inch below the suture is a small *tubercle* on the posterior border of the malar bone. A line drawn from this tubercle to the lambda gives the line of the **parallel fissure** and of the **descending cornu** of the **lateral ventricle**.

The **zygomatic arch**, an important landmark, is horizontal when the head is in the natural position, and is on the same level as the lower margin of the orbit and the inion; its upper border is at, or not infrequently a little above, the level of the lower lateral margin of the hemisphere. The upper border of the zygoma may be traced backwards immediately above the tragus and the external auditory meatus to become continuous with the ridge formed by the **supra-mastoid portion** of the **temporal crest**. The part of the posterior root of the zygoma which lies immediately in front of the upper end of the tragus constitutes a valuable landmark which may with advantage be termed the **pre-auricular point** of the zygoma, while by the term **post-auricular point** is understood that point upon the supra-mastoid crest which lies immediately behind, and a finger's-breadth below, the upper attachment of the auricle. The **temporal vessels** and the **auriculo-temporal nerve** cross the zygoma at the pre-auricular point, and it is here that the pulsations of the temporal artery may be felt during the administration of an anæsthetic, or the vessel compressed for the purpose of checking bleeding from the temporal region of the scalp. The termination of the auriculo-temporal nerve in the neighbourhood of the parietal eminence is often the seat of a neuralgic pain in irritative conditions about the external auditory meatus, the latter being supplied by this nerve.

Two inches vertically above the pre-auricular point is the **lower end** of the **fissure of Rolando**. Two inches vertically above the middle of the zygomatic arch is the **pterion** (spheno-parietal suture), a point which cannot be felt, but which is nevertheless of topographical importance, as it overlies the **Sylvian point** (the point where the Sylvian fissure breaks up into its three branches) and the **anterior branch** of the **middle meningeal artery**. A point three fingers'-breadth vertically above the middle of the zygomatic arch, on the left side, will mark the position of the centre of **Broca's convolution** (posterior extremity of the left inferior frontal convolution).

The **frontal eminence** (better marked in the child) overlies the **middle frontal convolution**. The **parietal eminence**, which varies considerably in the definiteness with which it can be recognised, overlies the **termination of the posterior horizontal limb** of the **fissure of Sylvius**, and therefore also the **supra-marginal convolution**, which is named by Turner the *convolution of the parietal eminence*. The part of the **temporal crest** which intervenes between the external angular process and the coronal suture lies a little above the level of the inferior frontal sulcus. The highest part of the temporal crest crosses the Rolandic area at the junction of its middle and lower thirds, that is to say, at the **junction of the motor areas for the arm and face**. In the child, the temporal muscle, which is relatively much smaller than in the adult, reaches only a short distance above the squamous suture, and therefore, only as far as the level of the lower end of the fissure of Rolando.

The thickness of the skull-cap varies at different parts and in different individuals. The inner table is only half the thickness of the outer table, but both possess the same degree of elasticity. When the vault is fractured from direct violence, the inner table is more extensively fissured than the outer table, because the elements of the latter are compressed, while those of the former are stretched apart. The weak areas at the base of the skull through which fractures are liable to extend are: in the anterior cranial fossa, the orbital plates of the frontal bone, and the cribriform plate of the ethmoid; in the middle cranial fossa, the region of the glenoid fossa of the temporal bone, and of the foramen ovale of the sphenoid; in the posterior fossa, the cerebellar fossæ of the occipital bone. The strong petrous temporal is weakened by the tympanic cavity and by the deep jugular fossa.

Cranio-Cerebral Topography. — Of the many methods which have been devised for mapping out the relations of the cranial contents to the scalp, that introduced by Professor Chiene is, probably, the most useful from a clinical

point of view; no figures or angles have to be remembered, and the primary surface lines are drawn from bony points which are not variable, whilst the secondary lines are drawn, for the most part, between mid-points of the primary lines. The method is as follows (Figs. 879 and 881):—

"The head being shaved, find in the mesial line of the skull between the glabella (G) and the external occipital protuberance (O) the following points:—

"First, the *mid-point* (M); second, the *three-quarter point* (T); third, the *seven-eighth point* (S).

"Find also the *external angular process* (E), and the *root of the zygoma* (pre-auricular point) (P), immediately above and in front of the external auditory meatus. Having found these five points, join EP, PS, and ET. Bisect EP and PS at N and R. Join MN and MR. Bisect also AB at C, and draw CD parallel to AM."

The line MA corresponds to the **superior** and **inferior precentral sulci**, and may therefore be termed the *pre-central line.* The *origins* of the **superior** and **inferior frontal sulci** may be indicated by trisecting MA at the points K and L, the latter point being at the level of the temporal crest.

The line ET, termed the *oblique* or *Sylvian line,* intersects the pre-central line at the point A, which overlies the *pterion,* and corresponds therefore to the **Sylvian point** of the **fissure of Sylvius** and to the **anterior division** of the **middle meningeal artery.** AC overlies the **posterior horizontal limb** of the **fissure of Sylvius,** which terminates at the level of the temporal crest, in the lower part of the triangle HCB. This triangle contains the parietal eminence, and may, therefore, be termed the *supra-marginal triangle.* The termination of the Sylvian line, at the three-quarter sagittal point T, overlies the **parieto-occipital fissure.**

By joining TR, RO, a triangle is mapped out which delimits the outer surface of the **occipital lobe**; the line TR corresponds to the **lambdoidal suture,** while RO corresponds to, or lies a little above, the **tentorium** and the upper border of the **lateral sinus.**

CD, the *post-central line,* corresponds to the **superior postcentral sulcus,** and lies a little behind the **inferior postcentral sulcus.**

The parallelogram AMDC overlies the **Rolandic area,** *i.e.* the ascending frontal and the ascending parietal convolutions, separated by the fissure of Rolando.

The pentagon ABRPN maps out the **temporal lobe,** with the exception of its **apex,** which is directed downwards, forwards, and inwards, a finger's-breadth in front of the point N.

A finger's-breadth below AB is the **parallel sulcus,** the posterior extremity of which turns upwards to terminate at B, the point which indicates, therefore, the position of the **angular gyrus.**

The **fissure of Rolando** may be mapped out upon the scalp by drawing a line downwards and forwards for a distance of $3\frac{3}{8}$ in. from a point half an inch behind the mid-sagittal point M at an angle of 67° to the sagittal line (Hare). This angle may readily be found by Chiene's plan of folding a sheet of paper first to half a right angle and again to a quarter of a right angle (45° + 22·5° = 67·5°). According to Cunningham, the average angle which the fissure makes with the sagittal line is 70°.

The topographical distribution of function in the cerebral cortex is shown in Fig. 879, in which the areas worked out by Grünbaum and Sherrington in the anthropoid apes have been transferred to the human brain. The above observers have shown that, while the *motor area* occupies the whole length of the pre-central convolution and of the fissure of Rolando (with the exception of its very extremities), it nowhere extends on to the exposed surface of the post-central gyrus; nor does it extend as far down on the mesial surface of the hemisphere as the calloso-marginal fissure. Extirpation of the hand area, for example, is followed by severe paralysis of the hand, but the use and power of the hand is regained in a few weeks; ablations, on the other hand, of even large portions of the post-central gyrus do not give rise even to transient paralysis.

In some of the animals experimented on, the motor area was found to extend to the deeper part of the posterior wall of the fissure of Rolando. Anteriorly it

extended into the pre-central sulci as well as into th
the pre-central gyrus; indeed the hidden part of t
extent that contributing to the free surface of the
extend a little in front of the superior and inferior p
therefore be regarded as physiological boundaries.

Reference to Fig. 879 shows that of the main area
occupies the upper third of the motor region, that

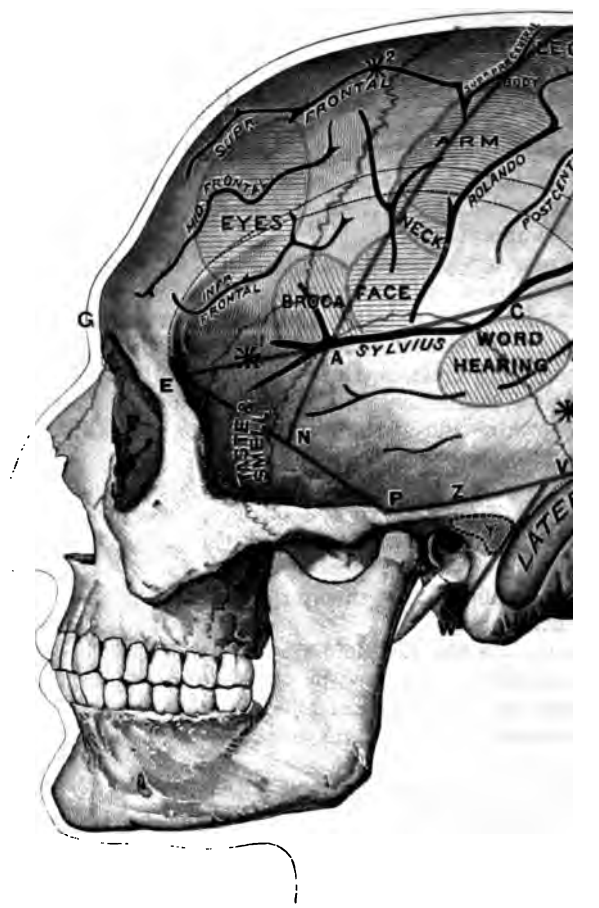


FIG. 879.—CRANIO-CEREBRAL TOPOGR

Shows relations of the motor and sensory areas to the convol

G. Glabella.
O. Inion.
M. Mid-point between G and O.
T. Mid-point between M and O.
S. Mid-point between T and O.
E. External angular process.
P. Root of zygoma (pre-auricular point).
N. Mid-point of EP.
R. Mid-point of PS.
C. Mid-point
CD is drawn
Z. Post-auric
VW. Guide to
Y. Mastoid a
*1. Site at w
*2. Site for d
*3. Site for d

middle third, while the face occupies the lower third
the chief sub-divisions of these main areas is show
remembered, however, that there exists much overlap

The **lateral ventricle** may be tapped or drained fr
tissue for a depth of 4 to 5 cm. through the superi
fingers'-breadth) in front of the point K, the instrum
and backwards (Kocher).

Keen drains the ventricles through an opening

auditory meatus and the same distance above Reid's base line (a line drawn backwards from the lower margin of the orbit through the centre of the external auditory meatus), the instrument being passed into the brain towards the summit of the opposite auricle. If the ventricle be not distended it will be reached at a depth of two inches from the surface.

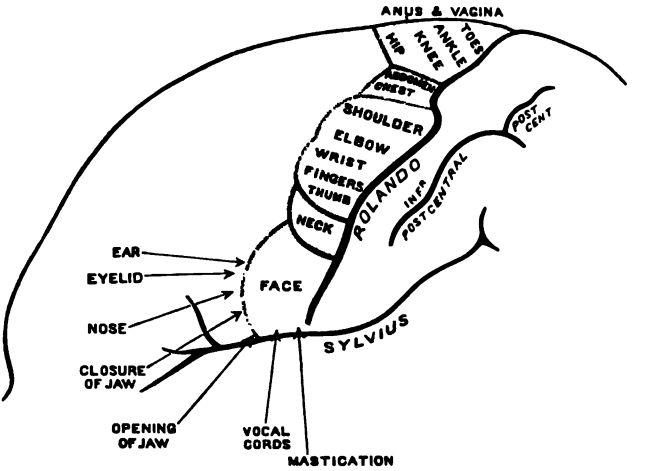


FIG. 880.—SCHEME SHOWING RELATIVE TOPOGRAPHY OF THE CHIEF SUBDIVISIONS OF THE MOTOR AREA (adapted from Grünbaum and Sherrington).

To open the **subarachnoid space**, the pin of a small trephine is placed over the mid-point of the line EA; the dura is incised as it crosses the stem of the fissure of Sylvius from the frontal lobe to the anterior extremity of the temporal lobe. Care must be taken to keep in front of the middle meningeal artery.

The **cisterna magna**, situated between the back part of the under surface of the cerebellum and the medulla oblongata, may be reached by turning down a flap of soft parts, and removing a circle of bone a little above the foramen magnum, and immediately to one side of the middle line so as to avoid the occipital sinus. The **fourth ventricle** may be opened up by making a somewhat larger trephine opening in the mesial plane and separating the posterior extremities of the tonsillar lobes of the cerebellum.

To expose the **lateral hemisphere** of the **cerebellum**, trephine over the centre of a line drawn from the tip of the mastoid process to the external occipital protuberance. The occipital artery and the mastoid emissary vein will be divided in turning down the flap.

Meningeal Arteries.—When the calvarium is removed the **meningeal arteries** are found to adhere firmly to the dura. Of these vessels the middle meningeal artery is the only one of surgical importance. It is frequently lacerated in fractures of the skull; the blood is generally extravasated between the dura and the bone, and the bleeding point lies beneath the clot. After entering the cranial cavity through the foramen spinosum, the *main trunk*, which is usually about 1½ in. in length, runs outward and slightly forwards to bifurcate into anterior and posterior divisions at a point a finger's-breadth above the middle of the zygomatic arch, viz. at or close behind the point N. When the main trunk is short the bifurcation takes place opposite the middle of the zygomatic arch.

The *anterior and larger division* passes upwards, with a slight forward convexity, a little behind the spheno-squamous suture and across the pterion to the anterior inferior angle of the parietal bone. From this point the vessel is continued upwards and slightly backwards behind the coronal suture; it gives off branches which ascend over the motor area. The position and general direction of the anterior branch may be said to correspond to the line LN; it follows, therefore, that the artery will be encountered in trephining over the lower and anterior part of the Rolandic area, especially over the motor centres for the tongue and face.

The *posterior division* passes almost horizontally backwards towards the posterior inferior angle of the parietal bone.

To expose the *trunk* of the vessel and its bifurcation, the trephine is applied immediately above the middle of the zygomatic arch. To expose the *anterior division* the pin of the trephine may be applied at the point A, which strikes the artery as it crosses the pterion and grooves the anterior inferior angle of the parietal

bone. The lower segment of the disc of bone removed is much thicker than the upp as it involves the prominent ridge which passes from the tip of the great wing of the sphenoid on to the anterior inferior angle of the parietal bone. At the anter inferior angle of the parietal bone, the artery frequently runs in a canal for distance of half an inch. It follows, therefore, that a considerable thickness bone has to be sawn through at the lower segment of the circle before the disc

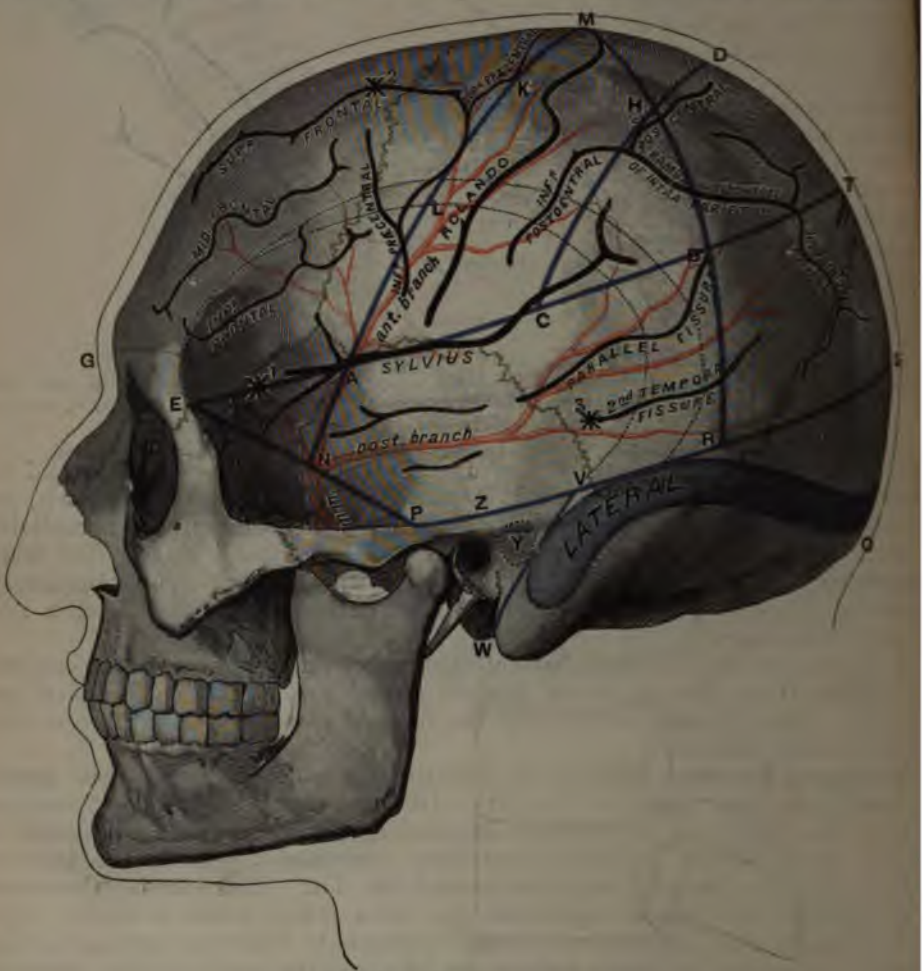


FIG. 881.—CRANIO-CEREBRAL TOPOGRAPHY.

Guiding lines (Chiene's), blue; sutures, green; meningeal arteries, red; sulci, black.

G. Glabella.
O. Inion.
M. Mid-point between G and O.
T. Mid-point between M and O.
S. Mid-point between T and O.
E. External angular process.
P. Root of zygoma (pre-auricular point).
N. Mid-point of EP.
R. Mid-point of PS.
C. Mid-point of AB.
MA is divided into thirds at K and L.
CD is drawn parallel to AM.
Z. Post-auricular point.
VW. Guide to anterior limit of lateral sinus.
Y. Mastoid antrum.
*1. Site at which subarachnoid space may be open
*2. Site for draining lateral ventricle (Kocher).
*3. Site for draining lateral ventricle (Keen).

be removed, and during the removal bleeding may occur from the artery as it i in the canal.

Vogt localises the *anterior division* at a point a thumb's-breadth behind tubercle on the posterior border of the malar bone and two fingers'-breadth ab the zygoma. Krönlein trephines at a point 1¼ in. behind the external angu process, on a line drawn from the supra-orbital margin backwards parallel Reid's base line. If the centre of the trephine be placed at the mid-point of

curves the outer is convex forwards, the inner concave forwards. The skin of t osseous portion of the canal is thin and fused with the periosteum, hence wh chronically inflamed it is liable to give rise to secondary periostitis and oss narrowing of the canal.

The relations of the osseous walls of the canal are of importance to the surg

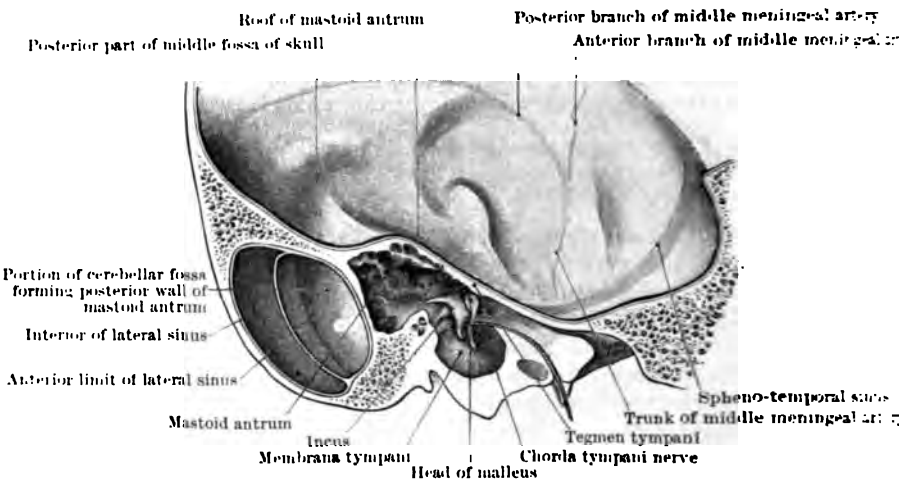

Roof of mastoid antrum
Posterior part of middle fossa of skull
Posterior branch of middle meningeal artery
Anterior branch of middle meningeal ar
Portion of cerebellar fossa forming posterior wall of mastoid antrum
Interior of lateral sinus
Anterior limit of lateral sinus
Spheno-temporal suture
Trunk of middle meningeal ar
Mastoid antrum
Incus
Tegmen tympani
Membrana tympani
Chorda tympani nerve
Head of malleus

Fig. 882.—View of the Outer Wall of the Middle Ear.

Section through the left temporal bone of a child, to show the relations of the middle ear and mastoid a to the middle and posterior fossæ of the skull.

The whole of the upper wall and the upper half of the posterior wall, devel from the squamous portion of the temporal bone, consist of two layer compact bone, an upper and a lower, which are continuous, the former with inner table, the latter with the outer table of the skull. The upper plate p inwards to the petro-squamous suture, where it becomes continuous with the edge of the tegmen tympani, which roofs over the tympanic attic and the ma antrum: the lower plate bends downwards and inwards at its deepest part to the lower and outer wa the tympanic attic and anterior part of the wall of the antrum (Tr mann). It follows, th fore, that when the mas antrum is abnormally sm due to sclerosis of the b or when it is encroa upon by a far-forward lat sinus, it, along with tympanic attic, can opened by perforating junction of the upper posterior walls of the seous canal, the instrument being directed inwards and slightly upwards. U the upper and posterior segment of the external auditory process is the su meatal spine: this small but important process, developed from the squamous port can usually be distinctly made out in the living subject by pressing upwards backwards with the forefinger placed in the external auditory meatus.

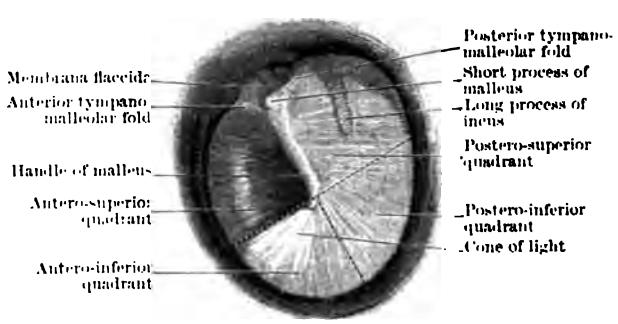


Fig. 883. Left Tympanic Membrane (as viewed from the external auditory meatus). × 3. (From Howden.)

The lower half of the posterior wall of the osseous canal (posterior part of tympanic plate) is fused with the anterior part of the mastoid process, and closes lower and anterior set of mastoid cells (border cells).

Anteriorly and inferiorly the osseous canal is related respectively to the temp maxillary articulation and the parotid gland; hence it follows that blows upon chin may fracture the tympanic plate as well as the base of the skull, that pai

mastication is usually complained of in acute inflammatory affections of the meatus and middle ear, and that in young children, in whom the tympanic plate is incompletely ossified, suppurative inflammation is liable to extend from the ear to the parotid region.

Clinically, to obtain a view of the **membrana tympani** a speculum and a reflecting mirror are employed; the auricle is pulled upwards, backwards, and outwards, in order to

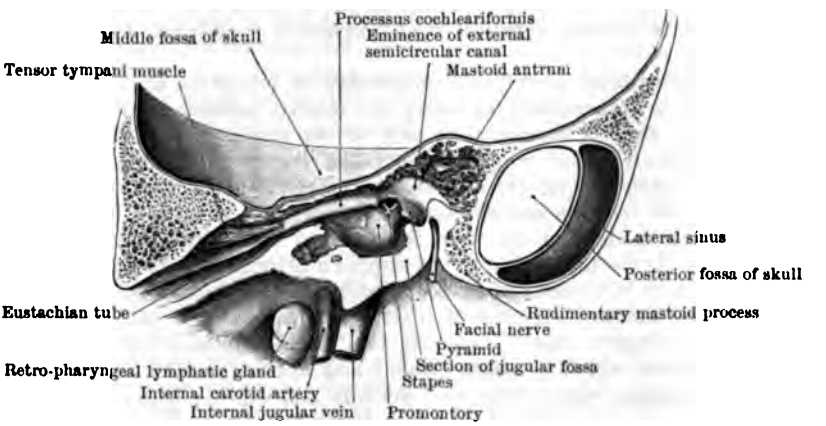


FIG. 884.—VIEW OF THE INNER WALL OF THE MIDDLE EAR.

Section through the left temporal bone of a child, to show the relations of the middle ear and mastoid antrum to the middle and posterior fossæ of the skull.

straighten the cartilaginous part of the canal. The healthy membrane is pearly gray, semi-opaque, slightly concave outwards, and obliquely placed, being inclined outwards, especially above and behind.

The handle and short process of the malleus, both embedded in the membrana tympani, are the only objects distinctly seen when the healthy ear is examined with the speculum.

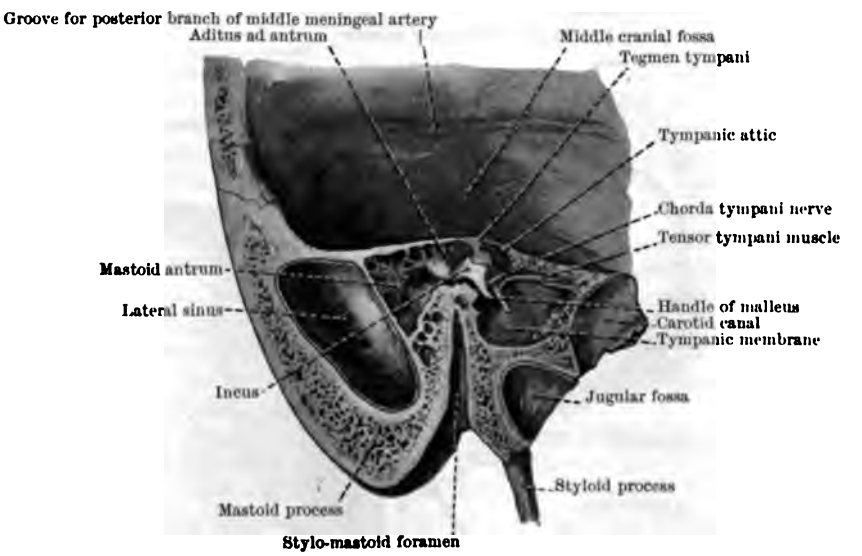


FIG. 885.—SECTION THROUGH LEFT TEMPORAL BONE, SHOWING OUTER WALL OF TYMPANIC CAVITY, ETC.

The short process of the malleus projects outwards, and presents itself, therefore, as a distinct knob-like projection at the upper part of the membrane; passing forwards and backwards from this process are the **anterior** and **posterior folds** of the **membrana tympani**; they form the lower limit of Shrapnell's membrane, and correspond to the line of the chorda tympani nerve. The handle of the malleus, situated at the junction of the two upper quadrants, is seen passing downwards and backwards to the point of maximum concavity of the membrane (umbo), situated a little below its centre (Fig. 883); passing

downwards and forwards from the umbo is the *triangular cone of reflected light*, to which too much importance must not be attached, since its appearances vary considerably in healthy ears. Normally, the long process of the incus is but faintly visible, and still less so are the promontory and foramen rotundum; in the condition of Eustachian obstruction, however, in which the membrane is indrawn, these structures, along with the folds of the drum, become more distinct.

In performing the operation of *paracentesis of the tympanic membrane* the postero-inferior quadrant is the site chosen for making the puncture, as, in addition to providing good drainage, it is farthest removed from important structures, especially the chorda tympani nerve.

In order to understand the clinical importance of the parts seen through the translucent membrane, it is necessary to study the relative position of the structure of the "*meso-tympanum*," that is to say, that part of the tympanum which lies opposite the tympanic membrane. If the tympanic plate and the tympanic membrane be carefully removed so as to leave the ossicles and chorda tympani nerve in position, it will be seen that the head of the malleus and the body and short process of the incus are altogether above the tympanic membrane, and that they occupy the **tympanic attic** or **epitympanic space** (Fig. 885). At the junction of the two upper quadrants of the membrane is the **handle** of the **malleus**, which is directed downwards, backwards, and inwards. The **short process** of the **malleus** is directed outwards a little below the deepest part of the roof of the osseous external auditory canal. Opposite the postero-superior quadrant are the **long process** of the **incus**, which descends behind and almost parallel to the handle of the malleus, and the **stapes**, which is directed inwards and slightly backwards to the foramen ovale. The **chorda tympani nerve** runs from behind forwards between the outer surface of the upper part of the long process of the incus and the inner surface of the neck of the malleus. At the deepest part of the roof of the osseous canal above the chorda tympani nerve and the short process of the malleus is a notch (*notch of Rivini*), which is occupied by the flaccid and highest portion of the membrana tympani (*Shrapnell's membrane*). Opposite the postero-inferior quadrant of the drum-head is the **promontory** of the **cochlea**, below and behind which is the **foramen rotundum**. Opposite the antero-superior quadrant are the **processus cochleariformis**, the **tendon** of the **tensor tympani**, and the passage leading towards the **Eustachian tube**.

The *inner wall* of the tympanic cavity is related to the internal ear. The *upper wall*

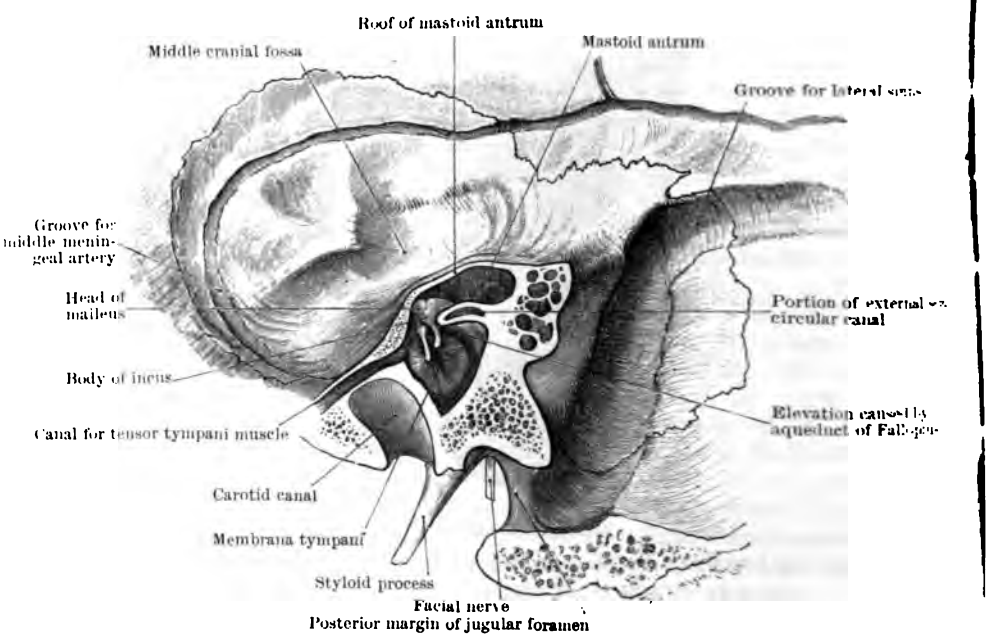


FIG. 886.—SECTION THROUGH PETROUS PORTION OF TEMPORAL BONE OF ADULT.

Showing the relation of the middle ear to the middle and posterior fossæ of the skull.

is separated from the middle fossa of the skull and the under surface of the temporal lobe of the brain by the **tegmen tympani**—a thin plate of bone, which is continued

take the level of the upper border of the osseous meatus as the guide in order to avoid opening the middle fossa of the skull. In children the supra-mastoid crest is not developed, so that if the operator mistake the posterior root of the zygoma for the crest, he will open into the middle fossa of the skull immediately in front of the attic. The upper and posterior quadrant of the osseous meatus is, therefore, the only reliable guide to the antrum in the child.

The *inner wall* is formed by a thick plate of spongy bone which separates the antrum from that portion of the posterior fossa lying between the aqueduct of the vestibule and the groove for the sigmoid portion of the lateral sinus, and which contains the posterior semicircular canal.

The *roof*, which slopes downwards and forwards, is formed by the posterior and thinnest part of the tegmen tympani.

The *floor* is on a lower level than the aditus, and is therefore unfavourably placed for natural drainage.

The **mastoid process** begins to develop in the second year. As development

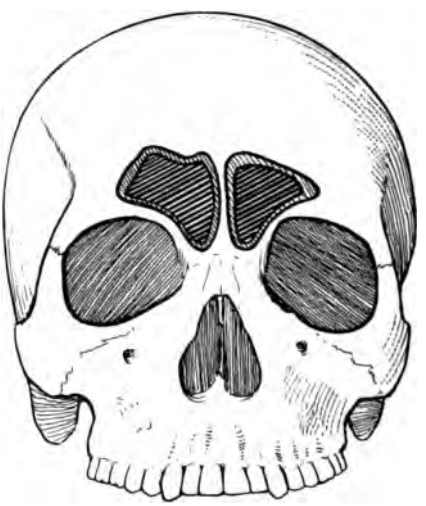


FIG. 887.—FRONTAL SINUSES OF AVERAGE DIMENSIONS, WITH A MESIAL SEPTUM (Logan Turner).

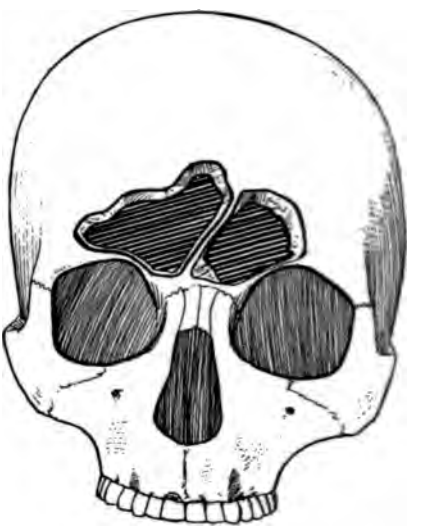


FIG. 888. — A LARGE RIGHT FRONTAL SINUS WITH SEPTUM OBLIQUE TO THE LEFT (Logan Turner).

advances the diploë surrounding the antrum in the child becomes excavated to form the **mastoid cells**, which radiate from the antrum, and either directly or indirectly communicate with it by small openings. In the pneumatic type of mastoid the whole of the process is excavated by these cells, which extend upwards into the squamous portion, forwards to the posterior wall of the osseous meatus (border-cells), and backwards into the occipital bone. Pus retained within the "*border-cells*" may bulge into, and rupture through, the posterior wall of the osseous meatus. Less frequently the mastoid cells are absent, the bone consisting either of osseous tissue similar to that of the diploë, or of dense bone (sclerosed type).

The mastoid process is grooved upon its inner surface by the sigmoid portion of the **lateral sinus**. The average distance of the foremost part of the sinus from the supra-meatal spine is 1 cm. The right sinus usually receives the superior longitudinal sinus, and when this is the case it is larger and farther forward than the left; in extreme cases it may reach to within 2 or 3 mm. of the meatus. The average minimum distance of the lateral sinus from the *outer* surface of the mastoid is about 1 cm., but when the sinus is large and far forward the thickness may be reduced to 1 or 2 mm.

The **facial nerve**, after entering the aqueduct of Fallopius at the bottom of the internal auditory meatus, lies immediately above and behind the foramen ovale, between it and the prominence of the external semicircular canal; thence it

scends almost vertically in the posterior wall of the tympanum ⅛ in. behind and ternal to the lower half of the deepest part of the posterior wall of the external seous canal, and emerges through the stylo-astoid foramen (Fig. 583).

In the infant, in consequence of the absence the mastoid process, the exit of the facial erve from the stylo-mastoid foramen is unprocted and exposed upon the lateral rather than on the basal surface of the skull at a point mediately behind the posterior segment of ie tympanic horse-shoe. It follows, therefore, iat, in infancy, the incision to expose the antrum ould not be curved too far downwards and rwards, otherwise the facial nerve may be di-ded. In the infant the position of the mastoid ntrum is relatively higher than in the adult, ecause in the former the upper wall of the seous canal inclines towards the vertical plane stead of being horizontal. The lymphatics from ie auricle and external auditory meatus open to the mastoid and parotid lymphatic glands, ie latter receiving also the lymphatics from ie middle ear. The efferent vessels from these lands open into the superior sub-sternomastoid lands; hence it is that these groups of glands e so frequently found to be diseased secondary to tuberculosis of the middle ear; id care must be taken not to mistake an abscess in one of the mastoid glands r sub-periosteal mastoid suppuration associated with middle-ear disease.

FIG. 889. — RIGHT FRONTAL SINUS OF VERY LARGE DIMENSIONS; LEFT SINUS UNOPENED (Logan Turner).

To open the **mastoid antrum** the surgeon makes a curved incision a little behind the tachment of the auricle, and chisels or drills away the bone immediately above and ehind the postero-superior quadrant of the external osseous meatus. In this operation ie *middle fossa* of the *skull* is avoided by keeping below the supra-mastoid crest, the teral sinus by keeping close to the external auditory canal and by chiselling obliquely to ie surface in opening the mastoid cells, the descending portion of the *facial nerve* is oided by not encroaching upon the lower half of the deepest part of the posterior wall the osseous canal. In extending the operation from the mastoid antrum through the ditus into the tympanic attic, the *external semicircular canal* and the curve of the *facial erve*, which lie in relation to the inner wall of the aditus, are liable to injury, and must e protected either by a curved probe, or better by Stacke's protector, passed from the ntrum through the aditus into the tympanic cavity.

The **frontal air sinuses** are two cavities situated immediately above the root of he nose between the two tables of the frontal bone. Each sinus at its most ependent part communicates, by means of the naso-frontal duct, either directly ith the middle meatus of the nose, or indirectly with that channel through its nfundibulum. A bony septum, rarely incomplete, separates the two sinuses; it usually mesial in position below, but it may deviate to one or other side above Figs. 887 and 888).

The sinuses vary considerably in their size and shape, independently of the egree of development of the glabella and superciliary ridges (Fig. 889). According o Logan Turner, the dimensions of an average-sized sinus are: *height,* 1¼ in., from he lower end of the fronto-maxillary suture vertically upwards; *breadth,* 1 in., rom the mesial septum horizontally outwards; *depth,* ¾ in., from the anterior wall ackwards along the orbital roof. The sinus may exist merely as recesses limited o a small area of bone above the nose, or it may extend upwards on to the fore-ead for more than two inches; externally it may be limited by the bony vall of the temporal fossa, while posteriorly it may reach as far back as the optic oramen. The anterior wall is thickest, but the thickness may vary from 1 to mm. The floor is the thinnest wall, hence when pus is retained within the

cavity, it tends to point at the upper and inner angle of the orbit. Intracranial suppuration may arise in connexion with sinus disease by extension through the

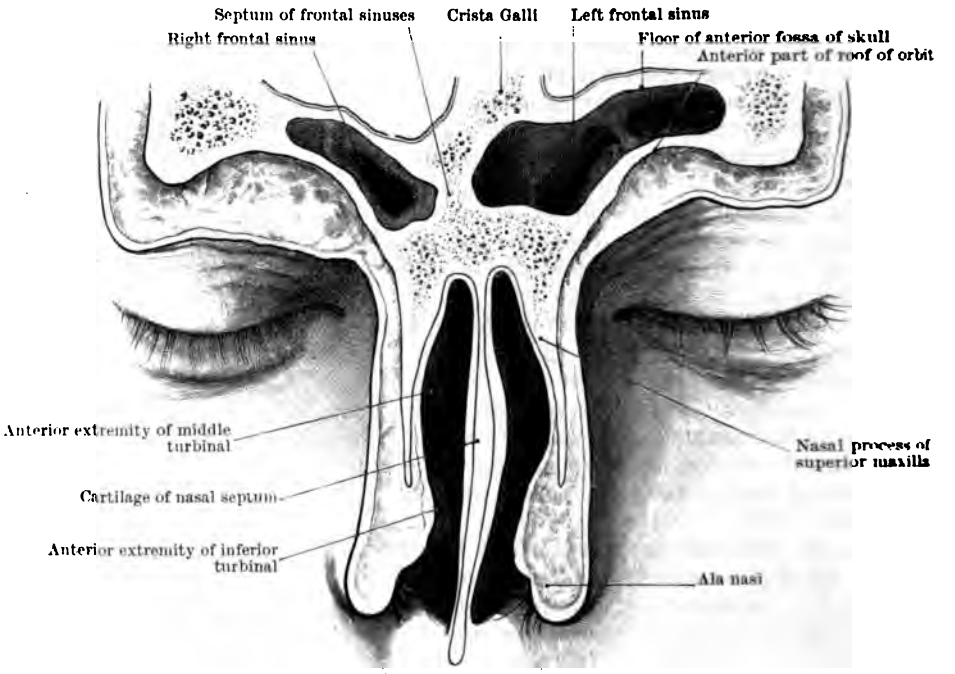

Septum of frontal sinuses
Crista Galli
Left frontal sinus
Right frontal sinus
Floor of anterior fossa of skull
Anterior part of roof of orbit
Anterior extremity of middle turbinal
Nasal process of superior maxilla
Cartilage of nasal septum
Anterior extremity of inferior turbinal
Ala nasi

FIG. 890.—VERTICAL CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE NOSE AND FRONTAL SINUSES.

posterior wall. The muco-periosteal lining, which readily strips from the bone, is thin and pale, and provided with mucous-secreting glands.

In many individuals, by the aid of *trans-illumination*, the extent of the sinuses and the position of the intervening septum may be mapped out upon the forehead. For this purpose a small electric lamp is placed against the floor of the sinus, beneath the inner third of the supra-orbital margin. In exploring the sinus, the opening in the bone should be made close to the mesial plane, immediately above the root of the nose. In marked cases of deviation of the septum one sinus may extend so far across the mesial plane of the forehead as to reduce the other to a mere slit; in such cases the surgeon may fail to open the diseased sinus when the operation is performed through the anterior wall. The sinus frequently contains incomplete partitions, which give rise to the formation of pockets and recesses usually found towards the external angle of the sinus; when dealing with chronic suppuration of the sinuses, special attention should be paid to these recesses as well as to the backward extension of the cavity along the orbital roof. The **anterior ethmoidal cells** are closely related to the thin inner or nasal portion of the floor of the sinus and its duct of exit; hence suppuration very frequently co-exists in both cavities. In some cases pus flows directly from the frontal sinus and infundibulum along the hiatus semilunaris into the maxillary antrum, which opens into the back part of the hiatus. Killian's operation for the cure of chronic suppuration in the sinus consists in the removal of its anterior and inferior walls, the supra-orbital margin being left to prevent the falling in of the eyebrow. By removing the frontal process of the superior maxilla good access may at the same time be obtained to the ethmoidal cells and free drainage established between the frontal sinus and the nasal cavity.

THE FACE.

The skin of the face is thin, vascular, and rich in sebaceous and sweat glands; it is intimately connected with the subcutaneous tissue, in which are imbedded the facial muscles as well as the main blood-vessels. Owing to its elasticity and to the presence of the main blood-vessels in the lax subcutaneous tissue, the face is an

lmirable site for plastic operations, as the flaps do not necrose in spite of consider-ble tension. The laxity of the tissues accounts for the marked swelling which ttends œdematous and inflammatory conditions about the face. Whenever pos-ble, incisions should be made along the line of the natural furrows and creases of ıe skin, so as to render the resulting cicatrix less noticeable.

The bony landmarks of the face which may be readily palpated are: the ıperciliary ridges and the **glabella**, the **nasion** (fronto-nasal junction), the **bridge of ıe nose**, the **osseous anterior nares** and the **nasal spine**, the **supra- and infra-orbital ıargins**, the **external** and **internal angular processes**, the anterior part of the **temporal rest**, the **malar bone**, the **zygomatic arch**, and the region of the **canine fossa** of the pper jaw.

Immediately below the root of the zygoma, and in front of the upper part of he tragus, is the **condyle of the jaw**. By pressing with the point of the finger pon the condyle while the mouth is being widely opened, the bone will be felt to lide forward, while the finger sinks deeply into the hollow corresponding to the **lenoid cavity**. The close relation of the first part of the **internal maxillary artery** o the inner aspect of the neck of the jaw must be kept in mind in operations alling for disarticulation or excision of the condyle. The ascending **ramus of the aw** is sandwiched between the masseter and the pterygoid muscles, and can be emoved without opening into the mouth. Passing downwards from the condyle, ne can palpate the anterior and posterior borders of the ascending ramus and the **ngle** and **body of the mandible**. The anterior border of the **coronoid process** is elt in front of the upper part of the anterior border of the masseter, immediately elow the anterior part of the zygomatic arch.

The pulsation of the **facial artery** may be felt as the vessel crosses the lower ıargin of the mandible at the anterior border of the masseter, 1¼ in. in front of he angle of the jaw. To map out the course of the artery upon the face, draw a ine from this point to a point ½ in. external to the angle of the mouth, and hence to a point a little behind the ala nasi and along the side of the nose to he inner angle of the orbit. The **facial vein** lies behind the facial artery, and akes a straighter course from the inner canthus to the anterior inferior angle of he masseter. The vessel is devoid of valves, hence infective phlebitis and throm-osis are liable to spread along it to the cavernous sinus by way of the ophthalmic nd pterygoid veins.

A line projected downwards from the supra-orbital notch (junction of inner nd middle thirds of the supra-orbital margin) to the lower border of the ıandible opposite the interval between the two lower bicuspid teeth, will cross he **infra-orbital** and **mental foramina**, the former ¼ in. below the infra-orbital ıargin, the latter midway between the upper and lower borders of the lower jaw. n performing the operation of neurectomy for the relief of trigeminal neuralgia, hese foramina furnish the guides to the correspondingly-named branches of the fifth ıerve. It should be remembered that the nerves in question, after emerging from heir respective foramina, lie, in the first instance, beneath the facial muscles. The upra-orbital and infra-orbital nerves are not infrequently represented each by two ıranches, one of which passes through an accessory foramen situated external to he normal opening. Neurectomy of the **inferior pental nerve** is performed by rephining the ascending ramus of the jaw midway between its anterior and pos-erior borders, on a level with the crown of the last molar tooth, the nerve being eached as it enters the inferior dental canal: the **lingual nerve**, which lies a little ,nterior to the inferior dental, can be exposed through the same opening.

The **facial nerve**, after emerging from the stylo-mastoid foramen, is imbedded n the parotid gland where it is superficial to the external carotid artery; the ıerve can be rolled under the finger as it crosses the posterior border of the ascend-ng ramus of the jaw at the level of the lower margin of the tragus; incisions con-inued along the ramus above this point should be only skin deep if the nerve is o be avoided. To expose the trunk of the nerve an incision is made from the nterior border of the mastoid process to the angle of the jaw. Incisions upon the heek should, whenever possible, be planned so as to run parallel with the branches f the nerve; these radiate from the lower end of the tragus. The nerve may

be paralysed by wounds of the cheek and by malignant tumours of the parotid, a also by intracranial and middle-ear lesions.

The **parotid gland** is surrounded by a fascial envelope, the strongest portion of which is continued from the deep cervical fascia over its superficial aspect to become attached to the zygoma (Fig. 716); hence abscesses in the parotid tend to burrow deeply towards the pterygo-maxillary space and the upper part of the pharynx (Fig. 897); the pus should therefore be evacuated by Hilton's method through an early incision over the angle of the jaw. A study of the relations of the gland explains the surgical difficulties which attend its complete removal.

The **parotid duct** can be rolled beneath the finger as it crosses the masseter rather less than a finger's breadth below the zygoma. After winding over the anterior border of the muscle it soon pierces the buccinator, and opens into the mouth opposite to the second molar tooth of the upper jaw. The duct corresponds to the middle third of a line drawn from the lower margin of the concha to a point midway between the ala nasi and the margin of the upper lip.

Superficial to the parotid and a little in front of the tragus is the **pre-auricular lymphatic gland**, which is frequently found to be inflamed in children suffering from eczematous conditions of the eyelids, face, scalp, and external ear. In opening an abscess connected with this gland care must be taken to make the incision as low down as possible, so as to avoid the parotid duct.

Eyelids.—The skin of the **eyelids**, more especially of the upper, is very thin and connected with the orbicularis muscle by delicate and lax subcutaneous tissue destitute of fat; hence the marked swelling which occurs in a "black eye" and oedema of the lids. Along the anterior edge of the free margins of the lids are the eyelashes and the orifices of the sebaceous glands, suppurative inflammation of which gives rise to a "*stye*"; along the sharp posterior edge of the free margin are the minute orifices of the **Meibomian glands**. These glands, imbedded in the deep surface of the tarsal plates, are seen through the palpebral conjunctiva as a row of parallel, yellowish, granular-looking streaks. From the deep position of the glands it follows that the skin over a Meibomian cyst is freely movable, and that to reach the cyst an incision should be made through the conjunctival surface of the lid.

The **palpebral conjunctiva** is closely adherent to the ocular surface of the tarsal plates; at the fornix it is loose and contains small lymphoid follicles, which become hypertrophied in the condition known as granular conjunctivitis. The **ocular conjunctiva** is thin, transparent, and loosely attached to the sclerotic, so that in operating upon the eye a fold of the membrane can be picked up with forceps to steady the eyeball.

In inflammatory affections of the eye the state of those vessels which are visible gives important information as to the seat of the mischief. For example, in inflammation of the *conjunctiva* the posterior conjunctival vessels (derived from the palpebral arteries) scarcely visible normally, appear as a close network which fades away towards the corneal margin; these vessels move freely with the conjunctiva, and do not disappear under pressure. In superficial inflammations of the *cornea* the anterior conjunctival vessels (the most superficial of the terminal branches of the anterior ciliary arteries) are seen to spread in a freely branching manner into its superficial layers. In *iritis* and deep inflammations of the cornea there is a pink circumcorneal zone of vascular dilatation consisting of delicate straight vessels which disappear under pressure and do not move with the conjunctiva; they are the subconjunctival (episclerotic) terminations of the anterior ciliary arteries; in health they are invisible.

Lachrymal Apparatus.- The **lachrymal gland**, situated behind the outer part of the supra-orbital margin, cannot be felt unless enlarged. By everting and raising the upper eyelid, the accessory (palpebral) portion of the gland is seen to project beneath the outer third of the fornix, in which situation also the minute orifices of the lachrymal ducts may be detected. By gently drawing downward the lower lid, the small **punctum lachrymale** is seen situated upon a slight papillary elevation of its margin about 4 mm. from the inner canthus; the corresponding orifice of the upper lid is placed a little nearer the canthus. Normally the

puncta are directed towards, and accurately applied to, the ocular conjunctiva immediately external to the caruncle. By drawing the lids outwards the **internal palpebral ligament** is put upon the stretch, and can be felt as a narrow tense band passing transversely inwards to be attached to the nasal process of the superior maxilla. The ligament is a guide to the position of the **lachrymal sac**, which it crosses a little above its centre. Continuous with the lower end of the lachrymal sac is the **nasal duct**, which passes downwards and slightly backwards and outwards, to open into the inferior meatus of the nose, under cover of the anterior end of the inferior turbinal. The lachrymal sac and duct each measure about ½ in. in length; the latter is slightly contracted at its commencement and termination, and it is in these situations that pathological strictures of the duct are commonest. Spontaneous rupture of an abscess of the lachrymal sac almost invariably occurs just below the tendo palpebrarum; it is in this situation that the abscess should be opened, the incision being made a little external to the angular termination of the facial artery.

The **canaliculi lachrymales**, which convey the tears from the puncta to the lachrymal sac, run for the first 1-2 mm. almost vertically to the free margins of the lids, and thence parallel to them. Between the canaliculi is the **lachrymal caruncle**. In the various morbid conditions which give rise either to misdirection of the puncta or to stricture at any part of the lachrymal drainage apparatus, overflow of the tears (*epiphora*) is the chief symptom. In passing a probe along a canaliculus the instrument, in consequence of the bend upon the duct, is passed at first vertically to the margin of the lid, and afterwards parallel to it, until the point is felt to strike against the inner wall of the lachrymal sac; to pass the instrument onwards along the nasal duct the handle is rotated forwards and upwards through a quarter of a circle, and then pushed gently downwards and slightly backwards and outwards into the inferior meatus of the nose.

The **tarsal "cartilages"** are attached to the periosteum of the orbital margins by the **orbito-tarsal ligaments** which shut off the communication between the subcutaneous tissue of the eyelids and the fatty tissue of the orbital cavity. In fracture of the anterior fossa of the base of the skull involving the orbital plate, the blood extends forwards between the periosteum and the musculo-fascial envelope of the orbit and appears under the conjunctiva.

To obtain free access to the cavity of the orbit, the surgeon first enlarges the palpebral fissure by making a horizontal incision from the outer canthus to the outer margin of the orbit, and then, after everting the eyelid, divides the conjunctiva along the fornix of the upper or lower lid, or of both, as may be desired.

Nose.—To examine the anterior nares (*anterior rhinoscopy*) a strong light is reflected into the nostril, which is dilated by means of a nasal speculum. The **anterior extremity of the inferior turbinal** appears as a rounded body projecting from the outer wall of the nose; in turgescence of its erectile tissue it is liable to come in contact with the nasal septum and so occlude the nostril. The **inferior meatus**, situated between the inferior turbinated body and the floor of the nasal fossa, is brought into view by tilting forwards the head. The **lower aperture of the nasal duct** is concealed from view by the anterior part of the inferior turbinal. The **floor** of the nose is horizontal and placed on a slightly lower level than the anterior nares. The **septum**, generally more or less deviated to one or other side, is seen when the head is slightly rotated away from the side to be examined. The **anterior extremity of the middle turbinal**, which lies a little behind and internal to the lower-internal angle of the orbital margin, is seen when the patient's head is thrown well back; between it and the septum is a slit-like interval (*olfactory cleft*). By rotating the patient's head towards the corresponding shoulder the **anterior part of the middle meatus** is brought into view; pus in this situation may originate from the frontal, the anterior ethmoidal, or the maxillary sinuses, all of which open into the **hiatus semilunaris** of the middle meatus (Fig. 555).

To make a satisfactory *digital exploration* of the anterior part of the nasal cavities, it is necessary to divide the columella and the cartilaginous septum with a strong pair of *scissors*, one blade being introduced into each nostril (Kocher); blood spurts from the small arteries of the septum, but the bleeding soon ceases.

When these vessels, which are derived from the superior coronary arteri source of the hæmorrhage in epistaxis, the bleeding can be arrested eithe pressing the coronary arteries, by plugging the anterior nares, or by gra cartilaginous part of the nose firmly between the finger and thumb.

The **maxillary sinus** or **antrum of Highmore**, situated in the upper pyramidal cavity with its base formed by the outer wall of the nose an directed towards the malar bone (Fig. 126). The cavity is lined by a t periosteal membrane, easily separable from the bone; in the mucous numerous mucous glands from which cysts may develop. The floor of t which is at or a little below the level of the floor of the nose, is sepa the roots of the bicuspid and molar teeth by a plate of bone of varying When this plate is thin and devoid of spongiosa, the floor of the antrum the level of the floor of the nose, and suppuration at the roots of one of above mentioned is in these circumstances very liable to extend to the an an antrum of average dimensions the line of union of the nasal and fac the cavity corresponds externally to the outer edge of the canine ri Turner). The *antral orifice* is situated at the highest part of the an is therefore unfavourably placed for natural drainage; it opens into th and lower part of the infundibulum, which in its turn communicate middle meatus of the nose through the *hiatus semilunaris*. In old a frequently a second communication between the antrum and middle opening being situated behind and below the normal orifice; when thi osteum exists, pus from the antrum may drain backwards into the na (Logan Turner). In *empyema of the antrum* the opening to evacuate the cavity may be made (1) through the alveolus of the second bicuspi first or second molar tooth, the first molar being the site of election; the canine fossa, external to the prominence caused by the root of the ca or (3) through the outer wall of the inferior meatus of the nose.

Lips.—In compressing the **coronary arteries**, it must be remembere run beneath the mucous surface of the lips a short distance from their fr The lips are abundantly supplied with **mucous glands** which can be felt in beneath the mucous membrane nearer their attached than their free b glands are a frequent source of mucous cysts; occasionally they ar congenitally, giving rise to one form of hypertrophy of the lip.

Hare-lip is due to failure of the union of the superficial parts of the interm division of the fronto-nasal proce maxillary process (Fig. 891). The spoken of as complete or incomplet as the cleft extends into the nostri involves a portion of the lip. The involve the lip only, or it may alveolar process of the jaw; in th the cleft may or may not be associ cleft of the palate. Lastly, the har single or double, according as the d occurred on one (usually the left) o

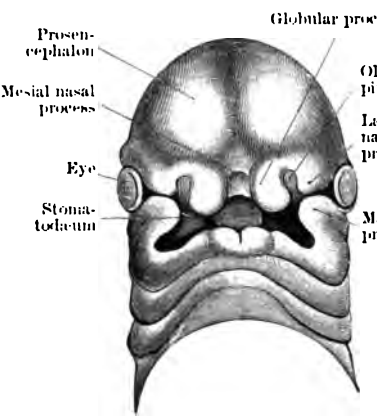


FIG. 891.—HEAD OF HUMAN EMBRYO ABOUT 29 DAYS OLD, showing the division of the lower part of the mesial frontal process into the two globular processes, the intervention of the olfactory pits between the mesial and lateral nasal processes, and the approximation of the maxillary and lateral nasal processes, which, however, are separated by the oculo-nasal sulcus (from His).

Fig. 892, taken from a cor through the head of a human em seventh week, shows how the mo off from the nasal cavities by inwards from the deep aspect of th process of two horizontal plat processes) which unite in the midd each other and with the lower b septum of the nose; the latter, wh as a downgrowth from the pri cranii, is continuous anteriorly w internal nasal processes which fo maxillæ and the middle portion o lip. The various degrees of *cleft palate* are due to the more or less com

nion of the palatal processes with each other and with the premaxillary part of the nal nasal processes. The cleft in the soft palate, which is always mesial, may be r partial or com-, and may or may extend forwards the hard palate. cleft in the latter oken of as single louble according ıether the palatal sses have failed ite with the lower of the nasal sep-ɔn one, or on both,

When the cleft nds forwards gh the alveolar ss to become ıuous with a cleft e lip, the inner ıaxillary) edge of cleft is usually ted forwards in advance of the outer (maxillary) edge. Before proceeding to the cleft in the lip, the projecting premaxillary edge is forced back into line with the maxillary edge.

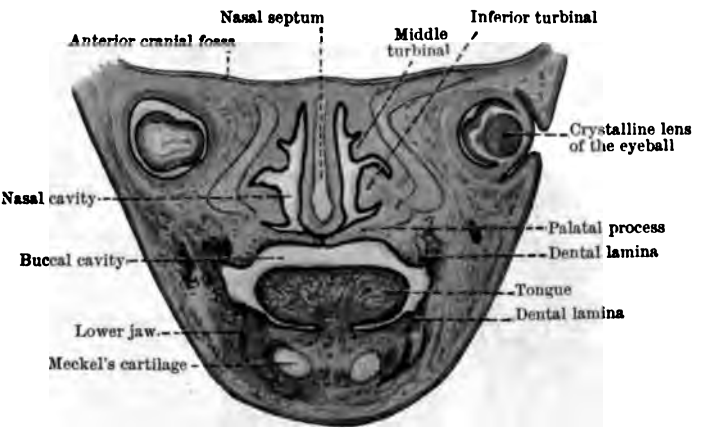
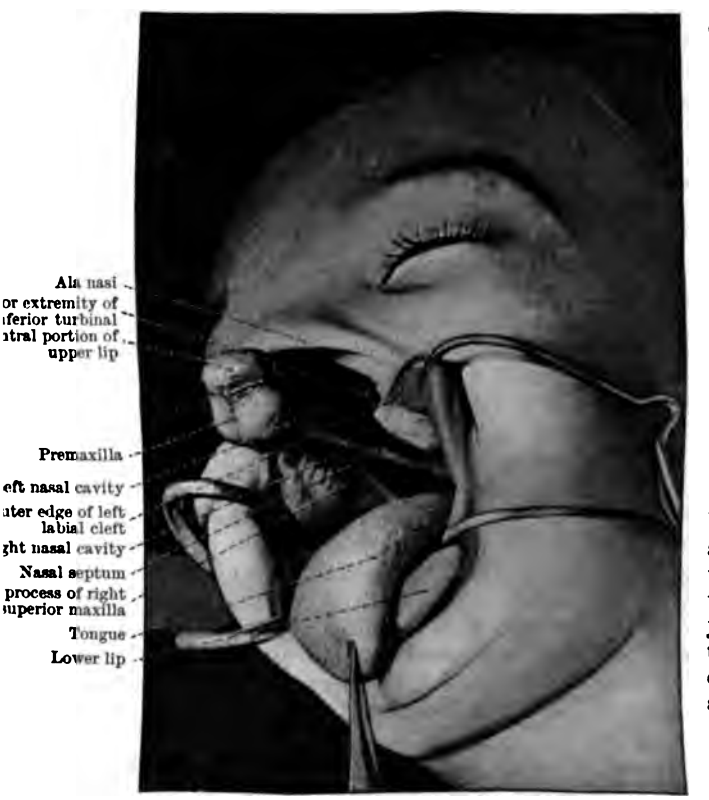


FIG. 892.—CORONAL SECTION THROUGH THE FACE OF A HUMAN EMBRYO AT THE SEVENTH WEEK.



. 893.—FROM A PHOTOGRAPH SHOWING DOUBLE COMPLETE HARE-LIP AND CLEFT PALATE.

In what is known as a complete double cleft palate, the palatal processes fail to join the nasal septum and the premaxillæ on both sides; the result is a wide median cleft which communicates with both nasal cavities. The free lower border of the vomer extends along the middle of the cleft to be continuous anteriorly with the rounded premaxillary mass; the latter, along with the central portion of the upper lip, is projected forwards between the two labial clefts, often to such an extent that it appears to spring from the tip of the nose (Fig. 893). In operating on such a double hare-lip the first step is to get the premaxillary projection. This is done, not by removing it altogether, but by ng a triangular portion of the septum of the nose behind it, so as to allow of its ɔent back into line with the alveolar processes of the superior maxillæ. The base triangular piece of bone should not be taken from the constricted portion of neck ɔremaxillary projection, but should consist of the olive-shaped thickening situated

immediately behind the neck. This thickening is crossed by the transve uniting the premaxilla with the anterior extremity of the vomer (Fig. 894).

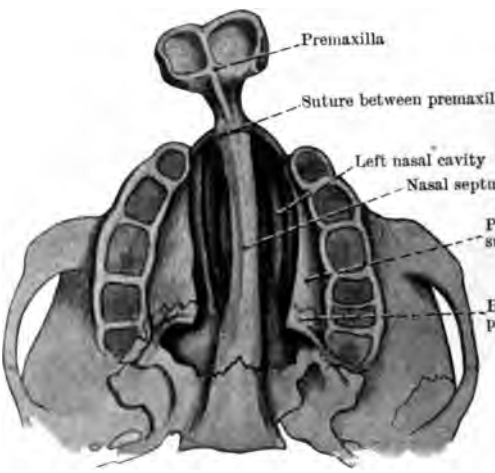


FIG. 894.—SHOWS ARRANGEMENT OF BONES IN DOUBLE CLEFT PALATE (*Handbook of Practical Surgery*, Bergmann, Bruns, and Mikulicz).

maxillary project moved altogethe nothing left to s upper lip, and t an ugly deformi the comparative and redundancy lip.

Teeth.—Th begin to appear sixth to the eigh the first to em the lower centr The first dentiti pleted about th month. Delaye is generally due Of the **permane** first to erupt a molars, which the end of the seventh year; the third molars (wisdom teeth), the last to appear, any time between the eighteenth and the twenty-fifth year, or even the permanent teeth push their way towards the surface, absorption of of the first set takes place, which either fall out of their own accord or removed. Loss of the permanent teeth is followed by absorption of th margin of the jaw. The tooth sockets are lined by a thin periosteum, anatomically continuous with the pulp tissue of the teeth on the one han dense fibrous tissue of the deep layer of the gum on the other.

The upper incisors and canines and the lower bicuspids have *cylindr* hence in extracting these teeth they should be first loosened by a slight movement; the roots of the lower incisors and canines and of the upper are *flattened*, so that they must be loosened by a lateral movement. Th the wisdom teeth are *convergent*, generally welded together and curved b especially in the lower jaw. The first and second upper molars have t which are often *divergent* (Figs. 719 and 720).

Tongue.—For practical purposes, as well as on developmental and grounds, it is convenient to divide the tongue into an anterior two-th **oro-glossus**, and a posterior third—the **pharyngo-glossus** (Wingrave), Fig. the junction of the two portions, immediately behind the median circ papilla, is the **foramen cæcum**, which represents the remains of the upper o geal extremity of the **thyro-glossal tract.** *Congenital cysts* and *fistulæ* whic from persistent remains of this tract are always mesial; those arising upper or lingual portion of the tract are situated above the hyoid bone those developed from the lower or thyroid portion are situated below bone. The liability of these cysts and fistulæ to recur after operation is due to the fact that part of the epithelial tract lies in the substance of bone.

The mucous membrane covering the pharyngo-glossus is much more than that covering the oro-glossus, hence in using a tongue depressor th ment should, except under special circumstances, rest only upon the latte otherwise a reflex arching of the tongue will be set up, which prevents the from obtaining a satisfactory view of the throat. Scattered over the p glossus are clusters of **lymphoid follicles** (lingual tonsils), which appea surface as a number of nodular umbilicated elevations provided with litt into which mucous glands open (Fig. 710). The lingual tonsils are chronic inflammation and hypertrophy, conditions which are often accom

compress the vessel against the inner surface of the lower jaw. On account of the very slender anastomosis between the vessels of the two halves of the tongue scarcely any bleeding occurs when the organ is split mesially.

According to Poirier the collecting trunks which arise from the lymphatic networks in the mucous membrane and muscular substance of the tongue may be divided into four groups:—(1) **Apical trunks** which open partly into the submental glands and partly into a gland of the internal jugular chain lying immediately above the anterior belly of the omohyoid muscle. (2) **Marginal trunks** which pass, some external to the sublingual gland and through the mylohyoid muscle to join the most anterior of the submaxillary lymphatic glands; others pass internal to the sublingual gland, in front of and behind the hyoglossus muscle to join the glands of the internal jugular chain. The more *anterior* their lingual origin the *lower* in the chain is the gland to which they pass. (3) The **basal trunks**, from the posterior third of the tongue, pass from before backwards towards the lower extremity of the tonsils, where they pierce the superior and middle constrictors of the pharynx, and after surrounding the lingual artery, open into a gland placed on the internal jugular vein immediately below the posterior belly of the digastric. (4) **The central trunks**, which descend in the middle line between the genio-hyo-glossi, pass beneath the hyoglossus and mylohyoid muscles into the submaxillary space, and thence in front of the hyoid bone (having embraced the tendon of the digastric) to join the glands of the internal jugular chain.

Between the tongue and the inner surface of the gums is the **alveolo-glossal sulcus**, crossed in the middle line by the **frenum linguæ**, which passes upwards to the under surface of the tongue (Fig. 896). Immediately on either side of the lower part of the frenum is the **orifice of Wharton's duct**. A little external to the frenum the **ranine veins** are seen lying immediately under the thin mucous membrane; to the outer side of the veins are the ranine arteries and the lingual nerves, both of which lie deeper than the veins, and are therefore not visible.

The mucous membrane at the anterior part of the floor of the alveolo-glossal sulcus is thrown into a slight elevation, which overlies, and is caused by, the **sublingual salivary gland**. The duct of the submaxillary gland (Wharton's duct) and the lingual nerve lie beneath and to the inner side of the sublingual gland.

In dividing a shortened frenum for "tongue-tie" the ranine vessels and the orifices of Wharton's ducts must be avoided. Behind the frenum linguæ are the anterior borders of the **genio-hyo-glossi**, which descend to the upper genial tubercles. In operations necessitating the removal of the region of the symphysis of the jaw, or the separation of the origins of the genio-hyo-glossi, the tongue must be kept forward, otherwise the patient will be suffocated by the organ falling backwards over the entrance to the larynx. In removing a small salivary calculus from the floor of the mouth the calculus should be fixed with the finger against the inner surface of the jaw before cutting down upon it.

When the teeth are clenched the vestibule of the mouth communicates behind the last molars with the oral cavity proper through an opening which barely admits a medium-sized catheter. Hence, when the jaws cannot be separated it is generally necessary to feed the patient through a tube passed along the floor of the nose.

By opening the mouth widely and taking a deep inspiration, the soft palate is elevated, and the anterior and posterior pillars of the fauces are rendered prominent (Fig. 707). The **anterior pillars** are seen to spring from the anterior surface of the soft palate, close to the base of the uvula, and to arch downwards and outwards in front of the tonsils to end at the posterior extremity of the lateral border of the tongue. The **posterior pillars** are really the continuation of the lower free border of the soft palate downwards behind the tonsils to become attached to, and lost upon, the postero-lateral wall of the pharynx. Together with the lower edge of the soft palate and the base of the tongue they bound a hemispherical opening (**isthmus faucium**), through which is visible the oral portion of the mucous membrane covering the posterior wall of the pharynx.

The **faucial tonsils** (Fig. 897) lie one on each side of the isthmus, between the anterior and posterior pillars of the fauces; they are situated opposite the angle

of the jaw, but they cannot be felt from the outside. Each tonsil is covered on its free surface by mucous membrane upon which are seen the orifices of the tonsillar crypts; the outer or deep surface is covered by a layer of fibrous tissue which forms an imperfect capsule to the organ. According to Merkel, the internal carotid artery is situated 1·5 cm. behind the outer margin of the tonsil, which is separated from the superior constrictor by a quantity of loose cellular tissue and fat, so that the gland can be grasped with a volsellum and pulled forward without dragging the vessel with it. The tonsil receives its *blood-supply* mainly from a small vessel derived from the anterior palatine artery; when

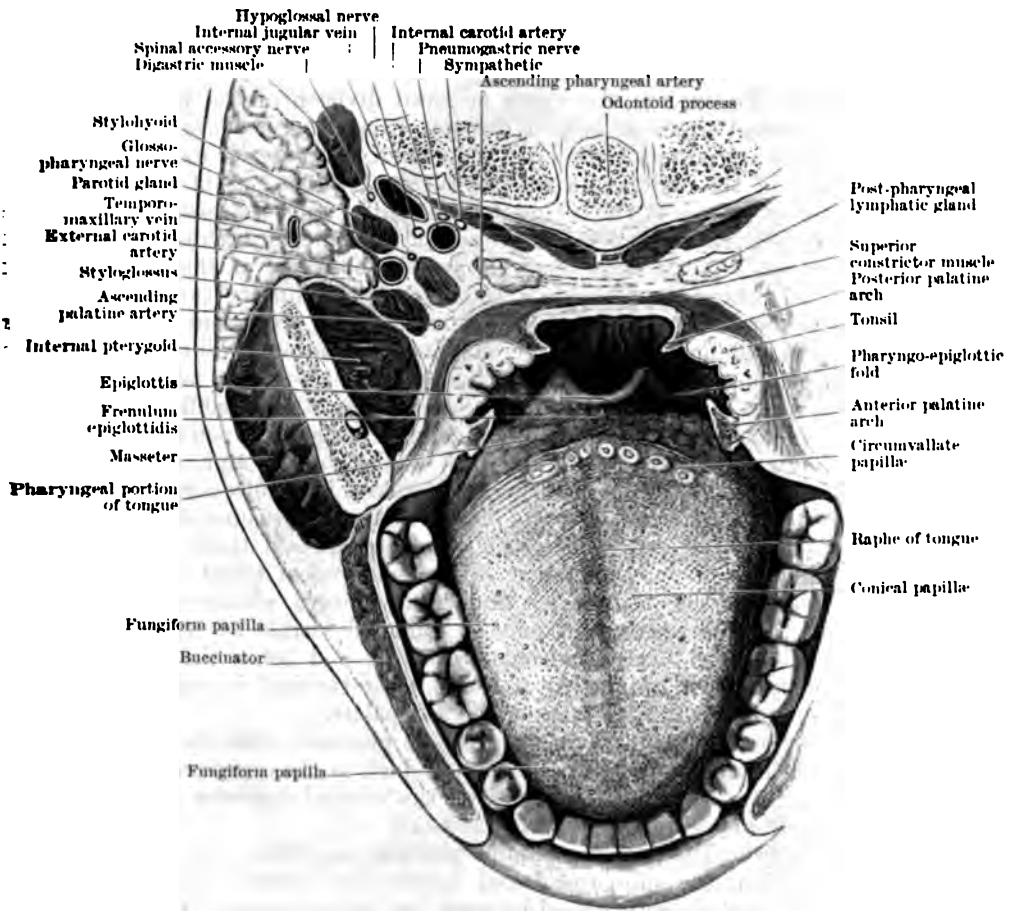


FIG. 897. —HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH MOUTH AND PHARYNX AT THE LEVEL OF THE TONSILS.

The stylopharyngeus, which is shown immediately to the inner side of the external carotid artery, and the prevertebral muscles, are not indicated by reference lines (from Birmingham).

this branch is larger than usual and adherent to the capsule of the tonsil the bleeding which attends the operation of removal of the tonsils may be considerable. The hæmorrhage can be arrested by pressing the bleeding point outwards against the internal pterygoid and the ramus of the jaw. If the bleeding be from a spurting vessel of larger size, its source, according to Merkel, is probably the *facial artery*, which has been wounded as it arches upwards beneath the digastric and stylo-hyoid muscles to within a short distance from the outer surface of the tonsil. In children and adolescents the tonsils are frequently hypertrophied; the enlargement may be either general, more towards the middle line, downwards along the pharynx, or upwards behind the soft palate; to expose and thoroughly remove the last-mentioned variety of enlargement the upper part of the anterior pillar of the fauces must be divided.

The mucous membrane and the periosteum of the hard palate are so closely

united as to form practically one membrane. The p
leaving the posterior palatine foramina, run forwa
hard palate, close to its alveolar margin. In tl
(*staphylorraphy*), in order to secure nourishment for
lateral incisions should be made *external* to these ves

Secondary hæmorrhage after the operation for cleft p
posterior palatine foramen, which lies a little interna
$\frac{1}{3}$ in. in front of the hamular process, which can be felt a
of mucous membrane containing the pterygo-maxillar
a wide cleft of the soft palate the tension of the te
by chipping off the **hamular process** with a small ch
extremity of the lateral relief incisions.

Naso-pharynx.—To explore the upper or nasal
finger should be hooked upwards behind the soft p
readily detects the sharp posterior border of the vom
posterior extremity of the middle and inferior turbi
formed by the basilar process of the occipital bone, w
a transverse bony ridge caused by the projection of
Upon the *lateral walls* of the naso-pharynx are tl
tubes, situated $\frac{1}{2}$ in. behind the posterior extremities
708). The orifices, bounded superiorly and posterior
directed downwards and forwards, and, therefore, in
passage of the Eustachian catheter. Behind the pro
orifice is a lateral recess of the pharynx known as the
the point of the Eustachian catheter is apt to becom
posterior wall of the pharynx, down to the level of
and extending laterally as far as the Eustachian ori
tissue, the **pharyngeal tonsil**. Hypertrophy of this t
known as "*adenoids*," the harmful effects of which
with nasal respiration. Upon the centre of the p
leading into a small recess into which numerous
structures felt in the post-nasal space may be rend
light upon a small mirror placed immediately behi
(*posterior rhinoscopy*). The lower part of the infe
view by the bulging of the upper surface of the soft

In *plugging the posterior nares*, it is important to
measure nearly one inch in the vertical and half an i
In the child, owing to the small size of the face, the
pharynx is relatively much smaller than in the adul

The **lymphatics** from the nasal fossæ and phary
pharyngeal tonsils, join the sub-parotid and upper
which lies internal to the carotid vessel between th
and the prevertebral fascia. In children suppurati
the commonest cause of a retro-pharyngeal abscess.

In the *adult* the four upper cervical vertebræ ca
while in the *child* the finger can also reach as far dow
back of the cricoid cartilage.

THE NECK.

The general envelope of **deep cervical fascia**, along v
which proceed from its deep surface, subdivides the
limit and determine the spread of pus. The most i
central or **visceral compartment**, bounded *anteriorly*
teriorly by the prevertebral fascia, and *laterally* by t
compartment. Posteriorly, this compartment exten
downwards into the posterior mediastinum; anterior
bone into the anterior part of the superior mediasti

partment usually points upon the surface, adhesions being formed, first, be the gland and the fascia, and, subsequently, between the latter and the cut structures. In diffuse suppurative cellulitis of this compartment the pus ha towards the root of the neck, and may reach either the mediastinum or the a

Middle Line of the Neck.—The body of the **hyoid bone** divides the midd of the neck into **supra-** and **infra-hyoid portions.** Above the hyoid bone is th **mental triangle**, with its apex at the lower border of the symphysis menti a sides formed by the anterior bellies of the digastrics. In the floor of the tr are the anterior portions of the mylo-hyoid muscles, separated by the r raphe (Fig. 79). The most important structures in the triangle are the sub **lymphatic glands**, which can usually be felt a little above the body of the bone. They are a frequent seat of abscess secondary to impetigo of the lov and chin. About 1 in. below the hyoid bone is the **pomum Adami**, more pron in the male than in the female. On either side of the pomum Adami are t of the thyroid cartilage, while between the latter and the hyoid bone is the **hyoid membrane.** In the operation of *sub-hyoid pharyngotomy* the epiglott the superior opening of the larynx are reached by passing through the an wall of the pharynx at the level of the thyro-hyoid membrane. The stru divided from without inwards are: the integuments, the sterno-hyoid, omo- and thyro-hyoid muscles, the middle portion of the thyro-hyoid membrane, with a layer of fat between it and the lower part of the epiglottis, and, f the glosso-epiglottidean ligament and fold of mucous membrane. The in

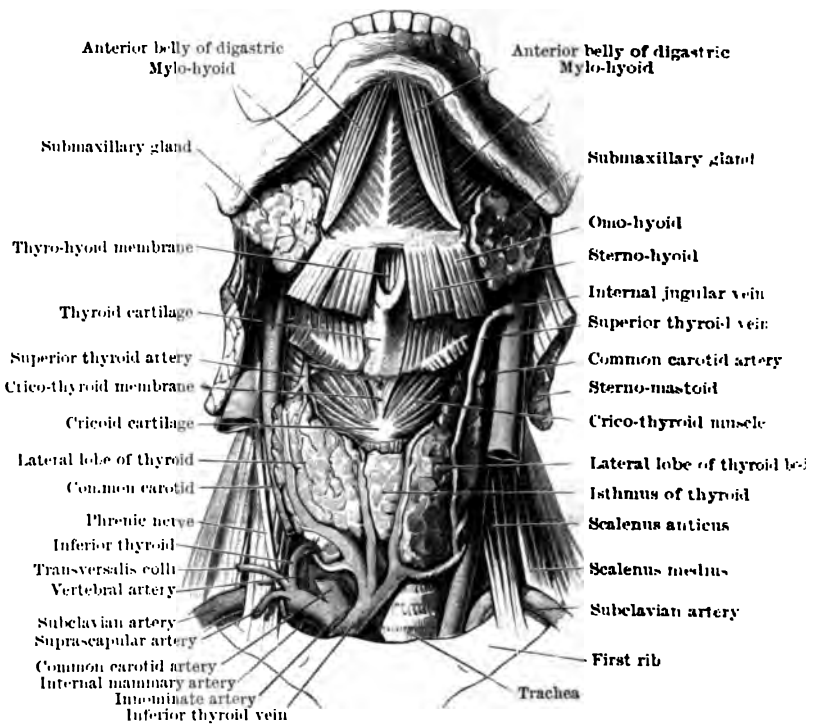


FIG. 899.—DISSECTION OF THE FRONT OF THE NECK. The lower portions of the sterno-mastoid have been removed, and the lower part of the right common carotid artery cut away to show the parts (from Cunningham).

must not be extended too far on either side of the mesial plane for fe wounding the **superior laryngeal vessels** and **nerve** which pierce the thin l portions of the thyro-hyoid membrane.

The wound in suicidal *cut-throat* is generally at this level. The more important str which are usually divided are: more or less of the left sterno-mastoid muscle, the su thyroid vessels, the thyro-hyoid membrane, the base of the epiglottis, and, less frequentl carotid vessels, the internal jugular vein, and the superior laryngeal nerve. When the

process of the sixth cervical vertebra. The comm
pressed against this tubercle, which is therefore ter
it is the most important guide to the vertebral arte
its transverse process, it is often referred to as the "

In operations in this region, on the left side **thoracic duct**, which extends upwards into the nec inner end of the clavicle, and, after arching outwar descends behind the lower inch of the internal jugu

The **cervical portion** of the **œsophagus**, which be cartilage, descends behind, and a little to the left o surgeon, after passing through the above-mentic between the trachea and the carotid sheath; or i incision in the middle line, the trachea, which is fr the right side. In opening the œsophagus care m **recurrent laryngeal nerve** which ascends in the groo and also that the loose submucous cellular interva lumen of the tube. The recurrent laryngeal n operations connected with the thyroid gland; it is the application of a ligature to the **inferior thyroid** front of the nerve to reach the posterior surface c lateral aspects of the cervical portions of the trache lymphatic glands which receive their efferent ve œsophagus, and thyroid body. The efferent vessels inferior carotid or subclavian glands.

The **Posterior Triangle.**—Imbedded in the dee border of the sterno-mastoid muscle, is a chain of close relation to the spinal accessory nerve and t plexus; these glands are a frequent source of absce the scalp. The posterior belly of the omo-hyoid, w of the **supraclavicular division** of the posterior trian border of the sterno-mastoid at a point about one **external jugular vein**, usually visible through the ski of the jaw to the middle of the clavicle; it is the v to relieve the right side of the heart in asphyxia. patent where it pierces the fascia of the subclavian vein in this situation is liable to be followed by the tion during inspiration. The **third part** of the **subcl** against the first rib by pressing downwards and ba clavicle, a little behind the posterior border of the s out the *course* of the subclavian artery in the neck, from the upper border of the sterno-clavicular art clavicle, the highest part of the arch to reach from *ligature the vessel* in the third part of its course, an the middle of the upper border of the clavicle and border of the sterno-mastoid muscle. The most imp the posterior belly of the omo-hyoid, the outer bor the scalene tubercle of the first rib. The close rela trunk of the brachial plexus and to the cervical ple the rare instances in which a cervical rib is present in front of it, or arches above it, according to the de The **subclavian vein** lies below, and anterior to, the a the clavicle.

Entering the posterior triangle from behind th anticus are the trunks of the **brachial plexus**. They and can be felt through the skin immediately abov the subclavian artery. The anterior primary divis supplies the rhomboids, the abductors and externa flexors and supinators of the forearm; that of the si and internal rotators of the arm, and the extensors

that of the seventh the flexors and extensors of the wrist; that of the eighth the flexors and extensors of the fingers; that of the first dorsal all the small muscles of the hand. The carotid tubercle lies between the anterior primary divisions of the sixth and seventh cervical nerves. The fifth and sixth cervical nerves are those which suffer most when the plexus is injured by forcible depression of the shoulder while the head is bent to the opposite side, such as occurs, for instance, in the "Obstetrical Paralyses" of Duchenne.

To expose the trunks of the brachial plexus an incision is made from the junction of the middle and lower thirds of the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid downwards and outwards to the junction of the outer and middle thirds of the clavicle.

In the middle line of the neck posteriorly is the **nuchal furrow**, at the bottom of which are the cervical spines and the ligamentum nuchæ. At the upper part of the furrow, about two inches below the external occipital protuberance, is the large **spine of the axis**, which can be distinctly felt; a line drawn from it outwards and slightly upwards to the transverse process of the atlas corresponds to the position of the inferior oblique muscle and, therefore, to the lower margin of the **sub-occipital triangle**. The course of the deep part of the **great occipital nerve** may be mapped out by drawing a line from the centre of the above-mentioned line to a point one inch external to the external occipital protuberance. At the floor of the sub-occipital triangle is the posterior arch of the atlas upon which the **vertebral artery** lies.

THE THORAX.

For the convenience of topographical description, clinicians, by the use of vertical and transverse lines, have arbitrarily divided the surface of the chest into certain definite regions or areas. The vertical lines are: the *mid-sternal*, the *lateral sternal*, the *para-sternal*, the *mammary* or *mid-clavicular*, the *anterior*, *mid*, and *posterior axillary*, and the *scapular*. The position of the mid and lateral sternal lines is sufficiently indicated by their names.

The **mammary**, better termed the **mid-clavicular**, is drawn vertically down from the centre of the clavicles, or, what comes to practically the same thing, from a point midway between the centre of the supra-clavicular notch and the tip of the acromion process. In the male this line usually lies $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ in. internal to the centre of the nipple, which is usually placed over the fourth interspace, or fifth rib, four inches from the middle line. In the child the nipple may be as high as the lower border of the third rib. In the female the position of the nipple is so variable that it is of no topographical value. In a well-proportioned subject, the mid-clavicular line, if prolonged downwards, will be found to be continuous with the vertical Poupart line, which crosses the costal margin at the tip of the ninth costal cartilage.

The **para-sternal line**, drawn midway between the lateral sternal and mid-clavicular, crosses the costal margin opposite the tip of the eighth costal cartilage.

The **anterior**, the **mid**, and the **posterior axillary lines** are respectively drawn downwards from the anterior fold, the apex, and the posterior fold of the axilla.

The **scapular line** is drawn perpendicularly through the inferior angle of the scapula.

Of the *two transverse lines*, the **upper**, which separates the **infra-clavicular** and **supra-sternal** regions from the **mammary** and **infra-sternal** regions, is drawn at the level of the third chondro-sternal articulation: the **lower**, which separates the **mammary** and **infra-mammary** regions, is drawn at the level of the sixth chondro-sternal articulation.

The lateral area of the chest is divided into an upper, or **axillary**, and a lower, or **infra-axillary** region, by a horizontal line drawn at the level of the sixth rib.

In muscular subjects there is a well-marked mesial furrow, the **sternal furrow**, between the sternal origins of the **pectoralis major muscles**. The inner part of the lower border of these muscles forms a curved prominence which, overlying the fifth rib, corresponds to the junction of the mammary and infra-mammary regions. Below this prominence is the infra-mammary region, which forms a somewhat flat

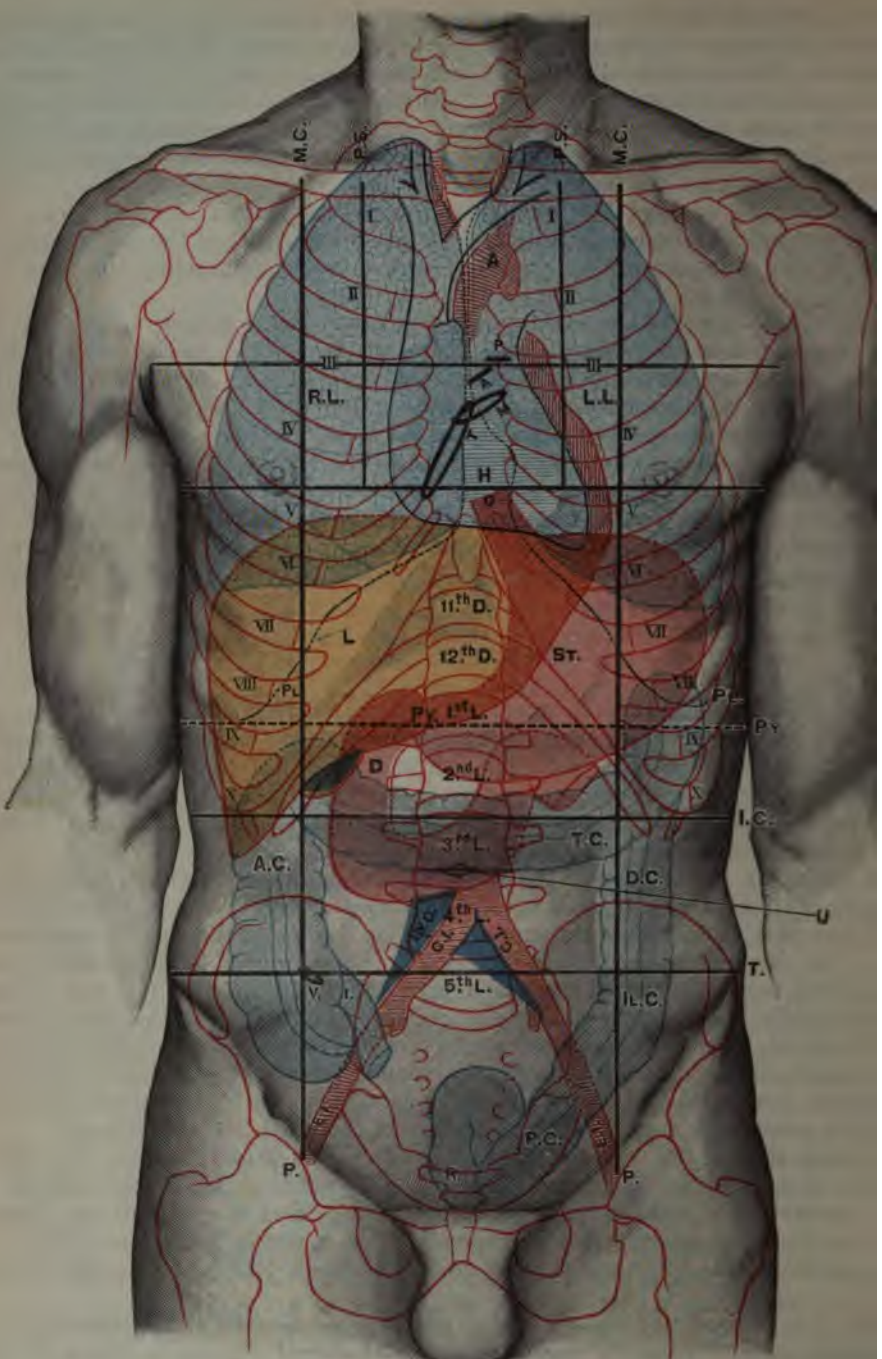


FIG. 901.—ANTERIOR ASPECT OF TRUNK, SHOWING SURFACE TOPOGRAPHY OF VISCERA.

M.C.	Mid-clavicular line.	T.	Tricuspid orifice.	A.C.	Ascending colon.
P.S.	Para-sternal line.	R.L.	Right lung.	T.C.	Transverse colon.
P.	Poupart vertical line.	L.L.	Left lung.	D.C.	Descending colon.
I.C.	Infracostal line.	Pl.	Pleura.	Il.C.	Iliac colon.
T.	Intertubercular line.	L.	Liver.	P.C.	Pelvic colon.
Py.	Transpyloric line of Addison.	O.	Œsophagus.	R.	Rectum.
A.	Aorta.	St.	Stomach.	C.I.	Common iliac arte
H.	Heart.	Py.	Pylorus.	E.I.	External iliac arte
P.	Pulmonary orifice.	D.	Duodenum.	I.V.C.	Inferior vena cava.
A.	Aortic orifice.	I.	Ileum.	U.	Umbilicus.
M.	Mitral orifice.	V.	Ileo-cæcal valve.		

surface corresponding to the upper part of the rectus muscle. In the axillary and infra-axillary regions are the prominences caused by the digitations of origin of the **serratus magnus**, the first to appear below the pectoralis major being that which springs from the fifth rib.

The **upper border** of the **sternum** lies in the same horizontal plane as the lower border of the body of the second dorsal vertebra, the distance between the two being about two inches. The junction of the manubrium and the body of the sternum forms a slight prominence or angle, known as the *angulus Ludovici*, which, although not usually visible, may always be felt. The angulus lies in the same plane as the body of the fifth dorsal vertebra.

The **xiphi-sternal junction** corresponds to the disc between the ninth and tenth dorsal vertebræ. Immediately below the xiphi-sternal articulation is the **infra-sternal notch**, formed by the junction of the seventh costal cartilages with the sternum. Below the notch is the **epigastric fossa** or **triangle**, bounded laterally by the seventh costal cartilages. The apex of the triangle forms an angle which varies considerably according to the shape of the chest, the average being about 70°. Not infrequently the eighth costal cartilage articulates with the sternum.

Fracture of the sternum is rare, and generally occurs at or close to the junction of the manubrium and the body; it may occur either from direct violence, or indirectly along with fracture of the spine. Unlike that of the ribs, the periosteum covering the sternum is firmly adherent to the bone.

The **ribs**, which in well-nourished subjects cause no surface prominences, are readily visible in thin persons; in the obese they are very difficult to feel. In counting the ribs from the front, the *second* may always be identified by its relation to the angulus Ludovici. The *first rib* is to a large extent under cover of the clavicle. The lower border of the pectoralis major and the first visible digitation of the serratus magnus afford reliable guides to the *fifth rib*. The infra-sternal notch is the guide to the inner end of the *seventh costal cartilage*. The second and third costal cartilages are almost horizontal; below this the cartilages ascend with increasing obliquity, that of the sixth being the first to present a distinct angle. The inner end of the second intercostal space is the widest, while those of the fifth and sixth are very narrow.

The **costo-chondral junctions** may be indicated on the surface by a line drawn from the upper end of the para-sternal line to a point a finger's-breadth behind the angle of the tenth costal cartilage.

The **internal mammary artery** crosses behind the inner ends of the upper five intercostal spaces about half an inch from the edge of the sternum; as it descends it approaches a little nearer to the sternum. The vessel is accompanied by two veins which unite to form a single vein opposite the second interspace.

This artery is occasionally injured in punctured wounds of the chest. At the second or third intercostal space it is easily ligatured through a transverse incision, but at a lower level it is generally necessary to resect a portion of one of the costal cartilages.

THE LUNGS.

The **apex** of the lung extends upwards into the root of the neck for a distance of one to two inches above the anterior extremity of the first rib, and is mapped out by a curved line drawn from the upper border of the sterno-clavicular articulation across the sterno-mastoid to the junction of the inner and middle thirds of the clavicle, the highest part of the curve reaching from ½ to 1½ in. above the clavicle. The apex of the right lung reaches half an inch higher than that of the left lung. Intimately related to the apex of the cervical pleura are the subclavian artery and the **inferior cervical ganglion** of the sympathetic.

Both the **cervical pleura** and the **subclavian artery** may be injured by one of the fragments in a fracture of the clavicle; the scaleni muscles, however, affording considerable protection to the former. In ligaturing the third part of the subclavian artery, care must be taken not to injure the cervical pleura.

To delineate *the* **anterior border** of the **right lung**, draw a line from the upper

border of the sterno-clavicular articulation to the ce
and from thence vertically downwards, in or slightly
to the level of the sixth or seventh costal cartilage, o
sternal notch (Fig. 902).

The **anterior border** of the **left lung** is mapped o

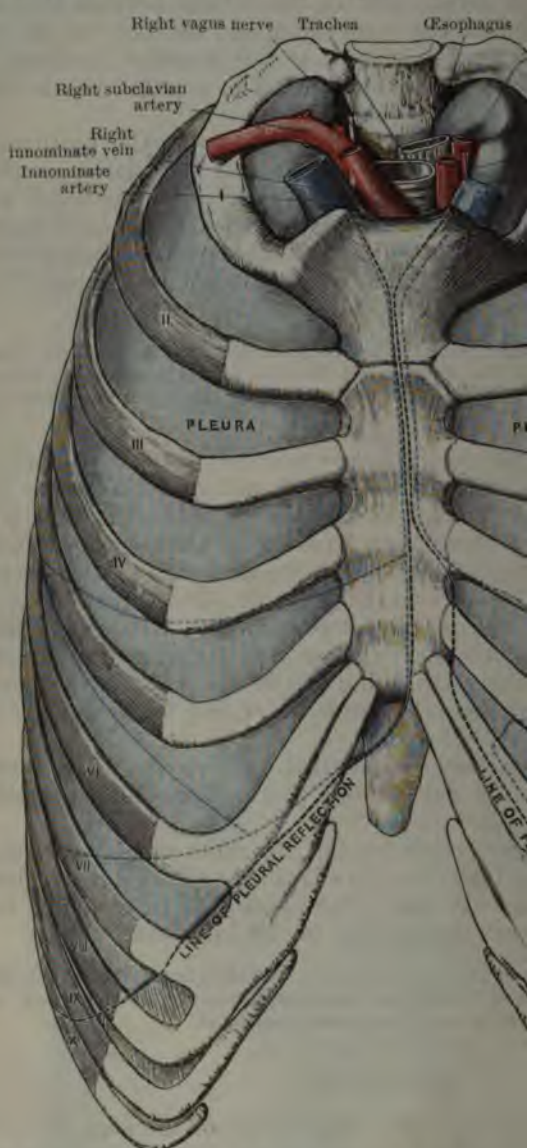
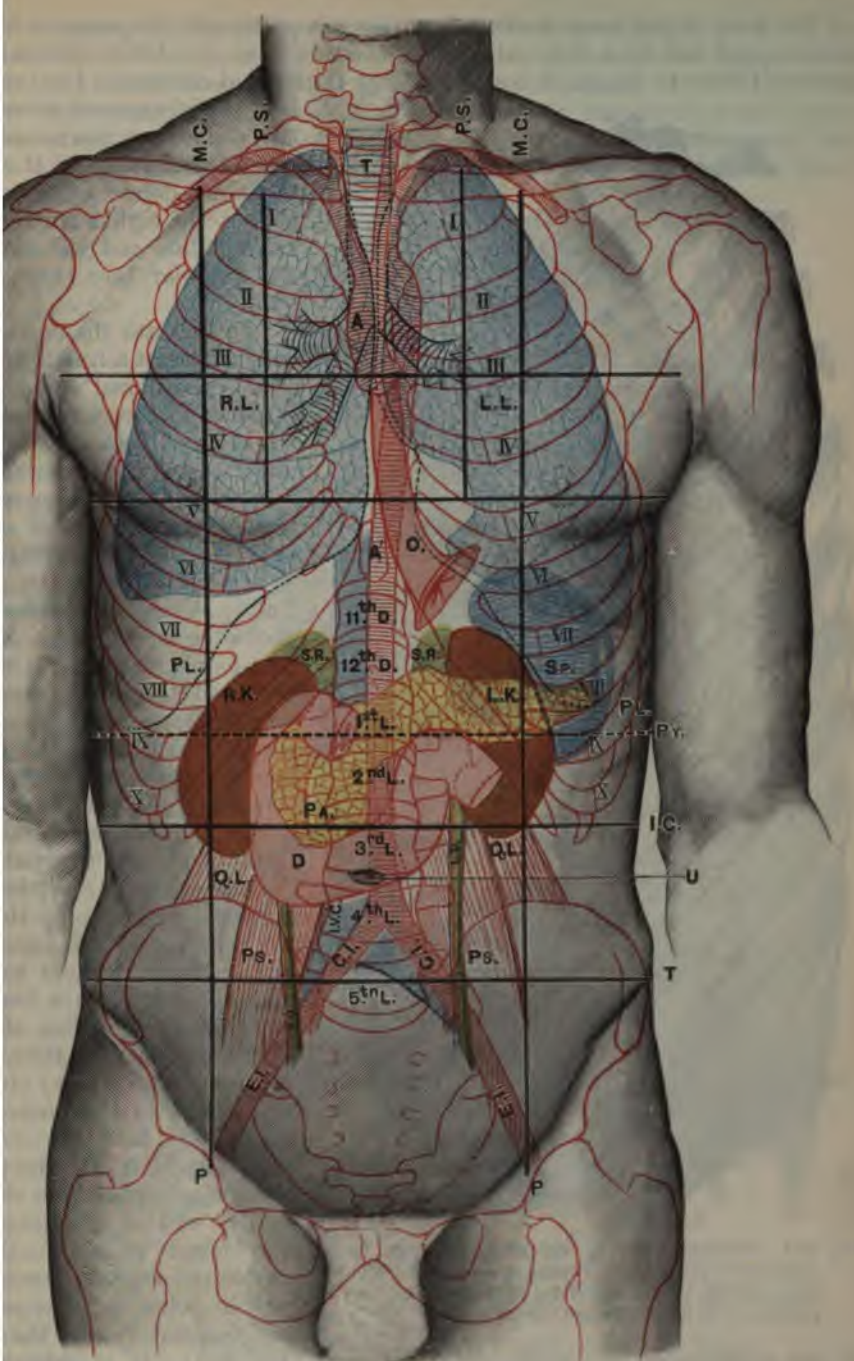


FIG. 902.—DISSECTION OF A SUBJECT HARDENED BY FORMALIN-INJE
pleural sacs as viewed from the front. The anterior and diapl
exhibited by black dotted lines, whilst the outlines of the lungs
blue lines (from Cunningham).

far as the fourth costal cartilage; thence it is direct
border of the fourth costal cartilage to the para-ster
wards and slightly outwards across the fourth in
behind the fifth costal cartilage and fifth interspac
the sixth costal cartilage in the para-sternal line. T
anterior surface of the right ventricle is uncovered by
dull note on percussion; this area is spoken of as the
cardiac dulness."



. 903.—Anterior Aspect of Trunk, showing Surface Topography of Viscera.

vicular line.
ernal line.
t vertical line.
tal line.
bercular line.
yloric line.
a.
lung.

L.L. Left lung.
Pl. Pleura.
O. Œsophagus.
R.K. Right kidney.
L.K. Left kidney.
Sp. Spleen.
S.R. Suprarenal capsule.
Pa. Pancreas.
D. Duodenum.

Q.L. Quadratus lumborum.
P.S. Psoas.
R.U. Right ureter.
L.U. Left ureter.
C.I. Common iliac artery.
E.I. External iliac artery.
I.V.C. Inferior vena cava.
U. Umbilicus.

Internal to the outer edge of the erector spinæ the pleural reflection lies belo level of the twelfth rib, and not infrequently descends as far as the transverse p of the first lumbar vertebra.

On the *right side* the **posterior mediastinal pleura**, as it passes from the pos aspect of the pericardium backwards to the front of the vertebral column sweeps ov

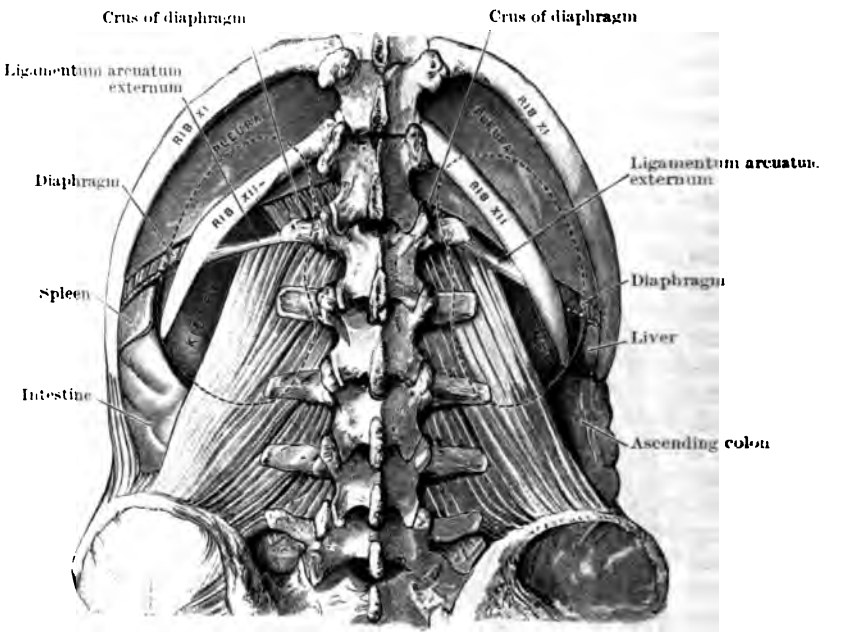


FIG. 906.—DISSECTION FROM BEHIND TO SHOW THE RELATION OF THE TWO PLEURAL SACS TO THE KI Outline of upper portions of kidneys indicated by dotted lines (from Cunningham).

right side of the œsophagus; hence malignant ulcers of the œsophagus are more l to invade the right pleura than the left. On the *left side* the posterior mediastinal p passes from the lateral aspect of the bodies of the vertebræ on to the left side o aorta. Hence, to evacuate pus from the posterior mediastinum, there is less ri opening the pleura if the space be entered from the left side of the vertebral colum

The seat of election for *tapping the pleura* (*paracentesis pleuræ*) is the sixth or se costal interspace a little in front of the posterior axillary fold. To allow of the intr tion of a tube to drain away the pus from the pleural cavity in empyema, a portion of the ribs (sixth to ninth) is resected. The intercostal vessels and nerves, which lie groove at the lower border of the rib, are avoided by removing the portion of bon periosteally. If the chest is opened in the scapular line care must be taken not to either the seventh or the eighth ribs, which are exposed when the arm is elevated overlapped by the angle of the scapula when the arm is lowered.

Anteriorly, the **bifurcation** of the **trachea** lies at or a little below the *an Ludovici*, while posteriorly it lies a little below the level of the root of the of the scapula, opposite the fourth dorsal spine. The bifurcation takes place vertebra higher in the infant than in the adult (Symington).

The septum between the right and left bronchi lies a little to the left o middle of the trachea, and the right bronchus is wider and more nearly in a with the trachea than the left bronchus, hence the greater tendency of fo bodies to enter the former.

The **roots** of the **lungs** are situated opposite the fourth, fifth, and sixth d spines, midway between them and the vertebral borders of the scapulæ.

The lower end of the trachea, the bronchi, the vagi, and the left recurrent laryngeal r are all more or less surrounded by lymphatic glands, which, when enlarged, may exert inj pressure upon them.

In **tapping the pericardium** (paracentesis pericardii) the pleura will be avoided by the puncture through the fifth or sixth left intercostal space as close as possible to the ed sternum. When, however, the pericardial sac is distended with fluid, the pleura is pu wards, and will therefore escape injury if the puncture be made at a safe distance exter internal mammary vessels, viz. one inch external to the left border of the sternum.

To establish free drainage in suppurative pericarditis, the sixth left costal cartilag resected and the internal mammary vessels ligatured; the triangularis sterni and th reflection are then pushed aside and the pericardium exposed and incised.

The **ascending aorta** lies behind the sternum, opposite the second and th and, unless dilated, does not project beyond its right border. The upper b the **aortic arch** lies at or a little above the centre of the manubrium sterni child the vessel may reach as high as the upper border of the manubrium.

The **innominate** and **left common carotid arteries** diverge from either sid mesial plane between the upper part of the manubrium sterni and the fror trachea. A pin pushed directly backwards immediately above the middle supra-sternal notch will strike the inner border of the innominate artery below its bifurcation.

The **pulmonary artery** lies behind the left border of the sternum oppc second interspace and the second costal cartilage.

The **left innominate vein** lies behind the upper part of the manubriun the **right** behind the inner end of the right clavicle. The **superior vena c** immediately to the right of the margin of the sternum, opposite t and second interspaces and the intervening second rib; its opening into tl auricle, behind the third chondro-sternal articulation, corresponds to the c the root of the right lung.

Œsophagus.—The average length of the œsophagus in the adult is (25 cm.); the distance from the incisor teeth to its commencement is 6 in.; point or level where it is crossed by the left bronchus, 9 in.; to the œsop opening of the diaphragm, 14 to 15 in.; to the cardiac orifice of the stomach These measurements, which are of great importance in diagnosing the œsophageal obstructions, should be marked off from below upwards up œsophageal bougies and probangs. Posteriorly, the œsophagus extends fr level of the sixth cervical spine to that of the tenth dorsal, a little to the which is the situation at which the stethoscope is placed in order to hear the produced by the passage of fluid into the stomach.

Clinically it is important to bear in mind the relation of the œsophagus to the trac left bronchus, to the left recurrent laryngeal nerve, to the bronchial and posterior tinal glands, to the descending thoracic aorta, and to the right posterior mediastinal Ulcers of the œsophagus are liable to open into either the trachea, the left bronchus right pleura.

The *veins* of the lower end of the œsophagus open partly into the systemic veins and into the portal system; like those at the lower end of the rectum they are liable to varicose in conditions which give rise to chronic interference with the portal circulation.

The *lymphatics* of the upper part of the œsophagus open into the lower carotid glar remainder into the posterior mediastinal glands.

The œsophagus is very distensible in the transverse but not in the antero-posterior di hence the most useful forceps for removing foreign bodies from the œsophagus are those whi laterally.

THE ABDOMEN.

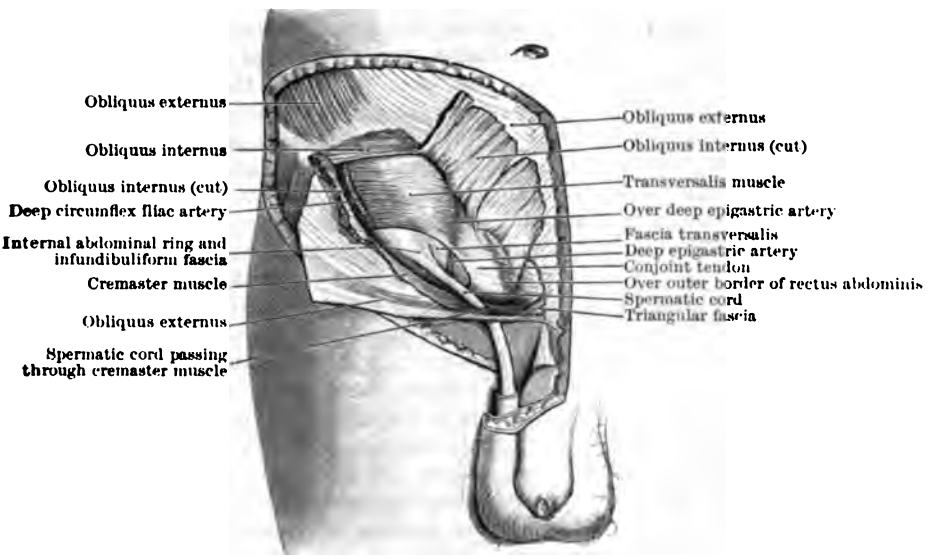
THE ANTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL.

The configuration of the abdomen varies with the age, sex, obesity, and mu development of the individual. In the child it is wider above than below, the converse is the case in the adult female. It is most prominent in the reg the **umbilicus**, which is situated, normally, below the mid-point between the sternal notch and the symphysis pubis, usually a little below the level of the h part of the iliac crest, and opposite the middle of the body of the fourth l vertebra. In the obese, and especially when the abdominal muscles have lost tone, the umbilical region becomes prominent and more or less pendulous, s the umbilicus may come to lie considerably below the normal level. In the

is relatively lower than in the adult, in consequence of the undeveloped state of ıe pelvis.

In spare subjects the lower end of the body of the sternum, the xiphoid cartige, and the costal margin, can readily be traced. The slight depression or notch ɔrmed by the seventh costal cartilages and the lower border of the body of the ɛrnum is termed the **infrasternal notch**. Below the notch, and bounded on either de by the seventh, eighth, and ninth costal cartilages, is the **infracostal angle**, hich varies considerably according to the shape of the chest; it is relatively wider ı the child than in the adult. The lower border of the curve of the **tenth costal rtilage** is easily recognisable, and has been selected by Cunningham as the level f the plane of separation (**infracostal plane**) between the upper and middle abdoıinal zones.

The anterior abdominal wall is limited below by the fold of the groin and the rest of the pubes. In a spare muscular subject the recti, the furrows corresponding to the **lineæ transversæ**, and the supra-umbilical portion of the **linea alba**, ın be readily made out. When the outline of the rectus is not visible the outer order may be indicated by a line drawn from the tip of the ninth costal cartilage ɔ the mid-point of a line joining the umbilicus and the anterior superior iliac ɔine, and from thence to the pubic spine. In the angle between the outer border f the rectus and the ninth costal cartilage, on the right side, is a slight triangular epression which overlies the fundus of the **gall-bladder**. Between the lower part f the outer border of the rectus and the prominence above the anterior part of the iac crest, caused by the lower muscular fibres of the external oblique, is another ight triangular depression, which corresponds to the lower and narrow part of ıe aponeurosis of the external oblique muscle.



ıG. 912.—THE GROIN. The structures seen on reflexion of part of the obliquus internus (A. M. Paterson).

Close above, and almost parallel to, the inner half of Poupart's ligament is the **ıguinal canal**, traversed by the **spermatic cord** (Fig. 912); the latter can be felt ɔ emerge at the external abdominal ring immediately above the pubic spine. he **external** and **internal abdominal rings** have been fully described elsewhere; the ɔrmer is triangular in shape, with its apex directed upwards and outwards, and its ase immediately above the pubic crest. By invaginating the skin of the scrotum he little finger may readily be passed through the ring into the canal. It is ɔ be noted that the neck of an *inguinal hernia* lies above the pubic spine, whereas the neck of a *femoral hernia* emerges below the inner end of Poupart's igament, external to the pubic spine. The **internal abdominal ring**, an opening n the fascia transversalis, lies half an inch above a point a little internal to the

middle of Poupart's ligament. The **deep epigastric artery** may be mapped ou drawing a line from a point midway between the anterior superior iliac spine the symphysis pubis towards the umbilicus. The vessel, together with the i third of Poupart's ligament and the lower part of the outer border of the re bounds a triangle known as **Hesselbach's triangle.** As the deep epigastric a passes upwards and inwards to disappear behind the conjoined tendon and outer border of the rectus, it lies behind the spermatic cord immediately int to, and below, the internal abdominal ring. The floor of Hesselbach's trian formed throughout by the fascia transversalis, superficial to which, over the half or so of the triangle, is the **conjoined tendon.** An **oblique inguinal hernia** l the abdomen at the internal abdominal ring and traverses the whole leng the inguinal canal; its coverings are therefore the same as those of the sper cord, and the neck of the sac lies external to the deep epigastric artery, henc variety of hernia is also termed an *external inguinal hernia.* **A direct ing hernia,** on the other hand, instead of traversing the whole length of the ing canal, pushes before it that part of its posterior wall which is formed by the of Hesselbach's triangle. The neck of the sac, therefore, lies internal to the epigastric artery, and this variety of hernia may be termed an ***internal ing*** *hernia.* If a direct hernia makes its way through the inner part of Hessell triangle, it derives a covering from the conjoined tendon as well as from the transversalis; if through the outer part of the triangle, the outer edge of the joined tendon curves round the inner side of the neck of the sac. To reliev constriction at the neck of the sac, in the case of an *oblique inguinal hernia,* the of the knife is directed upwards and outwards to avoid the deep epigastric a while in a *direct hernia* the artery is avoided by dividing the constriction upward and inward direction. In an *oblique inguinal hernia* the sac lies w the infundibuliform fascia (fascia propria of the hernia), whereas in a *direct h* the fascia propria is derived from the fascia transversalis of Hesselbach's tria The extra-peritoneal fat which covers the outer surface of the hernial sac is s times hypertrophied to such an extent as to amount to a fatty tumour.

In a large proportion of children at birth the **funicular process** of peritor which connects the tunica vaginalis testis with the abdominal peritor especially on the right side, is still patent. Should the bowel force its along the patent process a **congenital inguinal hernia** arises. In the majori the cases of congenital inguinal hernia it will be found that the tunica vag testis has been shut off by closure of the lower part of the funicular process, the upper part remaining patent and forming the sac of the hernia. In rega the operation for the cure of inguinal hernia, it should be borne in mind th the acquired form the *hernia produces the sac,* whereas in the congenital va the *sac is the cause of the hernia*; it follows, therefore, that in the operatic *acquired* hernia the closure of the canal is as important as the removal or obl tion of the sac, while in a *congenital* hernia the most essential part of the oper is the closure of the neck of the sac, and as the muscular and fascial appa forming the walls of the canal are well developed, they should be interfered as little as possible. A patent funicular process may persist during adul without any bowel descending into it; on the other hand, years after birth, l may suddenly enter it. In practically all oblique inguinal herniæ, which de suddenly in children as well as in adolescents and young adults, the *sac* congenital origin.

In the ordinary form of hydrocele the fluid is confined to the tunica vaginalis but when the funicular portion of the processus vaginalis remains patent, the hyd may extend upwards into the inguinal canal, and may or may not communicate wit general peritoneal cavity. In the condition known as encysted hydrocele of the cor patent funicular process is shut off both from the tunica vaginalis testis and fro peritoneal cavity

Parallel to and at the level of the outer half of Poupart's ligament is the **circumflex iliac artery.** In dividing the abdominal wall to reach the structu the iliac fossæ, the incision should be made in the angle between this vessel an

deep epigastric artery. To lessen the risk of ventral hernia the muscles should be split in the direction of their fibres—the aponeurosis of the external oblique from above downwards and inwards, the muscular fibres of the internal oblique and transversalis horizontally. An incision through the abdominal wall parallel to the outer border of the rectus has the great disadvantage of dividing the **abdominal terminations of the lower intercostal nerves**, which run parallel to a line extending from the tenth costal cartilage to the umbilicus.

The middle line is the site usually selected by the surgeon to open the abdomen. The points of surgical importance to be noted in connexion with the **linea alba** are: (1) that its blood supply is scanty; (2) that it is considerably wider above than below the umbilicus, where the two edges of the recti lie in close apposition; (3) that above the umbilicus the fascia transversalis and linea alba are adherent, so that the two form practically one membrane; (4) that the extra-peritoneal fat is more abundant beneath the linea alba than to either side of it: (5) that above the pubes the fascia transversalis recedes from the linea alba, leaving a triangular space occupied by fat which must not be mistaken for the extra-peritoneal fat.

The posterior layer of the rectal sheath ceases at the **fold of Douglas**, which is situated one-third of the distance from the umbilicus to the pubes. The fleshy fibres of the transversalis muscles extend inwards for a considerable distance behind the upper part of the recti.

THE ABDOMINAL CAVITY.

To simplify the topography of the abdominal viscera the abdomen is arbitrarily divided into nine regions by two horizontal and two vertical planes. Of the two horizontal planes, the **upper (infracostal) plane** is at the level of the lowest part of the tenth costal cartilages; the **lower (intertubercular) plane** is at the level of the tubercular points of the iliac crests. The **two vertical planes** correspond upon the surface to a line drawn vertically upwards on either side from a point midway between the anterior superior iliac spine and the pubic symphysis. Superiorly, these vertical planes generally strike the tip of the ninth costal cartilages. The subdivisions of the **upper zone** are termed the *epigastric* and *right* and *left hypochondriac regions*, of the **middle zone** the *umbilical* and *right* and *left lumbar regions*, of the **lower zone** the *hypogastric* and *right* and *left iliac regions*. The epigastric, umbilical, and hypogastric regions may be further divided into right and left halves by the median plane. The **xiphisternal junction** is on a level with the disc between the ninth and tenth dorsal vertebræ. The **infracostal plane** passes through the upper part of the third lumbar vertebra; the **intertubercular plane** through the fifth lumbar vertebra, about one inch above the sacral promontory. The umbilicus is usually situated from one to two inches above the intertubercular line.

In the method of surface topography employed by Addison the plane of separation between the superior and middle abdominal zones is placed midway between the suprasternal notch and the upper border of the pubic symphysis. It will be found to lie at or near the mid-point between the xiphisternal junction and the umbilicus. Posteriorly, this plane strikes the lower border of the first lumbar vertebra, and it so constantly passes through the pylorus that it may with advantage be termed the **transpyloric plane**.

The **peritoneal cavity** may be regarded as a large and complicated lymph sac which is intimately related to the abdominal viscera, and more especially to the gastro-intestinal canal. Inflammatory infections of the peritoneum are therefore almost always secondary to lesions of the viscera. The peritoneal lymph sac is brought into direct communication with the subperitoneal lymphatics of the diaphragm through stomata which open upon the peritoneum covering the under surface of that muscle. The healthy peritoneum, in virtue of the vital action of its endothelial cells, is endowed with great absorptive properties, and, when irritated, has the power of throwing out an abundant exudation. The reflection of the peritoneum and its relations to the various organs have been elsewhere fully described (p. 1097).

From the surgical point of view the peritoneal cavity may be arbitrarily divided into **four great subdivisions**: viz. (1) that between the transverse mesocolon and the

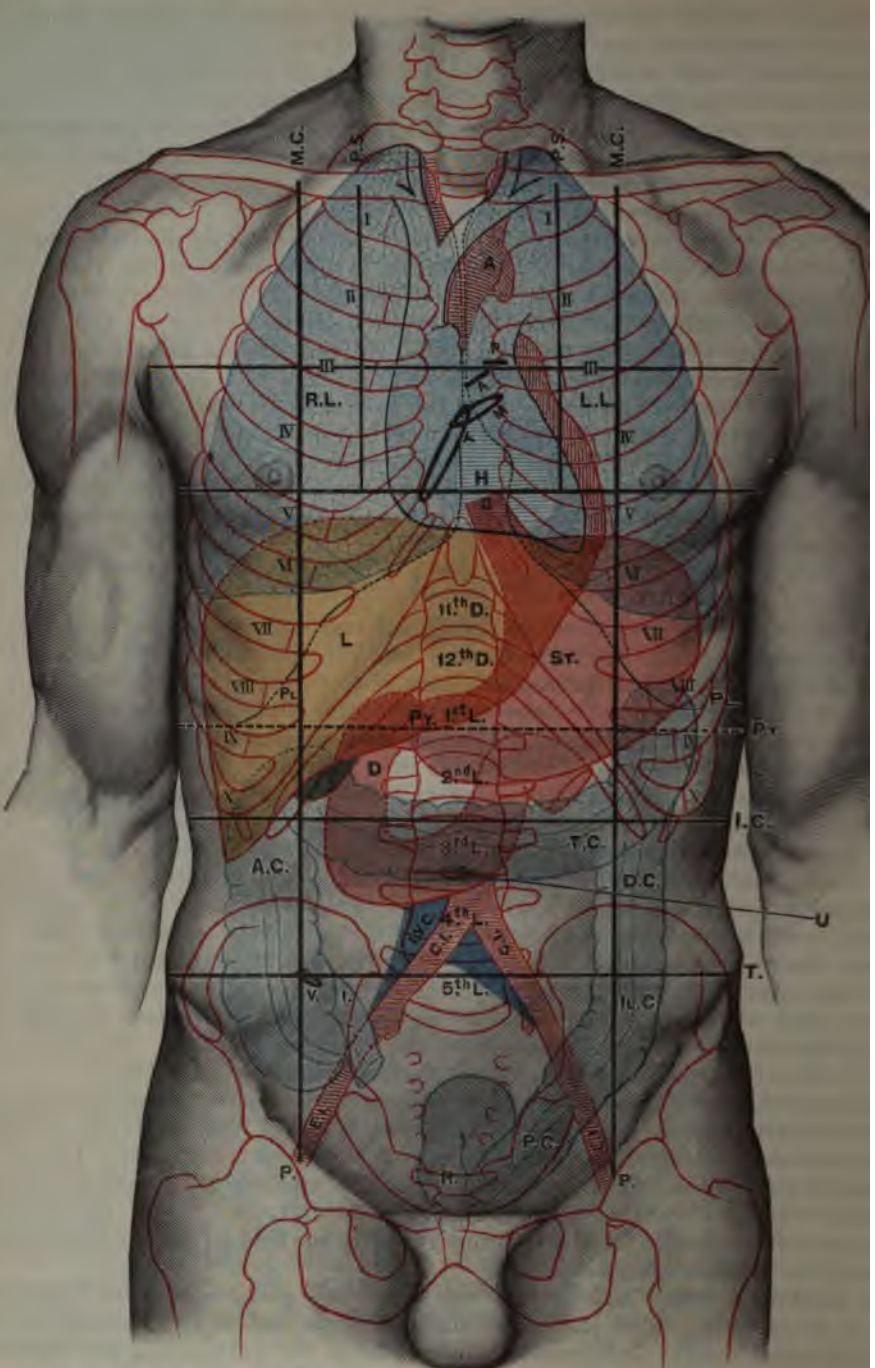


FIG. 913.—ANTERIOR ASPECT OF TRUNK, SHOWING SURFACE TOPOGRAPHY OF VISCERA.

M.C.	Mid-clavicular line.	T.	Tricuspid orifice.	A.C.	Ascending colon.
P.S.	Para-sternal line.	R.L.	Right lung.	T.C.	Transverse colon.
P.	Poupart vertical line.	L.L.	Left Lung.	D.C.	Descending colon.
I.C.	Infracostal line.	Pl.	Pleura.	Il.C.	Iliac colon.
T.	Intertubercular line.	L.	Liver.	P.C.	Pelvic colon.
Py.	Transpyloric line of Addison.	O.	Œsophagus.	R.	Rectum.
A.	Aorta.	St.	Stomach.	C.I.	Common iliac artery.
H.	Heart.	Py.	Pylorus.	E.I.	External iliac artery.
P.	Pulmonary orifice.	D.	Duodenum.	I.V.C.	Inferior vena cava.
A.	Aortic orifice.	I.	Ileum.	U.	Umbilicus.
M.	Mitral orifice.	V.	Ileo-cæcal valve.		

n; (2) that between the transverse mesocolon and the mesentery of the estine; (3) that between the mesentery and the true pelvis; (4) that in pelvis. The **lesser sac** of the peritoneum may be looked upon as a diverti- the first-mentioned subdivision.

ttachment of the **transverse mesocolon** to the posterior abdominal wall is vel of the second lumbar vertebra, and lies, therefore, a little above the l plane. The attachment, which ascends slightly as it passes from right osses the right kidney, the second part of the duodenum, and the head of eas, after which its attachment follows the anterior border of the pancreas. *oneal subdivision above this attachment* is roofed in by the diaphragm, and the upper part of the greater sac, and, behind it, the larger portion of the . The organs related to of the peritoneum are the ıg with the bile ducts and ler, the stomach and part uodenum, the spleen, the the upper part of the and the suprarenal cap- uppuration connected with ese organs is liable to spread under the cupola of the n, producing what is known *renic abscess.* The routes to drain this region of the l cavity are either (1) he anterior abdominal wall gastro-hepatic or gastro- nta; (2) through the loins twelfth ribs; (3) through wall, the lower part of the avity, and the diaphragm, ing been previously taken ff the drainage-track from l cavity. This subdivision itoneal cavity may become from the rest of the space on of the great omentum eritoneum of the anterior l wall.

ttachment of the **mesentery nall intestine** extends from side of the second lumbar downwards to the right (Fig. 744, p. 1051). The nt may be mapped out on ce by drawing a line from n the transpyloric line, one he left of the middle line, id-point of a line drawn lly between the right an- perior iliac spine and the ne. The *subdivision between verse mesocolon and the mesentery proper* is related more particularly to the estine, the cæcum and vermiform appendix, the ascending colon, the right d part of the right kidney. Suppuration in connexion with the organs in involves more especially the right lumbar region, and may extend upwards colon into the subdiaphragmatic region, or downwards into the true pelvis. this region a tube is introduced into the right lumbar region either the anterior abdominal wall or through the right loin.

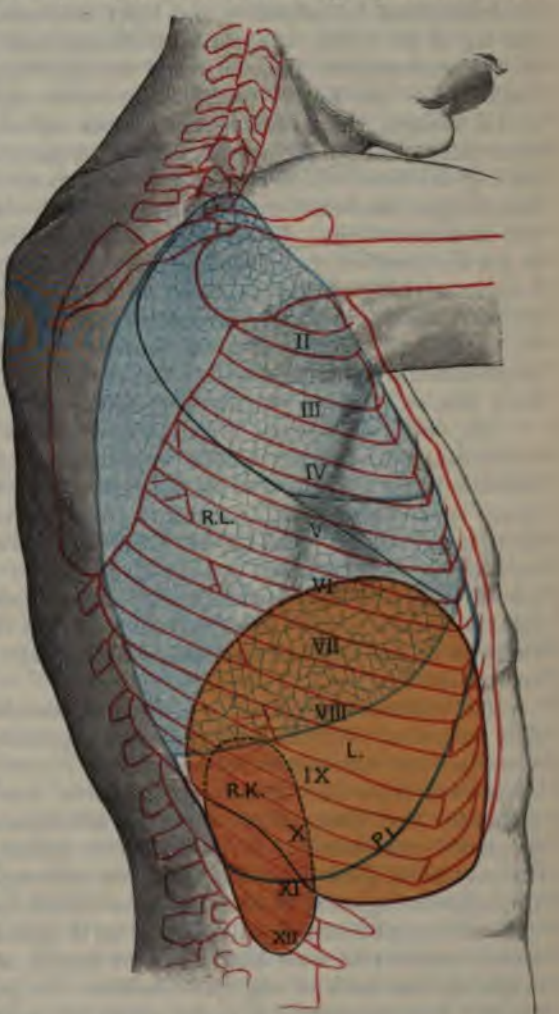


Fig. 914.—Lateral Aspect of Trunk, showing Surface Topography of Viscera.

R.L. Right lung. R.K. Right kidney.
L. Liver. P.L. Pleura.

The *peritoneal subdivision below the mesentery* corresponds to the left l left lumbar, and left iliac regions, and is related to the duodeno-jejunal the greater part of the small intestine, part of the transverse colon, th flexure, the descending colon, the iliac colon, the lower part of the left ki left ureter, the lower part of the abdominal aorta, and the common iliac Suppuration in this division is very liable to extend downwards into tl Drainage may be established by the introduction of a tube either thr anterior abdominal wall or through the left lumbar region. If suppurati in the pelvis, drainage may be carried out through the anterior abdomina in the case of the female, through the vagina.

Liver.—The *lower border of the liver*, as it crosses the costal angle, ca be determined by palpation and light percussion; it passes from the eigh the tip of the tenth right costal cartilage, and crosses the mesial plane at of the transpyloric line. In the *mid-axillary line* it reaches down to a little below the lowest part of the tenth right costal cartilage. Above costal margin the lower border passes upwards and to the left to join extremity of the liver at the fifth interspace in the mammary line. Th *part of the liver*, which corresponds also to the highest part of the right ar diaphragm, reaches, during expiration, to the level of the fourth intercostal the mammary line. To the right of the mesial plane the upper border of is too far removed from the anterior wall of the chest, and overlapped by a layer of lung substance, to be accurately determined by percussion. *B sternum* the upper border reaches to the level of the sixth chondro-sternal j To the left of the mesial plane the upper limit of the liver cannot be de by percussion as it merges into the cardiac dulness. The **falciform ligame** liver lies, as a rule, a little to the right of the mesial plane.

The anterior surface of the liver may be reached through a mesial extending downwards from the ensiform cartilage, or by an oblique incision breadth below and parallel to the right costal margin. To obtain free acce upper surface the eighth and ninth costal cartilages must be resected; the cartilage should, if possible, be avoided, otherwise the pleural, and even cardial cavity, may be opened. Division of the round and falciform li allows of greater downward displacement of the liver. To reach the centr lateral surface of the right lobe portions of the seventh and eighth ribs s resected in the mid-axillary line, and both the pleural and peritoneal cavit be traversed.

The relation of the fundus of the *gall-bladder* to the surface is subject to c able variation. Normally it is situated opposite the angle between the nin cartilage and the outer border of the rectus; exceptionally it is pendul suspended from the liver by a more or less distinct mesentery; or it elongated and drawn downwards by adhesion to the duodenum or colon. displaced downwards it is liable to be mistaken for a floating kidney, but distinguished from it by the fact that although it may be pushed backwa the lumbar region it returns at once to its habitual position immediately the anterior abdominal wall as soon as it ceases to be manipulated. The *cy* which is about an inch and a half in length, is sharply bent upon itself clo origin at the neck of the gall-bladder. It joins the hepatic duct at a ve angle. The passage of a probe along the *normal* duct is rendered difficul marked flexure at its commencement, as well as by the folded condition of its membrane; hence also the frequency with which calculi become impacted neck of the gall-bladder. In excising the gall-bladder, it is an advantage to and divide the cystic artery and duct before proceeding to detach the org the under surface of the liver. The *common bile-duct*, about three and a hal in length, lies, in its *upper third*, close to the right free border of the gastro omentum. When cutting into this, the most accessible part of the duct, it be drawn forward by the finger introduced behind it, through the fora Winslow; the portal vein, which must be avoided, lies behind and a little left of the duct. The *middle third* of the common duct lies a little to the the commencement of the gastro-hepatic artery behind the first part of the du

about a finger's breadth from the pylorus. The *lower third* of the duct which passes downwards and to the right, is intimately related to the pancreas, and is usually so embedded in the posterior aspect of its head that it cannot be freed by blunt dissection. Close to its termination the common duct is joined by the pancreatic duct, the two opening separately, but close together, at the bottom of a diverticulum (ampulla of Varter), which pierces the wall of the duodenum obliquely, and opens at the summit of a small papilla situated at the lower part of the inner wall of the descending portion of the duodenum, about four inches from the pylorus. When a calculus becomes impacted in the ampulla, there is retention of the pancreatic as well as of the biliary secretion. Not infrequently there is an accessory pancreatic duct (duct of Santorini) which opens into the duodenum at a higher level than the main duct, which it joins by its other extremity. A calculus in the ampulla may be reached either by opening the duodenum from the front (trans-duodenal route), or by freeing the duodenum and gaining access to the duodenum from behind (retro-duodenal route). In the latter instance an incision is made external to the outer border of the second part of the duodenum, through that portion of the peritoneum which ascends from the upper layer of the transverse mesocolon over the anterior surface of the hepatic area of the kidney. By blunt dissection directed inwards behind the duodenum, this organ, along with the adjacent part of the head of the pancreas, can be separated from the kidney and vena cava and folded over towards the left, like a door on its hinges. In freeing the bile-duct from the posterior aspect of the head of the pancreas a vein of considerable size will be encountered; this vein, which returns the blood from the pancreatic-duodenal system of arteries, lies close to the bile-duct as it ascends behind the head of the pancreas to open into the commencement of the vena porta. Of the lymphatic glands related to the bile passages it is to be remembered that one lies at the neck of the gall-bladder, another at the junction of the cystic and hepatic ducts, while a third lies close to the termination of the common duct. When these glands are enlarged and indurated, care must be taken not to mistake them for impacted gall-stones.

Stomach.—The stomach lies almost entirely within the left half of the epigastric and the left hypochondriac regions. The **cardiac orifice**, which lies 1 in. below and to the left of the œsophageal opening in the diaphragm, is about 4 in. from the surface, and corresponds, on the anterior surface of the body, to a point over the seventh left costal cartilage 1 in. from the sternum. The **pylorus**, which is generally partly overlapped by the lower margin of the liver, lies, as a rule, about one inch to the right of the mesial plane; when the stomach is *empty* it generally lies in the mesial plane, when *distended* it may reach two, or even three, inches to the right of the middle line. The pyloric portion of the stomach is practically bisected by a horizontal plane which passes through the abdomen at the level of a point midway between the suprasternal notch and pubic symphysis (Addison); it lies, therefore, three to four inches below the infrasternal notch, midway between it and the umbilicus, opposite the first lumbar vertebra. The highest part of the **fundus** of the **stomach** corresponds to the left vault of the diaphragm, and lies at the level of the fifth rib in the mammary line, a little above and behind the apex of the heart. The **greater curvature** crosses behind the left costal margin opposite the tip of the ninth costal cartilage, that is to say, where the transpyloric line intersects the vertical Poupart line. The lowest part of the great curvature, situated generally in the mesial plane, extends down to, or a little above, the infracostal plane, about two inches above the umbilicus. The **lesser curvature** and the adjacent part of the anterior wall of the stomach are overlapped by the lower margin of the liver.

Overlying the stomach is an important surface area known to clinicians as the **semilunar space of Traube**. This space, which yields a deeply tympanitic note on percussion, is bounded above by the lower margin of the left lung; below, by the left costal margin; to the right, by the lower edge of the left lobe of the liver; behind and to the left, by the anterior border and anterior basal angle of the spleen. The line of the costo-diaphragmatic pleural reflection crosses the space about midway between its upper and lower limits. The tympanitic area of the space is

diminished superiorly by pleuritic effusion, towards the right by enlarge the liver, and towards the left by enlargement of the spleen.

Perforation of an ulcer on the *anterior wall* of the stomach leads to ex tion into the greater sac of the peritoneum, while if the perforated ulcer l the *posterior wall*, extravasation takes place into the lesser sac. The close of the splenic artery and its branches to the posterior wall of the stomach c the severe hæmorrhage which is sometimes caused by a posterior gastri The surgeon may reach the posterior wall of the stomach through the gas omentum, or, after throwing upwards the great omentum and transverse c traversing the transverse mesocolon; by the former route the posterior wal stomach is reached through the anterior wall of the lesser sac, in the lat through its posterior wall.

Duodenum.—The **first part** of the duodenum, situated in the right hal epigastrium, lies behind the eighth costal cartilage, immediately interna gall-bladder, and is overlapped by the quadrate lobe of the liver. If th be passed above this part of the duodenum and towards the left, behind t free border of the lesser omentum, it will occupy the **foramen of Winslow**, just large enough to easily admit the finger. In resecting the pylo surgeon should remember that the gastro-duodenal vessels lie behind the fi of the duodenum, about one inch to the right of the pylorus.

The **second part** of the duodenum descends in the right vertical Poupart pl is crossed about its middle, at the level of the infracostal plane, by the attach the transverse mesocolon. It lies in front of the hilum and lower part of t border of the right kidney.

The *transverse portion* of the **third part** of the duodenum occupies th part of the umbilical region, and crosses the middle line about one inch abo joining the highest part of the iliac crests; behind its commencement is th part of the right ureter.

The *ascending portion* of the **third part** of the duodenum crosses th costal plane, and ascends upon the left side of the vertebral column oppo second and third lumbar vertebra.

The **duodeno-jejunal flexure**, which lies in the transpyloric plane one inc left of the mesial plane, is the landmark which the surgeon makes for v wishes to identify the commencement of the jejunum (Fig. 746, p. 1054). the flexure the omentum and transverse colon should be thrown upwards finger passed along the lower layer of the transverse mesocolon to the left the vertebral column. The flexure lies in the angle or recess formed by the of the second lumbar vertebra and the under surface of the body of the p With the finger in this recess the commencement of the jejunum may be forward a little to the left of the superior mesenteric vessels at the root mesentery. In connexion with the duodeno-jejunal junction is the **duodeno fossa** (inferior duodenal fossa of Jonnesco), formed by a fold of peritoneum stretches from the left side of the fourth or ascending part of the du upwards to become attached to the peritoneum of the posterior abdominal w to the inner border of the left kidney. The free edge of the fold and the m the fossa look upwards. This is one of the situations at which an internal sometimes develops, the sac, as it enlarges, extending further and further i extra-peritoneal tissue on the posterior abdominal wall. Should strang occur, the lower edge of the orifice must be divided in a downward direc order to avoid the superior mesenteric vein which curves round the anter upper aspects of the orifice (Treves).

Small Intestine.—The coils of the small intestine dip downwards i pelvis, overlap the ascending and descending portions of the colon, and upwards to the attachment of the transverse mesocolon. To the left mesentery they reach as far as the under surface of the pancreas and the flexure of the colon; here they are overlapped by the lower part of the st from which they are separated by the transverse mesocolon. The only means which the surgeon has of distinguishing the upper from the lower small intestine is by their relation to the duodeno-jejunal flexure and t

cæcal junction. Occasionally the Peyer's patches can be seen from the peritoneal aspect and the ileum thereby identified. The *terminal portion of the ileum*, which is attached by the lower end of the mesentery to the upper part of the right lateral wall of the true pelvis, crosses over its brim, and ascends along the inner edge of the cæcum before opening into it. The terminal loop of the ileum may be hooked up by passing the finger along the inner side of the cæcum downwards over the inner border of the psoas and the external iliac vessels into the pelvis.

Meckel's diverticulum, which is due to persistent patency of the proximal portion of the vitelline duct, is usually situated from two to three feet above the ileo-cæcal valve; its average length is two inches. Springing from the antimesenteric border of the ileum, its termination is usually free, but it may be adherent either to the anterior abdominal wall, to the mesentery, or, more rarely, to one of the adjacent viscera. When its termination is fixed it may give rise to strangulation of the intestine.

Large Intestine.—The **cæcum**, which occupies the right iliac region, comes into contact with the anterior abdominal wall immediately above the outer third of

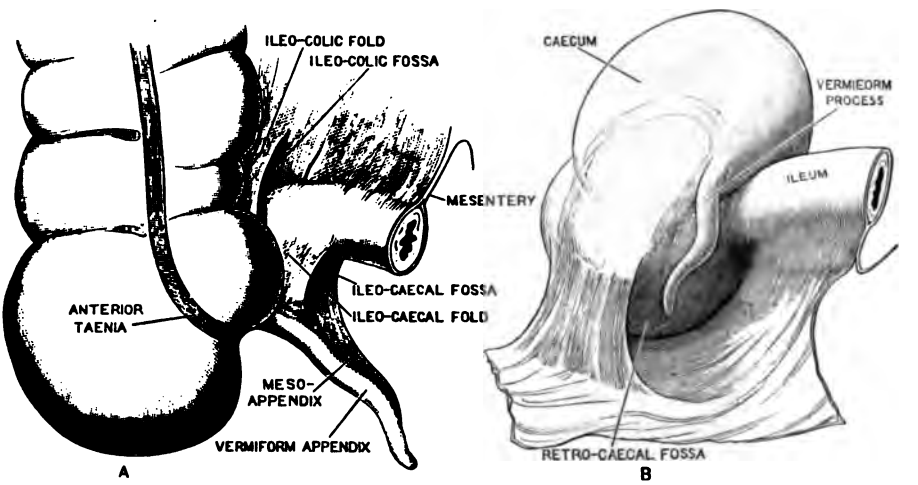


FIG. 915.—THE CÆCAL FOLDS AND FOSSÆ.

In A, the cæcum is viewed from the front; the mesentery of the appendix is distinct, and is attached above to the under surface of the portion of the mesentery going to the end of the ileum. In B, the cæcum is turned upwards to show a retro-cæcal fossa, which lies behind it, and the beginning of the ascending colon (from Birmingham).

Poupart's ligament; laterally, it extends from the anterior superior iliac spine to the brim of the pelvis. When dilated, it extends considerably beyond these limits; when empty, it is generally more or less completely overlapped by small intestine. The **ileo-cæcal valve** lies at the junction of the intertubercular and Poupart planes (Fig. 913 V).

The orifice of the **appendix** opens upon the postero-internal aspect of the cæcum about an inch below the ileo-cæcal valve, a point which, according to M'Burney, may be located on the surface at the junction of the outer and middle thirds of a line drawn from the umbilicus to right anterior superior iliac spine. The appendix will generally be found to pass either upwards and inwards behind the lower end of the ileum, or downwards and inwards so as to overhang the external iliac vessels at the brim of the pelvis; less frequently it ascends in the pouch behind the commencement of the ascending colon. The *blood supply of the appendix* is derived from a single artery (a branch of the ileo-colic) which occupies the small mesentery of the appendix (Fig. 916); hence interference with the flow of blood along this vessel, either mechanically or from disease, predisposes to gangrene of the appendix. In opening the abdomen to remove the appendix it is usual either to split the three lateral abdominal muscles in the direction of their fibres ("gridiron" incision) or to pass through the sheath of the rectus, in which case the muscle itself is either pulled inwards or its fibres separated. When the gridiron incision is made

as long as possible, it is necessary to divide both the ascending branch of circumflex iliac and the deep epigastric vessels, the former at the outer latter at the inner extremity of the incision. After dividing the periton appendix is sought for by pa finger behind the angle form inner aspect of the cæcum lower end of the ileum. I necessary to bring the cæcu the wound, in order that the longitudinal band of muscu (tænia coli) may be traced do to the root of the appen 915, A).

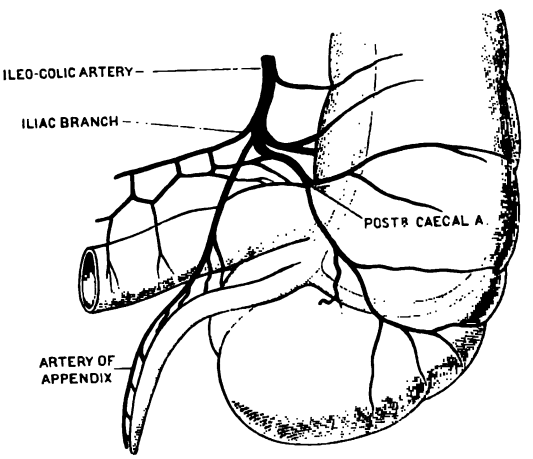


FIG. 916.—THE BLOOD SUPPLY OF THE CÆCUM AND VERMIFORM APPENDIX.

The illustration gives a view of the cæcum from behind. The artery of the appendix, and the three tænia coli springing from the base of the appendix, should be specially noted (modified by Birmingham from Jonnesco).

The **ascending colon**, after the iliac crest, lies deeply in lumbar region upon the q lumborum and the right kid

The **hepatic flexure** reaches beneath the tenth costal into the lowest part of the rig chondrium, where it lies imm to the right of the gall-bla tween the liver and the lowe the anterior surface of the ki

The **transverse colon** cr upper part of the umbilica Not infrequently it forms a U or a V-shaped loop which reaches for a variable distance below the leve umbilicus; when the intestines are distended it may ascend in front stomach.

The **splenic flexure** reaches upwards behind the greater curvature stomach into the left hypochondriac region, as far as the lower extremit spleen, from which it is separated by the costocolic fold of peritoneum.

The **descending colon** lies deeply in the left lumbar region, along the lo of the outer border of the left kidney.

The **iliac** and **pelvic portions** of the **colon** lie respectively in the left ili and in the true pelvis; the latter is provided with a distinct mesenter as it crosses the left ureter and the bifurcation of the common iliac vessel the **intersigmoid peritoneal fossa**. This fossa is sometimes the starting-poi internal retroperitoneal hernia. The mouth of the fossa looks downwards the left; above and to its right is the sigmoid artery. The iliac colon can g be felt through the abdominal wall as it descends from the crest of the i the inner margin of the psoas muscle. The iliac colon is the part of th which is most frequently opened when it is desired to make an artificial a is exposed through an oblique incision, the centre of which is at the jun the middle and outer thirds of a line drawn from the umbilicus to the superior iliac spine.

Kidneys.—The kidneys, which lie behind the peritoneum, extend hi than is often supposed, and laterally they do not extend so far away fr spine as is almost invariably depicted; hence it is that, unless enlarged, the can seldom be felt through the abdominal wall. The right kidney as a rul little lower than the left, as well as a little further away from the mesia The hilum of the right kidney lies 2 in. from the mesial plane; that of 1½ in. from the mesial plane. For practical purposes the **hilum** of the kidn be regarded as opposite a point on the anterior abdominal wall a finger's internal to the tip of the ninth costal cartilage; and a line joining the t crosses the vertebral column opposite the disc between the first and second vertebræ, that is to say, on a level with the transpyloric line. The *highe* of the kidney is situated two inches from the mesial plane, on a level

line crossing the abdomen midway between the xiphisternal and tra planes. The *lowest point* of the kidney reaches down to, or a little b infracostal plane.

The student should make himself familiar with the feel of the parts in to the kidneys, as far as they can be made out by introducing the hand t mesial abdominal incision. The lower half of the **right kidney** is covere hepatic flexure of the colon; the upper part lies deeply in the hypochond is felt by thrusting the hand upwards and backwards between the live hepatic flexure of the colon. Between this part of the kidney and the face of the liver is a deep recess which receives its serous covering fr toneum continued upwards from the upper layer of the transverse m Overlapping the hilum and the lower part of the inner border is the de part of the duodenum, which is crossed by the transverse colon.

The lower half of the **left kidney**, covered by peritoneum continued do from the lower layer of the transverse mesocolon, is easily felt in th between the vertebral column and the upper part of the descending col overlapped by coils of small intestine, and passing transversely outwards of it is the left colic artery and its branches. Crossing the left kidney above its middle, is the body of the pancreas, together with the splenic To reach the part of the kidney which lies above the pancreas, an openin be made through the gastro-colic omentum and the hand passed upward the stomach into the lesser sac of the peritoneum. Applied to the uppe more of the outer border of the kidney is the renal surface of the spleen.

The posterior relations of the kidneys will be referred to when deal the back.

Outside the true capsule of the kidney is the **adipose capsule**, wh specialised thickening of the extra-peritoneal fat. It is in this fat tha nephritic abscess develops, the pus passing backwards into the loin, do towards the iliac fossa, or forwards into the extra-peritoneal fat of the abdominal wall.

The **ureters** lie behind the peritoneum covering the psoas muscle descend almost vertically in the umbilical region $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. from the mesi At the level of the intertubercular plane they lie in front of the terminati common iliac arteries, and then pass down into the true pelvis in fron internal iliac arteries.

Pancreas.—The *head of the pancreas* occupies the curve of the du and lies in the lowest part of the right half of the epigastric region, on a le the second lumbar vertebra. The *neck*, which crosses the mesial plane opp disc between the first and second lumbar vertebræ, lies in the transpyloi while the body lies immediately above that plane. The *tail* lies in the le chondriac region. The relations of the pancreas to the transverse mesoc to the neighbouring viscera have already been sufficiently referred to.

After opening the abdomen in the middle line, the pancreas is best ex passing through the gastro-colic omentum; access to the organ through e gastro-hepatic omentum or the transverse mesocolon is more limited and less satisfactory.

A pancreatic cyst gives rise to a tumefaction of the abdomen eithe epigastric or in the umbilical region, depending on whether it pushes th hepatic omentum before it and develops between the liver and stomach, or it extends forwards below the stomach. In severe contusions of the abd pancreas may be ruptured against the vertebral column.

Vessels of the Abdomen.—The commencement of the **abdominal aorta cœliac axis** is situated two fingers' breadth above the transpyloric pla **superior mesenteric** artery arises a finger's breadth above the transpyloric p **renal arteries** a finger's breadth below it. The **inferior mesenteric artery** ar way between the transpyloric and the intertubercular plane—that is to s 1 in. above the level of the umbilicus. The **abdominal aorta** bifurcates little to the left of, the mesial plane, on a level with the highest part of crest, and about $\frac{3}{4}$ in. below the level of the umbilicus.

The **inferior vena cava** lies immediately to the right of the aorta; its most important surgical relation is the right ureter, which lies close to its outer side.

The **common** and **external iliac arteries** may be mapped out by drawing a line, curved slightly outwards, from a point opposite the bifurcation of the aorta to a point midway between the anterior superior iliac spine and the pubic symphysis: the upper third of this line corresponds to the common iliac, the lower two-thirds to the external iliac. The **common iliac veins** lie mainly to the right of the corresponding arteries, the left vein, however, crossing behind the right artery to join its fellow to form the inferior vena cava. The relation of the veins and of the ureters must be borne in mind in ligaturing the common iliac arteries.

The great vessels upon the posterior abdominal wall, along with the adjacent lymphatic vessels and glands, lie in the extra-peritoneal fat, and therefore within the general fascial envelope of the abdomen. Abscesses, originating from the retro-peritoneal lymphatic glands are, therefore, like perinephritic abscesses, extra-peritoneal, but intra-fascial; abscesses of spinal origin, whether lumbar, iliac, or psoas, are, on the other hand, extra-fascial. Abscesses connected with the vermiform appendix are primarily intra-peritoneal; occasionally they ulcerate through the parietal peritoneum and burrow in the extra-peritoneal fat.

THE MALE PERINEUM.

The male perineum is a heart-shaped space the osseous boundaries of which are the same as those which form the outlet of the pelvis. A line drawn transversely across the perineum between the anterior part of the tuberosities crosses the middle line immediately in front of the anus, and divides the space into an anterior or urinogenital triangle and a posterior or rectal triangle. The **urinogenital triangle** is subdivided into a superficial and deep compartment by the triangular ligament; in the superficial compartment is the root of the penis, which gives rise to a longitudinal fulness upon the surface. Anteriorly, the surface of the urinogenital triangle is continued on to the scrotum, whilst laterally a distinct groove separates it from the inner surface of the thighs. The **central point** of the **perineum** (common tendon of the perineal muscles) is continuous with the centre of the base of the triangular ligament, and lies a finger's breadth in front of the anus. Immediately in front of it, and about 1 in. from the centre of the anus, is the posterior edge of the **bulb** of the **corpus spongiosum**. The *superficial compartment* of the urinogenital triangle is bounded below by the **perineal fascia of Colles** (Fig. 918), which is attached posteriorly to the base of the triangular ligament, and laterally to the margins of the pubic arch. Anteriorly, the fascia of Colles passes

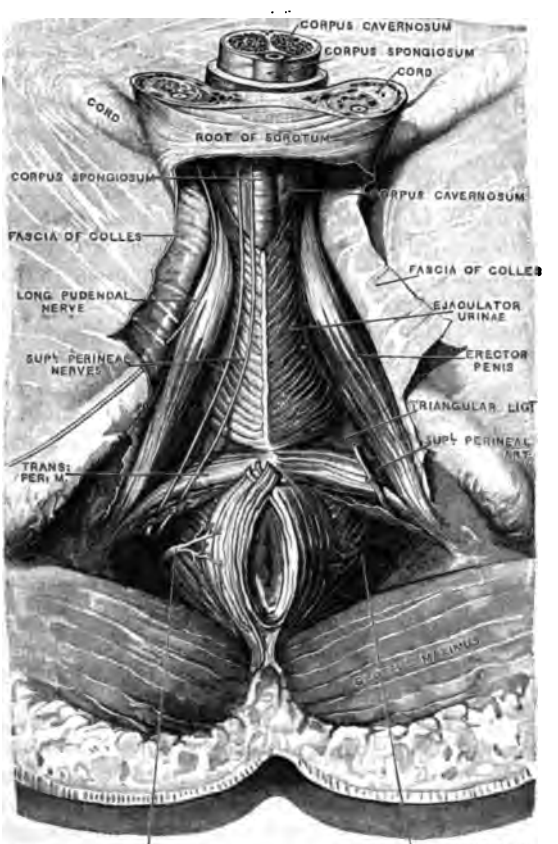


FIG. 918.—DISSECTION OF THE PERINEUM. The scrotum and the penis have been cut transversely across and removed (from Cunningham).

on to the scrotum, the penis, and spermatic cord, to become continuous w **fascia of Scarpa** upon the front of the abdomen.

When the urethra is ruptured below the anterior layer of the triangul ment, the course of infiltration of extravasated urine is determined by these ments; at first, therefore, the urine is confined within this compartme gradually travels forwards under the fascia of Colles on to the lower par anterior abdominal wall; it is prevented from passing down the front of tl by the attachment of Scarpa's fascia to the fascia lata, a little below P ligament.

The *deep compartment* of the urinogenital division of the perineum corres the interval between the triangular ligament proper and the parietal laye pelvic fascia (the so-called superior or deep layer of the triangular lig The most important structures which this compartment contains are the mem portion of the urethra, Cowper's glands, the internal pudic vessels, and th to the bulb.

The **membranous part** of the **urethra** lies one inch behind the lower borde pubic symphysis. When this division of the urethra is ruptured, the extra urine, after filling the deep compartment, may reach the superficial comp by bursting through the triangular ligament where the vessels pierce it; or penetrate the parietal layer of the pelvic fascia, infiltrate the perivesical con tissue and the space of Retzius, and ultimately ascend in the anterior abd wall between the fascia transversalis and the parietal peritoneum.

Cowper's glands, which lie immediately behind the membranous ureth overlapped by the bulb of the urethra, from which they are separated by angular ligament. The **internal pudic artery** lies just within the margin pubic arch. The **artery to the bulb** runs transversely inwards ¼ in. above t of the triangular ligament, *i.e.* above the level of a line drawn from the fron tuberosities to the central point of the perineum.

The **male urethra** measures about eight inches from the external to the i meatus; the narrowest portion is at the external meatus; a second nar occurs at the triangular ligament. It is behind these constrictions that a c is liable to become impacted. The *most dependent part* of the urethra bulbous portion, and it is in this situation that an organic stricture i frequently met with. The membranous portion of the urethra, situated b the two layers of the triangular ligament, is surrounded by the compressor u muscle, which, when thrown into spasm, may firmly grip an instrument a passed into the bladder. *Rupture of the urethra* from a fall on the pe generally involves the bulbous portion. A *false passage* made during the p of an instrument generally traverses the floor of the urethra at the triangul ment; to prevent this the point of the instrument should always be d upwards, and the handle at the same time depressed as soon as the instrumen to encounter the resistance of the triangular ligament. When the *prostate is trophied* the prostatic portion of the urethra is elongated, and the internal may look directly forwards, while if the lateral lobes are unequally enla may deviate laterally. Patients with prostatic hypertrophy are seldom a completely empty the bladder, on account of the dependent well which behind the prostate.

THE PROSTATE.

The operation of *prostatectomy* has in recent years proved so succes removing the urinary complications associated with enlargement of the p that a fresh impetus has been given to the study of the anatomy of the glan the surgical point of view. With the body erect the *base* of the prostate li horizontal plane at the level of the middle of the symphysis pubis, while it lies ½ in. behind and below the sub-pubic angle. It follows, therefore, th vesical orifice and the base of the prostate are within easy reach of the finger duced through a supra-pubic cystotomy incision. The *anterior surface* prostate lies about ¾ in. behind the pubes, to which it is connected by the prostatic ligaments. Above these ligaments is the *space of Retzius*, occup

retracted backwards. The dissection is now carried between the anterior borde levatores ani in a forward direction towards the prostate, so as to strike the lo vascular space which intervenes between the posterior part of the prostatic sheath thin fascia outside the muscular wall of the rectum. The posterior surfac prostate, covered by its true capsule, is reached by incising the sheath. The along with its true capsule and the urethra, may either be enucleated from th entire, or the true capsule may be incised as well as the sheath, and the ade masses removed separately. The operation is facilitated by pulling the prosta into the wound by a special retractor inserted into the bladder through a median into the floor of the membranous urethra.

The **epididymis**, which can be felt behind the testicle as an elongated body applied vertically to its posterior surface, is especially involved in gon and tubercular infections of the testicle. Occupying the posterior part spermatic cord is the **vas deferens**, which, when grasped between the fin thumb, feels like a piece of whip-cord. The **spermatic veins** form a plexu substance of the cord, known as the pampiniform plexus; a varicose cond these veins gives rise to the condition known as *varicocele*. In operat varicocele the veins are reached by dividing in succession all the covering cord; the deepest covering, viz. the infundibuliform fascia, derived from th transversalis, forms a well-marked fibrous envelope which immediately su the veins and other constituents of the cord. Besides the spermatic art testicle receives its blood supply from the artery accompanying the vas and from the cremasteric branch of the deep epigastric.

The marked swelling which attends *œdema and hæmatoma of the scrotum* to the loose and delicate character of the cellular tissue which occupies th between the dartos muscle and the subjacent membrane derived from the columnar fascia.

The **anus** is situated in the rectal division of the perineum about 1½ in. i of and below the tip of the coccyx. The skin around the orifice is pigment thrown into ra folds. The painfu crack or ulcer, kn *fissure of the anus*, ally occupies one furrows at the p margin of the anu skin of the anus vided with large ous and sweat which are occas the site of small ar painful anal absce

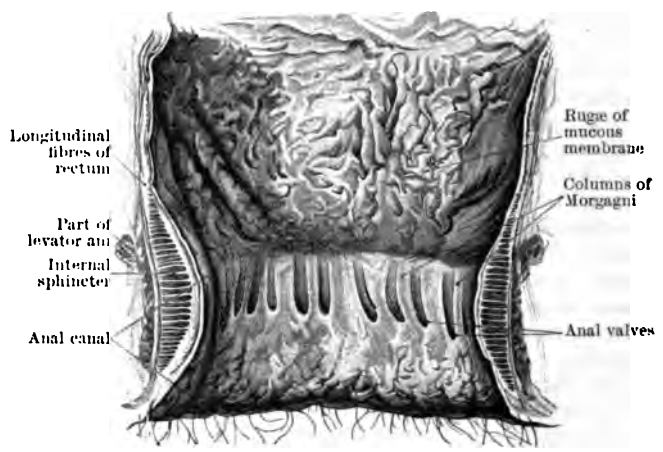


FIG. 919.—THE INTERIOR OF THE ANAL CANAL AND LOWER PART OF RECTUM.

Showing the columns of Morgagni and the anal valves between their lower ends. The columns were more numerous in this specimen than usual (from Birmingham).

On making a *examination* it w observed that the before it reache cavity of the r traverses the nar sphincteric portion rectum, appropr named by Syming **anal canal**. This canal, which is directed from below upwards and forwards, e from the anal orifice to the ampulla of the rectum, is about 1 in. in leng upper end is on a level with the inner borders of the pubo-rectal portions levatores ani.

External hæmorrhoids are developed from the anal folds situated outsi white line corresponding to the muco-cutaneous junction; *internal pil* developed from the veins of the mucosa at the upper part of the anal canal.

In the upper half of the anal canal are the **columns of Morgagni**. Accord

Ball, fissure of the anus is generally caused by the tearing downwards of one of the posterior **anal valves** (Fig. 705) during the passage of a scybalous mass.

According to Birmingham, the pubo-coccygeal fibres of the levator ani close the upper part of the anal canal, whilst the external sphincter closes the remaining part. The internal sphincter, according to the same author, acts probably as a detrusor, its use being to empty the anal canal completely after the passage of each fæcal mass.

The apex of the **ischio-rectal fossa** (Fig. 918), formed by the attachment of the anal fascia to the obturator portion of the parietal pelvic fascia, is directed upwards towards the pelvis, and lies 2½ in. from the surface. The inner wall of the fossa is bounded by the levator ani and coccygeal muscles covered by the anal fascia (Fig. 920); the outer wall by the obturator internus muscle covered by the obturator fascia. An *abscess in the ischio-rectal fossa* should be opened early, otherwise it is liable to burst through the inner wall into the rectum; should it open also upon the skin surface a complete "*fistula in ano*" is formed. When a "fistula in ano" results from the bursting of a submucous abscess of the anal canal the track of the fistula runs either internal to or through the fibres of the internal and external sphincter muscles, and the external or skin opening is, as a rule, close to the anus, while the internal opening is generally within the upper end of the anal canal. Occasionally the ischio-rectal abscess perforates the levator ani towards the apex of the fossa; it then burrows into the peri-rectal cellular tissue of the pelvis, and opens into the ampulla of the rectum. In other cases, again, the abscess starts in the peri-rectal tissue internal to the levator ani, and either bursts into the rectal ampulla or through the levator ani into the ischio-rectal fossa, and so reaches the surface. Or the pus may burrow between the rectum and coccyx, whence it may pass outwards through the great sacro-sciatic foramen behind the parietal pelvic fascia into the buttock; or, by piercing the visceral layer of the pelvic fascia, may reach the extra-peritoneal fatty tissue of the pelvis and ascend in it to form an iliac abscess.

The *lymphatics* from the skin of the anus pass along the perineo-crural folds to the innermost glands of the groin, both inguinal and crural. According to Poirier and Cunéo, those from the region of the white line end in the hypogastric glands which lie in front of the internal iliac artery, while those which issue from the mucous membrane of the upper part of the anal canal and the rectum proper traverse a few minute glands (ano-rectal glands of Gerota) placed between the muscular and fibrous coats of the rectum, alongside the main branches of the superior hæmorrhoidal artery. After traversing these glands they join the glands which lie in relation to the trunk of the superior hæmorrhoidal artery as it lies between the two layers of the pelvic mesocolon.

In making a *rectal examination* the finger should be carried forwards from the tip of the coccyx so as to enter the anus from behind. The finger is then gently pressed upwards and slightly forwards through the sphincteric region in the axis of the anal canal until it reaches the cavity of the rectum, the lower part of which is dilated to form the ampulla. The folds or valves of Houston, three in number, project into the cavity of the bowel in the form of prominent crescentic shelves, which are produced by the three permanent or true flexures into which the rectum is thrown (Birmingham); the lower valve, which may be sufficiently prominent to impede the passage of the finger, must not be mistaken for a pathological condition. Through the anterior wall the finger can palpate from below upwards the bulb of the urethra, the membranous parts of the urethra, Cowper's glands (when inflamed and enlarged), the apex and lateral lobes of the prostate, the vesiculæ seminales (when diseased), and the external trigone of the bladder. With the left forefinger in the rectum, an instrument passed into the bladder can be distinctly felt as it traverses the membranous urethra; as it lies in the prostatic urethra it is separated from the finger by the prostate. Hence, when a *false passage* is made through the bulbous or membranous portion of the urethra, the instrument, if pushed onwards towards the bladder, will be felt immediately outside the rectum between it and the prostate. In the child, owing to the rudimentary condition of the prostate, the instrument is distinctly felt close to the rectum, as it lies in the prostatic as well as in the membranous portion of the urethra. When the prostate is not enlarged the tip of the finger can just reach the external trigone, which is most distinctly felt when the bladder is full. The vesiculæ seminales, indistinctly felt when healthy, may be readily palpated when enlarged and indurated from disease. Through

the lateral wall of the rectum may be palpated the ischio-rectal fossa, the bony v true pelvis, and, when enlarged, the internal iliac lymphatic glands: through the wall the hollow of the sacrum and coccyx, and the lymphatic glands lying in rectal cellular tissue.

In the child rectal examination enables one to palpate, in addition to the str the cavity of the true pelvis, those which occupy the lower segment of the When the bladder is empty even a small calculus can be readily felt by recto- palpation.

The distance of the apex of the **recto-vesical pouch** of peritoneum from varies considerably, according to the degree of distension of the bladder and

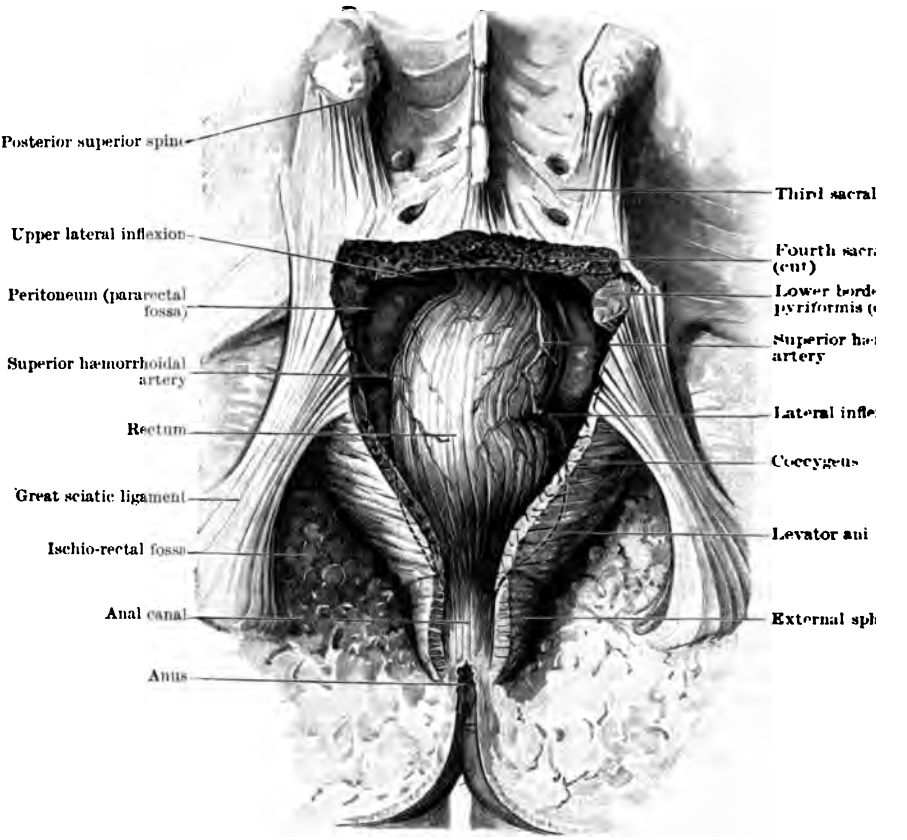


FIG. 920.—THE RECTUM FROM BEHIND.

The sacrum has been sawn across through the 4th sacral vertebra, and its lower part removed with t The posterior portions of the coccygei, levatores ani, and of the external sphincter have bee The 'pinching in" of the lower end of the rectum by the inner edges of the levatores ani, t the formation of the flattened anal canal, is suggested in the illustration, which has been m formalin-hardened male body, aged thirty. The lateral inflections of the rectum, corres Houston's valves, are also shown (from Birmingham).

when both are empty it reaches to about 2 in. from the anus; when both tended it is at least one inch higher (Fig. 920). As pointed out by Birmingl peritoneum is closely adherent to the rectum above and in front, while at and below the connexion is much looser, so that by stripping the per upwards the greater part, or even the whole, of the rectum may be excised opening into the peritoneal cavity.

FEMALE PELVIS.

The external genitals are fully described at page 1195. The external o the **urethra**, surrounded by a slight annular prominence of the mucous me is situated about 1 in. behind the clitoris, immediately above the centre of t

the vestibule—a smooth triangular area at the anterior part of the vulva, with its des formed by the labia minora and its base by the anterior margin of the ostium aginæ. In passing the *catheter* the instrument is directed along the forefinger ntroduced just within the ostium vaginæ with the palmar surface towards the mphysis pubis) to the base of the smooth vestibule, where it is tilted slightly pwards so as to bring its point opposite the meatus.

Bartholin's glands, about the size of a bean, are placed one on either side of ne posterior third of the orifice of the vagina, above the triangular ligament. heir ducts, nearly one inch in length, open posteriorly between the hymen and he posterior commissure (*fossa navicularis*). Abscesses and cysts not infrequently evelop in connexion with these glands. The **bulbs of the vagina** are two pyriform ollections of erectile tissue situated one upon each side of the vestibule, between he sphincter vaginæ and the anterior layer of the triangular ligament. Rupture f these bodies gives rise to the condition known as *pudendal hæmatocele.*

In making a *vaginal examination* the patient should be placed in the dorsal position, ith the thighs well flexed; the index-finger of the right hand is now carried along the old of the buttock towards the middle line, where it will impinge against the posterior spect of the **introitus vaginæ**, whence it is inserted upwards and backwards into the anal; to render the examination more thorough the middle finger may also be introuced. When the uterus is in its normal position the **vaginal portion of the cervix uteri** s felt as a knob-like body projecting downwards and backwards into the upper part of he canal. In nulliparæ the os uteri is a small transverse slit, whereas in women who ave borne children it is larger and more or less fissured. Above and behind the cervix s the **posterior fornix**, which is in close proximity to the **pouch of Douglas**; this pouch, hough normally empty, is the frequent site of displaced abdominal and pelvic organs, nd collections of intraperitoneal effusions and exudations. A loaded rectum can be letected through the vagina by the characteristic way in which the contents can be pitted by the finger. In front of the cervix is the shallow **anterior fornix**, through which may e felt the body of the uterus and the base of the bladder, while through the lower half f the anterior vaginal wall the **urethra** may be detected as a cylindrical, cord-like hickening which may be rolled against the lower border of the symphysis. The **ureter**, specially if enlarged, can be recognised through the antero-lateral fornix, by compressing t against the pubic bone.

By the *bimanual examination* the pelvic organs are steadied and pushed downwards owards the pelvic outlet by the pressure of the left hand applied in the hypogastric egion, so that they can be more readily reached and palpated by the finger placed in the agina with its palmar aspect directed upwards. The **ovary** may be felt as a firm body bout the size of the end of the thumb by pushing the fingers well up into the lateral ornix towards the lateral wall of the pelvis. In health the ovaries are freely movable. The healthy **Fallopian tubes** cannot, as a rule, be felt per vaginam.

The whole of the **interior** of the **bladder** in the female can be readily seen by reflecting ight into it through a speculum introduced into the empty bladder after dilating the rethra. The patient is placed in the genu-pectoral position, so that the bladder may ecome inflated with air, the coils of intestine being displaced upwards. In the distended ondition of the bladder the mucosa has a dull white appearance, except in the region of he trigone, which shows a pale pink injection; when the bladder is contracted the nucosa appears injected throughout. The **ureteral orifices**, placed about one inch apart nd connected by a slight transverse ridge (inter-ureteric fold), present the appearance f fine transverse slits situated upon small and somewhat injected elevations of the nucosa. Every minute or so a jet of urine will be seen to issue from the orifice. Having n this way located the ureteral opening, a catheter or bougie may be passed into it long the speculum.

By rectal examination the finger can palpate, from below upwards, the recto-vaginal eptum, the cervix uteri, the posterior fornix of the vagina, the apex of the pouch of Douglas, and the body of the uterus. By washing out the rectum and introducing a peculum into the bowel, with the patient in the genu-pectoral position, the rectum ecomes inflated with air; the finger can now feel very distinctly the posterior surface f the uterus and the Fallopian tubes, and by running the finger outwards along the proninent fold formed by the utero-ovarian ligament the ovary is also very distinctly felt.

On opening the abdomen by a mesial incision extending from the umbilicus to *he pubes, and* looking into the pelvis from above after displacing some coils of

the small intestine upwards, the **fundus** of the **uterus**, directed forwar
little upwards, is seen resting upon the postero-superior surface of the
Behind the uterus is the rectum, and between the two the **pouch of**
containing the pelvic colon and the lower part of the ileum. The **ova**
little below the level of the brim of the pelvis upon a triangular shelf, bo
front by the broad ligament, behind and internally by the utero-sacral
and behind and externally by the pelvic wall. When the vermiform
overhangs the brim of the pelvis its tip may come into close relation with
ovary, a condition which often leads to a difficulty in distinguishing a
mation of that ovary from appendicitis. The **round ligaments** are see
forwards and outwards from the anterior aspect of the cornua of the
the internal abdominal rings, which lie immediately in front and to the i
of the terminations of the external iliac arteries. Below and at the inn
the round ligament, as it leaves the pelvis, is the **deep epigastric artery**. B
the uterus upwards the attachments of the **broad ligament** to the floor a
walls of the pelvis are brought into evidence, as also are the utero-ve
recto-vaginal peritoneal pouches; the former is shallow, while the deepes
the latter covers the upper fourth of the posterior wall of the vagina, a
into relation, therefore, with the posterior fornix.

The **ureter** crosses the brim of the pelvis in front of the bifurcatio
common iliac artery 1½ in. external to and a little below the centre of t
promontory. The corresponding point on the anterior abdominal wall
junction of the outer and middle thirds of a line joining the anterior
spines of the ilium. After crossing the termination of the common ili
from without inwards the ureter curves downwards and forwards behind t
neum of the postero-lateral wall of the true pelvis; in front of it are the
tube and ovary. Before reaching the bladder it enters the parametric c
tissue, in which it curves downwards, forwards, and inwards about three-q
an inch external to the lateral aspect of the cervix uteri.

The **uterine artery** in the first part of its course runs downwards and
a little external to the ureter; at the level of the internal os it curves i
front of the ureter and then divides into uterine and vaginal branches.

In the operation of *hysterectomy* care must be taken not to injure the
is important, therefore, to keep in mind its relation more especially to th
artery and to the cervix uteri.

The **ovarian artery** enters the pelvis between the layers of that porti
broad ligament known as the **infundibulo-pelvic ligament**; it is here that
may be most readily ligatured in abdominal hysterectomy, and in ovarioto

THE BACK.

In the middle line of the back is the **spinal furrow**, which is deepe
lower dorsal and upper lumbar regions, where the erectores spinæ muscles
prominent. Over the upper sacral region, where the erectores spinæ mu
tendinous, is a flattened area forming an equilateral triangle, the angles
correspond respectively to the posterior superior spines of the two iliac bone
third sacral spine. The **vertebral spines** can be palpated at the bottom of t
furrow; they become more distinct when the spine is flexed, and, as poi
by Holden, they become mapped out by reddened areas when friction is
along the furrow. The identification and counting of the spines will be fa
if it be remembered that the first dorsal is more prominent than the
prominens (seventh cervical), that the third dorsal is on a level with th
the spine of the scapula, the seventh dorsal with its inferior angle, th
lumbar with the highest part of the iliac crest, and the second sacral
posterior superior iliac spine.

Above the spine of the scapula is the **suprascapular region**, which is pad
thick mass of muscle consisting of the supra-spinatus and levator anguli
covered by the upper part of the trapezius; the two latter muscles may b
into relief by shrugging the shoulders.

from the front. Between the upper end of the kidney and the eleventh and ribs is the diaphragm and the posterior costo-diaphragmatic reflection of the (Fig. 921). The relations of the pleura to the last rib have already been cor (p. 1238).

Posteriorly the course of the upper part of the **ureter** may be indicat line drawn vertically upwards from the posterior superior iliac spine to the the second lumbar spine; the deep guides are the tips of the transverse p of the second, third, and fourth lumbar vertebræ, covered by the psoas mus

A needle passed through the inner extremity of the eleventh intercost will transfix the **suprarenal body**.

The pus of a **perinephritic abscess** occupies the extraperitoneal fatty laye

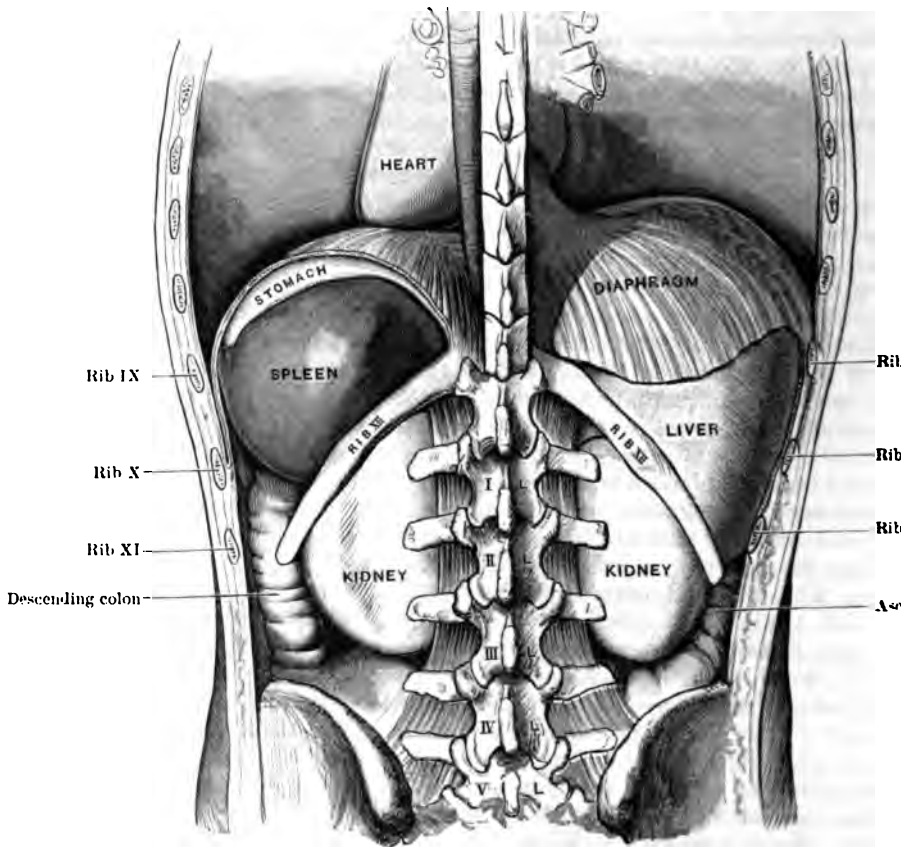


FIG. 921.—DISSECTION OF THE SPLEEN, LIVER, AND KIDNEYS FROM BEHIND, IN A SUBJECT HARDE FORMALIN-INJECTION (from Cunningham).

renal fat), and lies, therefore, within the fascial envelope of the abdomen; the a **psoas abscess**, on the other hand, lies external to the fascia. In opening a abscess from behind, a vertical incision is made in the angle formed by the border of the erector spinæ and the crest of the ilium; in the deeper part dissection the surgeon should keep close to the front of the transverse pro the fourth lumbar vertebra.

Diaphragm, Liver, Stomach, and Large Intestine.—Posteriorly the **arch of the diaphragm** and the right lobe of the liver extend upwards to the of the angle of the scapula (eighth rib), while the **left arch** and the fundus stomach lie one inch lower (eighth interspace); the central tendon reaches the eighth dorsal spine. The **right lobe of the liver** is covered posteriorly eighth to the twelfth ribs, and is overlapped by the base of the right lung as a line drawn horizontally outwards from the tenth dorsal spine; hence, poste

upwards to the level of the eighth dorsal spine, one inch below the angle o scapula. The **pyloric portion** crosses the mesial plane opposite the twelfth dorsa first lumbar spines, the **pylorus** itself being situated one inch to the right o twelfth dorsal spine. The **lesser curvature** lies to the left of and below the tent eleventh dorsal spines.

Viewed from behind, the **large intestine** on both sides overlaps the outer l of the kidneys and lies parallel to the outer border of the erectores spinæ mu The peritoneum is reflected from the colon on to the posterior abdominal wall a line drawn vertically upwards from the centre of the iliac crest. The **splenic fl**

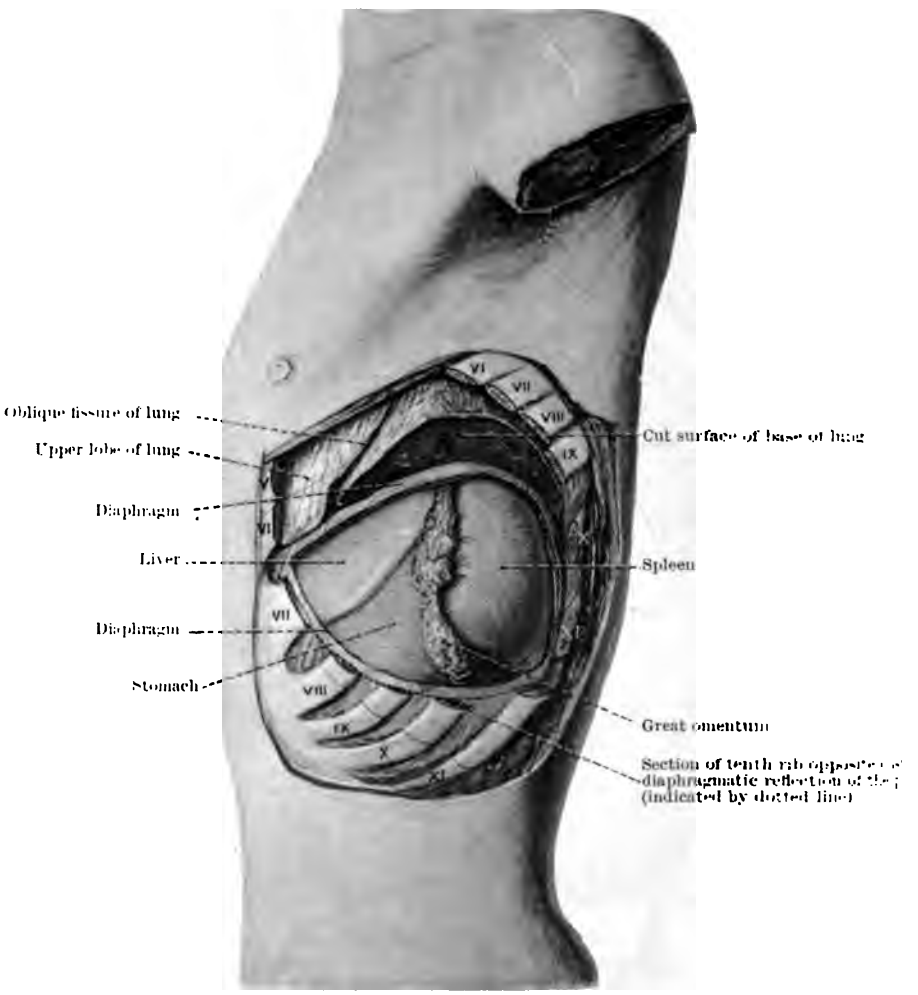


FIG. 923.—DISSECTION OF THE LEFT HYPOCHONDRIUM TO SHOW THE RELATIONS OF THE SPLEEN TO LATERAL WALL OF THE CHEST, THE DIAPHRAGM, AND THE ADJACENT VISCERA. In addition portions of ribs, there has been removed a part of the base of the left lung, and a window has been in the diaphragm almost down to the level of the costo-diaphragmatic reflection of the pleura.

which reaches up to the level of the twelfth dorsal spine and the tenth rib about five inches above the iliac crest. The **hepatic flexure** lies on a level wit first lumbar spine.

Spleen.—The *spleen*, situated in the left hypochondrium behind the cardia of the stomach, is overlapped by the ninth, tenth, and eleventh ribs, the long of the organ corresponding approximately to that of the tenth rib. Betwee upper third of the spleen and the chest wall (pleura and diaphragm interveni the base of the left lung, the lower margin of which crosses the organ horizo at the level of the tenth dorsal spine. The costo-diaphragmatic reflection o

, reaches down as far as the inferior angle of the spleen. The upper limit of rgan cannot therefore be defined by percussion; and unless enlarged, or ced downwards, the spleen cannot be punctured from behind without traversing eural as well as the peritoneal cavity.

the *three angles* of the spleen, the *posterior or vertebral* lies at the same level e lower margin of the lung, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. external to the tenth dorsal spine. The *or angle* lies opposite the eleventh intercostal space on a level with the first ar spine, in a line drawn vertically upwards from a point one inch behind the e of the iliac crest. This angle is situated behind the upper part of the ding colon immediately external to the middle of the outer border of the y. The *anterior angle* is at the level of the ninth interspace in the mid-ry line. Having placed a mark on the skin opposite these three angles the is mapped out on the surface as follows:—The *posterior or renal border* is ed by joining the posterior and inferior angles; this border, which gives the o the position of the spleen, will be found to follow the eleventh intercostal

The short *antero-inferior border* corresponds to a line joining the anterior he inferior angles; it is related to the splenic flexure of the colon, and may fore be termed the *colic border:* Commencing at the vertical angle, the so- *anterior border* is at first arched upwards, the summit of the arch reaching e level of the upper border of the ninth rib in the scapular line; thence it is nued downwards and forwards across the posterior axillary line as the rior crenated border" to the anterior angle. The upper arched portion lies lel to and about one inch below the highest part of the fundus of the stomach. nly parts of the splenic outline which can be defined by percussion are the crenated part of the anterior border, the anterior angle, and the short postero-or or colic border; and it is these parts which may be felt below the costal in when the organ is considerably enlarged.

n excising the spleen it is important to remember that the splenic vessels lie en the two layers of the lieno-renal ligament, and not in the gastro-splenic tum, which contains the vasa brevia. In a floating spleen these two peritoneal ents are elongated to form a distinct pedicle.

ancreas.—The head of the **pancreas** lies opposite the last dorsal and first ar spines; the tail lies at the same level as the splenic flexures of the colon, a above the inferior basal angle of the spleen.

ABLE INDICATING THE LEVEL OF THE MORE IMPORTANT STRUCTURES IN RELATION TO THE SPINES OF THE VERTEBRÆ.

es of Vertebræ.	Origins of Spinal Nerves.	Level of other Structures.
Cervical .	2 Cervical .	Soft palate.
„ .	3 and 4 „ .	Isthmus of fauces.
„ .	5 „ .	Upper part of epiglottis.
„ .	6 „ .	Vocal cords.
„ .	7 „ .	Crico-thyroid membrane.
„ .	8 „ .	Arch of thoracic duct. Commencement of trachea and œsophagus.
	1 and 2 Dorsal .	Lower end of cervical enlargement of cord. Inferior cervical ganglion. Apices of lung.
Dorsal . .	3 „ .	Summit of arch of subclavian artery.
Dorsal . .	4 Dorsal .	Upper angle of scapula. Just above level of highest part of arch of aorta. Episternal notch.
„ . .	5 and 6 „ .	Root of spine of scapula. Arch of vena azygos major. Highest part of lower lobes of lungs. Termination of transverse portion of arch of aorta. Bifurcation of trachea. Lower limit of superior mediastinum. Angulus Ludovici.

TABLE INDICATING THE LEVEL OF THE MORE IMPORTANT STRUCTURES IN RELATION TO THE SPINES OF THE VERTEBRÆ—*Continued.*

Spines of Vertebræ.	Origins of Spinal Nerves.	Level of other Structures.
4 Dorsal	6 Dorsal	Commencement of descending thora aorta. Bronchi. Upper limit of heart.
5 „	8 „	Centre of root of lung. Mitral orifice.
6 „	9 „	Tricuspid orifice.
7 „	10 „	Lower angle of scapula. Orifice of inferior vena cava. Right arch of diaphragm.
8 „	11 „	Lowest limit of heart. Left arch of diaphragm. Fundus of stomach. Xiphi-sternal articulation.
9 „	12 Dorsal and 1 Lumbar	Upper limit of spleen.
10 „	2 Lumbar	Cardiac orifice of stomach. Upper end of lumbar enlargement. Lower border of lung, posteriorly. Vertebral angle of spleen (apex of splee Upper end of left kidney. Lesser curvature of stomach.
11 „	3 and 4 „	Lower limit of pleura at vertebral colu Upper end of right kidney. Suprarenal capsule. Body of pancreas. Lesser curvature of stomach.
12 „	1, 2, 3 Sacral	Level at which pleura crosses twelfth ri Lower end of spleen. Splenic flexure of colon. Upper part of head of pancreas. Pylorus and pyloric portion of stomach.
1 Lumbar	4 and 5 „	Conus medullaris. Lower limit of pleura (mid-axillary line Hili of kidneys. Head of pancreas. Hepatic flexure of colon. Portal vein. Second part of duodenum. Greater curvature of stomach. Common bile duct.
2 „		Commencement of ureters. Lowest part of head of pancreas.
3 „		Lower limit of cord in child. Lower ends of kidneys. Third part of duodenum.
4 „		Highest part of crest of ilium. Bifurcation of aorta. Umbilicus.
5 „		Common iliac arteries. Ileo-cæcal valve.
1 Sacral		Sacral promontory.
2 „		Lower end of subdural space.
3 „		Upper end of gluteal cleft. Lower limit of sub-arachnoid and su dural spaces.

Spinal Cord.—The spinal cord ends opposite the lower border of the lumbar spine; in the infant it reaches to the interval between the second third lumbar spines. The *cervical enlargement* which corresponds to the lower cervical and the first two dorsal segments ends opposite the seventh cervical s The *lumbar enlargement* lies opposite the last three dorsal spines. The five lu segments are opposite the ninth, tenth, and eleventh dorsal spines, while th

fractured as the result of force transmitted through it to the trunk. placement of the outer fragment varies according to whether the break tak internal or external to the coraco-clavicular ligament; in the former case th of the upper extremity, acting through the coraco-clavicular ligament, p outer fragment downwards; when the fracture is external to the ligament, t end of the clavicle rotates forwards, but there is no downward displacemei **outer end** of the **clavicle** is on a plane posterior to its inner end, so that the is braced backwards away from the thorax; hence in fractures of the clavi inside and outside the coraco-clavicular ligament, the point of the shoulde forwards and inwards. The **acromio-clavicular articulation** is somewhat di feel: the groove which corresponds to it runs in the sagittal direction, 1¼ in. internal to the outer border of the acromion, and immediately exte slight prominence upon the outer extremity of the clavicle. When this dislocated the clavicle almost invariably overrides the acromion, and the of the shoulder presents a somewhat conical or "sugar-loaf" appearance.

The **tip** of the **acromion** looks directly forwards, and lies a finger's external to and a little in front of the outer extremity of the clavicle. T **border** of the **acromion** can readily be followed to its junction with the spin scapula, and the latter to its root, which is situated on a level with the thi spine. The **inner border** of the **acromion** and the posterior border of the o of the clavicle meet at an angle into which the point of the finger can be The **upper angle** of the **scapula**, covered by the trapezius and the supra muscles, is too deeply placed to be palpated distinctly. The **inferior an** the **internal border**, from the root of the spine downwards, form visible pror which are readily felt; the former overlies the seventh intercostal space on with the seventh dorsal spine, while the latter lies a little internal to the a the ribs.

To elicit crepitus in a transverse fracture of the scapula below the spine, the stands behind the patient and grasps the upper fragment by placing the forefin the coracoid and the thumb upon the spine, while with the other hand he gr inferior angle; the two fragments are then moved the one upon the other.

The **tip** of the **coracoid process** may be felt by pressing the finger firmly u anterior border of the deltoid at a point one inch below the junction of the and outer thirds of the clavicle. Internal to the coracoid is a triangular sion which corresponds to the upper end of the interval between the cl fibres of the pectoralis major and deltoid muscles. Behind this triangular sion are the termination of the cephalic vein, a lymphatic gland, the first the axillary vessels, and the cords of the brachial plexus. By firm pressure situation the pulsation of the **axillary artery** can be felt, and by further the circulation in the vessel can be arrested by compressing the artery aga second rib. The *first part* of the axillary artery may be cut down upon ei a transverse incision through the clavicular origin of the pectoralis major, longitudinal incision in the interval between this muscular slip and the The **companion vein** lies in front of, as well as to the thoracic side of, the thus adding to the difficulty of exposing the vessel. In fractures of the third of the clavicle the subclavian vessels are protected by the soft pad for the subclavius muscle.

The **upper end** of the **humerus** covered by the deltoid gives rotundity shoulder. The **greater tuberosity** projects beyond the acromion, and constit most external bony landmark of the shoulder. When the head of the bon located, the outer border of the acromion then becomes the most extern landmark, and the shoulder presents a square contour. The **lesser tuberosit** but conical, can be felt through the deltoid. Pointing directly forwards, it inch external to and a little below the level of the tip of the coracoid proc examining the upper end of the humerus for fracture, the tuberosities sh grasped between the finger and thumb of one hand, while the flexed e rotated with the other hand. The **head** of the **humerus** has the same dire the internal condyle; its lower part can be palpated through the axilla, t

being meanwhile abducted, to bring the head in contact with the under surface of the capsule. It is through this, the weakest part of the capsule, that the head is driven in the common varieties of dislocation of the shoulder, viz. those due to forcible abduction. The **upper epiphysis** of the humerus includes the head and the greater part of the tuberosities. The capsule is mainly attached to the epiphysis; hence, in children, we find that separation of the upper epiphysis takes the place of dislocation. Disease in the upper end of the diaphysis does not necessarily involve the cavity of the joint. The **bicipital groove** of the humerus, which lies immediately external to the lesser tuberosity, may be mapped out upon the surface by drawing a line, two inches in length, downwards along the axis of the humerus from the tip of the acromion. When there is *effusion into the joint*, the arm becomes slightly abducted, and there is fulness in front, along the line of the long tendon of the biceps. With the elbow at the side the inferior part of the capsule of the shoulder-joint is loose and folded upon itself to form a dependent pocket; if, after an injury, the arm be retained too long in this position, the patient may be unable to abduct the arm in consequence of the formation of adhesions in and around the pouch. To evacuate pus from the shoulder-joint, the integuments, deltoid, and capsule should be cut into by an incision passing vertically downwards from the tip of the acromion.

THE AXILLA.

The **anterior fold** of the **axilla**, formed by the lower border of the pectoralis major, extends from the fifth rib to the middle of the anterior border of the deltoid. With the arm abducted, the interval between the sternal and clavicular fibres of the pectoralis major is indicated by a slight groove extending downwards and outwards from the inner end of the clavicle. The sternal fibres, along with the pectoralis minor, are removed in a complete operation for malignant disease of the breast, the pectoral branches of the thoracic axis artery being secured as they cross the interval between the sternal and clavicular portions of the greater pectoral. The **posterior fold** of the **axilla**, formed by the latissimus dorsi and the teres major muscles, is on a lower level than the anterior fold, and leaves the chest a little in front of the inferior angle of the scapula. Between the two folds, and running in the long axis of the limb, from the axilla to the middle of the upper arm, is the prominence of the **coraco-brachialis muscle**. The pulsations of the **third part of the axillary artery** may be felt in the furrow immediately behind this prominence at the junction of the anterior and middle thirds of the outer wall of the axilla.

Female Mamma.—The breast tissue proper is arranged to form a central portion, the *corpus mammæ*, and a peripheral portion, made up of branching processes which radiate into the paramammary fat and become continuous ultimately with the connective tissue septa of the subcutaneous fatty tissue. The mamma, therefore, has no distinct capsule. In the young adult nullipara, the corpus mammæ is compact and well defined, and contains but little intramammary fat, while the peripheral processes are relatively small. In multipara, the corpus mammæ contains more fat, and the peripheral processes extend more widely into the paramammary fat.

The arrangement and extent of the parenchyma can be well seen by treating the breast with a *5 per cent solution of nitric acid*. If slices of the fresh organ be placed in this solution for a few minutes and then washed under running water, the albumen of the epithelial cells of the parenchyma is coagulated, while the connective tissue is rendered translucent and somewhat gelatinous. The *ultimate lobules* of the *parenchyma* now appear as little (1 to 2 mm.), dull, opaque, white, sago-like bodies, arranged in grape-like clusters around the finer branches of the ducts.

The parenchyma is prolonged into the peripheral processes, into the suspensory ligaments of Cooper, and into the loose retromammary cellular tissue and pectoral fascia. The breast tissue, therefore, has a much wider distribution than was formerly supposed. Vertically, it extends from the second rib to the sixth costal cartilage at the angle where it begins to ascend towards the sternum; horizontally, from a little within the lateral border of the sternum, opposite the fourth rib, to the fifth rib in the midaxillary line. The *inner hemisphere* of the mamma rests

almost entirely on the pectoralis major; at its lowest part it slightly ove upper part of the aponeurosis covering the rectus abdominis muscle. Th *quadrant* of the *outer hemisphere* rests upon the greater pectoral, on the the lesser pectoral, and to a slight extent on the serratus magnus, upo it extends upwards into the axilla ("axillary tail" of Spence) as high as t rib, where it comes into relation with the thoracic group of axillary ly glands. The *remainder of the outer hemisphere* rests almost entirely u serratus magnus, except the lowest part, which overlaps the digitation external oblique arising from the fifth and sixth ribs. It follows, therefo *fully one-third of the whole mamma lies inferior and external to the border of the pectoralis major muscle.* The surgeon must cut beyond th limits if he wishes to remove the whole of the mammary tissue.

The axillary fascia resists the spontaneous rupture of an axillary abscess therefore, tends to spread upwards beneath the pectorals, and towards the ro neck. To open the abscess the incision should be made upon the inner wall, and parallel to, the long thoracic artery, which runs under cover of the anter

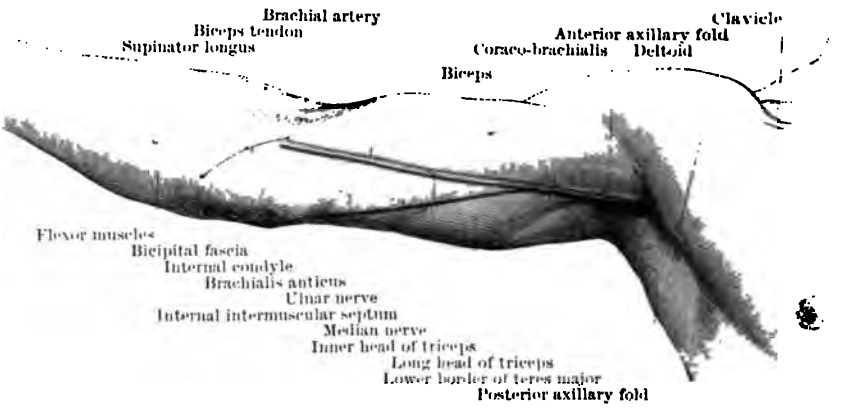


FIG. 924.—AXILLA, INNER ASPECT OF UPPER ARM AND ELBOW.

The **axillary lymphatic glands** vary greatly in size and number; many are n than a pin's head. In the female some of them undergo an adipose functional tion, whereby they come to resemble fat lobules. In health one or two glands can be felt by thrusting the fingers upwards and inwards beneath the anterior fold, t being only slightly abducted, so as not to stretch the axillary fascia. The *centra* (Leaf), embedded in the fat immediately beneath the axillary fascia, become infl poisoned wounds of the upper extremity. The same group, along with the *pector* (related to the inner wall of the axilla, at the lower border of the pectoralis mi usually the first to become diseased in malignant affections of the breast. W disease is more advanced the *posterior* (subscapular) and the *apical* (subclavicular) are generally affected as well; and Rotter has shown that in a considerable porti cases diseased glands are to be found in the *retro-pectoral fascia, i.e.* between the p major and minor and above the latter muscle on the first intercostal space in rel the small superior thoracic artery. In operating for malignant disease of the br surgeon removes, in addition to the whole breast and the greater part of the skin both pectoral muscles (with the exception of the clavicular fibres of the pectoralis all the axillary lymphatic glands, and, as far as possible, all the fat and fascia, inclu sheath of the axillary vein. It must be remembered that the lower part of the vein lies immediately underneath the deep fascia of the outer wall of the axilla; i ing the inner wall the long thoracic nerve must not be injured; and in remov posterior group of lymphatic glands the long subscapular nerve, which accompa subscapular vessels, must be avoided, as it is doubly important to retain the actio latissimus dorsi after removing the pectorals. The writer has so frequently m disease in these retro-pectoral glands, that he is convinced of the necessity of re the pectoral muscles.

THE UPPER ARM.

The anterior and posterior borders of the **deltoid** may be traced from the shoulder girdle to the insertion of that muscle. The surface relations of the anterior border have already been referred to; the posterior border forms a well-marked and important landmark as it crosses the angle between the axillary border of the scapula and the upper part of the shaft of the humerus. By making an incision along this part of the posterior border of the deltoid, and retracting the edge of the muscle upwards and outwards, we expose the **surgical neck** of the **humerus**, the quadrilateral opening in the posterior wall of the axilla transmitting the posterior **circumflex artery** and the **circumflex nerve**; a little lower down is the musculo-spiral nerve. The **coraco-brachialis**, the guide to the upper half of the brachial artery, forms a prominence occupying the upper half of the *internal bicipital furrow.* Traced downwards the internal bicipital furrow widens out into an elongated triangle. This triangle, which may be termed the *internal supracondyloid triangle*, becomes continuous below with the inner part of the triangle in front of the bend of the elbow, and is limited posteriorly by the internal intermuscular septum, which may be felt as a cord-like band extending upwards from the internal condyle; the

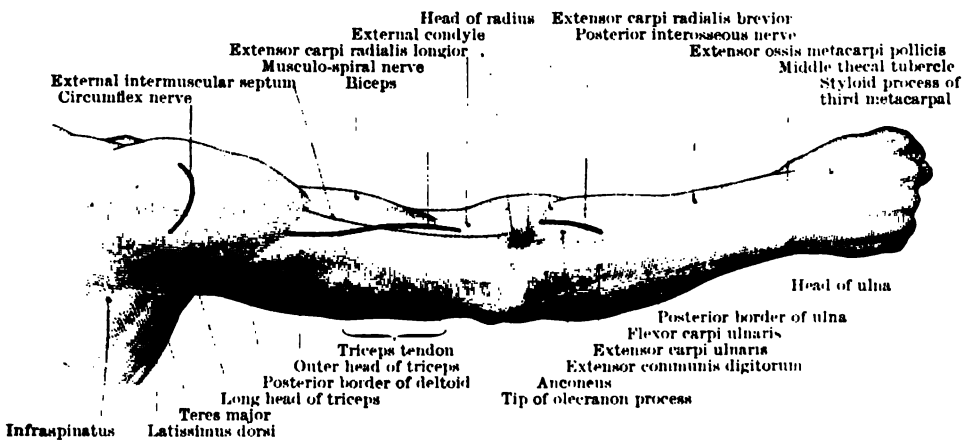


FIG. 925.—EXTENSOR ASPECT OF UPPER LIMB.

floor of the space is formed by the inner part of the brachialis anticus. Within the triangle are the following important structures, enumerated from without inwards, viz.: the **brachial artery**, the **median nerve**, the **lower part of the basilic vein**, the **internal cutaneous nerve** and the **supracondyloid lymphatic glands**, two or three in number. Extending upwards from the external condyle to the insertion of the deltoid is the external intermuscular septum, which is pierced at the junction of its upper and middle thirds by the **musculo-spiral nerve**. Between the external intermuscular septum and the outer edge of the biceps is the ill-defined *external bicipital furrow*, the floor of which is formed by a strip of the brachialis anticus, and, nearer the elbow, by the supinator longus and extensor carpi radialis longior.

The posterior compartment of the upper arm is occupied by the **triceps**, the *long head* of which can be traced upwards to the axillary border of the scapula in front of the posterior border of the deltoid and behind the posterior fold of the axilla. The *outer head* of the triceps, after emerging from under cover of the lower part of the posterior border of the deltoid, is continued obliquely down the outer aspect of the upper arm as a well-marked muscular elevation. Above the olecranon is the strap-like tendon of insertion of the triceps, which, when the elbow is fully flexed, forms an admirable posterior splint in supracondyloid fractures of the humerus.

The **brachial artery**, slightly overlapped in the upper half of the arm by the coraco-brachialis and in the lower half by the biceps, can be felt pulsating throughout the whole length of the anterior part of the internal bicipital furrow. The

course of the vessel may be mapped out upon the surface by drawing a l the inner border of the coraco-brachialis, at the level of the posterior fol axilla, downwards to a point (opposite the neck of the radius) ½ in. b middle of the bend of the elbow. In ligaturing the vessel, the edge coraco-brachialis and biceps muscles, together with the median nerve, furni able guides to the artery, the mobility of which is often a source of tr performing the operation.

The **basilic vein**, which is superficial to the deep fascia in the lower thi upper arm, is visible in the internal supracondyloid triangle and the lowe the internal bicipital groove. The **cephalic vein** ascends a little interna outer edge of the triceps to reach the interval between the deltoid and p major.

The surface guide for the **median nerve** is the same as that for the artery. The **ulnar nerve** is indicated superficially by a line extending f outer wall of the axilla immediately behind the prominence of the coraco-b to the back of the internal condyle; in the upper half of the arm the n close behind the brachial artery under cover of the basilic vein, while in th half it lies a little behind the internal intermuscular septum, partially e in the fibres of the inner head of the triceps. To map out the course of the **spiral nerve**, first mark the point where it pierces the external intern septum, viz. the junction of the upper and middle thirds of a line extendi the insertion of the deltoid to the external condyle: from this point dra obliquely downwards and forwards to the front of the external condyle, wh nerve divides into its radial and posterior interosseous branches. To map nerve as it lies in the musculo-spiral groove, draw a line from the sam obliquely upwards across the prominence formed by the outer head of the tr the junction of the posterior fold of the axilla with the upper arm. In frac the humerus in the neighbourhood of the insertion of the deltoid, the nerve infrequently lacerated, or so involved in the callus as to produce the c known as "*drop-wrist*," the result of paralysis of the extensor muscles forearm. To cut down upon the nerve, commence the incision a little be point where it pierces the external intermuscular septum, and carry it ob upwards and slightly backwards through the outer head of the triceps.

The **shaft** of the **humerus**, nowhere subcutaneous, is most readily mani in the region of the insertion of the deltoid, upwards along the outer head triceps, and downwards behind the external supracondyloid ridge. The **neck**, situated between the tuberosities and the attachments of the muscles i into the region of the bicipital groove, is related to the outer wall of the axi is on a level with the junction of the upper and middle thirds of the delt the same level are the circumflex vessels and nerves.

The shaft may be cut down upon with least injury to soft parts: (1) in i *third, anteriorly*, by an incision extending downwards through the anterior fibre deltoid, parallel, and a little external, to the bicipital groove; the sheath of th will thus be avoided, and the small anterior circumflex artery will be the onl divided. (2) In the *upper third, posteriorly*, by an incision through the posteri of the deltoid, the bone being reached just external to the origin of the outer hea triceps, thus avoiding the musculo-spiral nerve; the circumflex vessels and nerve exposed at the upper part of the wound. (3) In the *lower third*, by an incision e upwards from the back of the external condyle a little to the inner side of the intermuscular septum.

THE ELBOW.

In injuries about the elbow the diagnosis rests mainly upon the positions of the bony points, which are, therefore, of great importance **epicondylar processes** of the humerus are both subcutaneous and upon th level, the internal being the more prominent. In the extended position elbow the tip of the **olecranon** is on a level with a line joining the epico when the forearm is flexed the olecranon descends, and when full fle

reached it lies 1 in. below the condyles, and in a plane anterior to the posterior surface of the lower end of the humerus. The **head** of the **radius**, which lies nearly 1 in. below the external epicondyle, is best manipulated from behind by placing the thumb upon it, while the semi-flexed forearm is being alternately pronated and supinated. Upon the outer part of the posterior aspect of the extended elbow is a distinct dimple, which overlies the **radio-humeral articulation**; this dimple, along with the hollows on either side of the olecranon, becomes effaced in synovial thickenings and effusions into the joint. The **coronoid process** is situated too deeply to be distinctly felt. The **lower epiphysis** of the humerus includes the articular portion of the lower extremity and the external condyle; it is, therefore, small and almost entirely intra-articular, so that foci of disease in its neighbourhood soon invade the cavity of the joint. The internal epicondyle ossifies as a

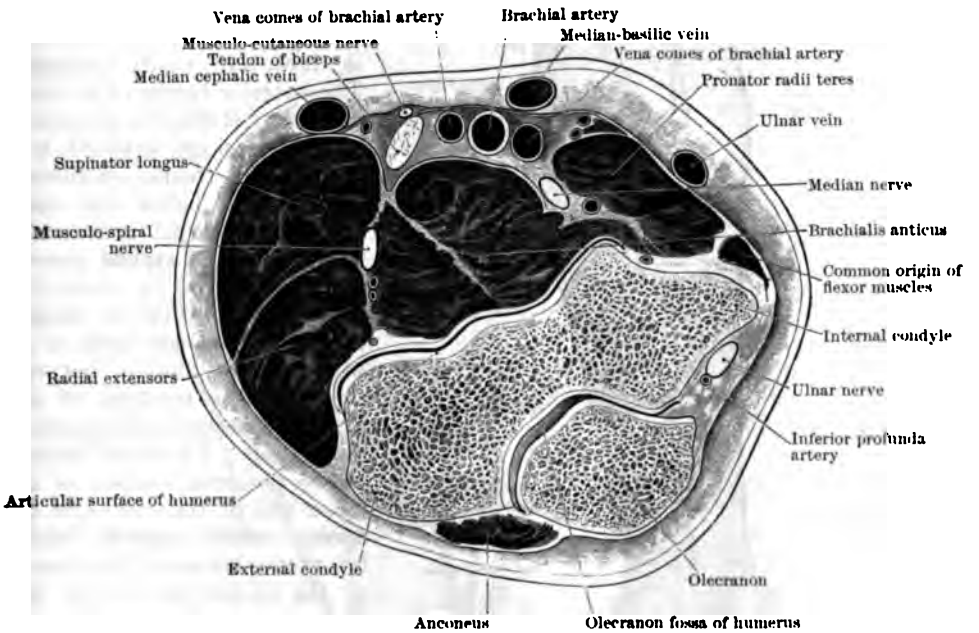


FIG. 926.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE BEND OF THE ELBOW.

separate epiphysis which unites with the lower end of the diaphysis. In interpreting skiagrams of the elbow of children about six years of age and upwards, care must be taken not to mistake the centre of ossification in the radial portion of the lower epiphysis of the humerus for a fracture. In the commonest dislocation of the elbow, viz. with backward displacement of both bones of the forearm, the normal relative position of the bony points is lost, whereas in a transverse supra-condyloid fracture the normal relations are maintained. In the child the head of the radius is relatively smaller, and less firmly kept in position by the orbicular ligament than in the adult, so that it is liable to be partially dislocated, giving rise to the condition known as "*pulled elbow*." To evacuate pus from the elbow-joint a vertical incision should be made over the dorsal aspect of the joint, immediately external to the olecranon.

The **median vein** is seen to bifurcate into median basilic and median cephalic ½ in. below the middle of the bend of the elbow; opposite the same point, but beneath the deep fascia, is the **bifurcation** of the **brachial artery**. The **median basilic** and **median cephalic** veins diverge as they ascend one on either side of the biceps tendon; the larger of the two veins, viz. the median basilic, is usually selected for the operations of venesection and transfusion. When the elbow is flexed the **biceps tendon** can be traced vertically through the centre of the bend of the elbow almost to its insertion. Passing downwards and inwards from the inner edge of the tendon is the **bicipital fascia**, which separates the median basilic vein from the brachial artery. If the finger nail be insinuated beneath the inner edge of the fascia the point of th

finger will rest upon, and feel the pulsations of, the **brachial artery**. The **nerve** descends through the space a little internal to the brachial arter bifurcation of the **musculo-spiral nerve** takes place in front of the external under cover of the supinator longus. The **ulnar nerve** can be rolled bene finger upon the back of the internal condyle; its position renders it liable t in severe fractures ab elbow, and in excising t care must be taken not t the nerve.

FIG. 927.– BEND OF ELBOW, FRONT OF FOREARM, AND PALM OF HAND.

THE FOREARM AND

The upper half of th is deeply placed; the lo is, however, easily p The anterior border of i extremity is felt as a pr transverse ridge, situate above the thenar em immediately below the is the **radio-carpal artic** The **tip** of the **styloid** situated nearly ½ in. low that of the ulna, is placed at the outer side wrist, in the hollow b the extensor tendons first and second phalan the thumb. Upon the of the posterior surface lower end of the radius **dorsal radial tubercle** intervenes between the ex of the second phalanx thumb and the short extensor of the wrist tubercle can be distinctl and may be taken as a to the upper end of I dorso-radial incision for ex of the wrist. The p border of the ulna is cutaneous throughout, an be felt along the interv tween the flexor and ex carpi ulnaris muscles. the ulnar side of the aspect of the wrist is a marked rounded prom formed by the **lower ext** of the **ulna**, anterior to which is the **styloid process**, the deep groove betwe two being occupied by the tendon of the extensor carpi ulnaris.

The **carpal bones** are built up so as to form an arch, converted by the a **annular ligament** into a tunnel for the transmission of the flexor tendons. A extremity of the arch the two bony points to which the ligament is at furnish important landmarks. These bony points are: *externally*, the tubercle scaphoid and the ridge of the trapezium; *internally*, the pisiform and the h the uneiform. The **tubercle** of the **scaphoid** is felt immediately above the r the thenar eminence, midway between the tendons of the **extensor ossis met**

pollicis and the flexor carpi radialis; ½ in. below the tubercle of the scaphoid is **the ridge** of the **trapezium**, felt deeply beneath the inner part of the thenar **eminence**. At the root of the hypothenar eminence, and crossed by the crease **which** separates the forearm from the hand, is the **pisiform bone**, above which is the **tendon** of the flexor carpi ulnaris, passing to be inserted into it. The **hook** of the **unciform** is felt deeply beneath the radial side of the hypothenar eminence, and a **full** finger's breadth below and external to the pisiform.

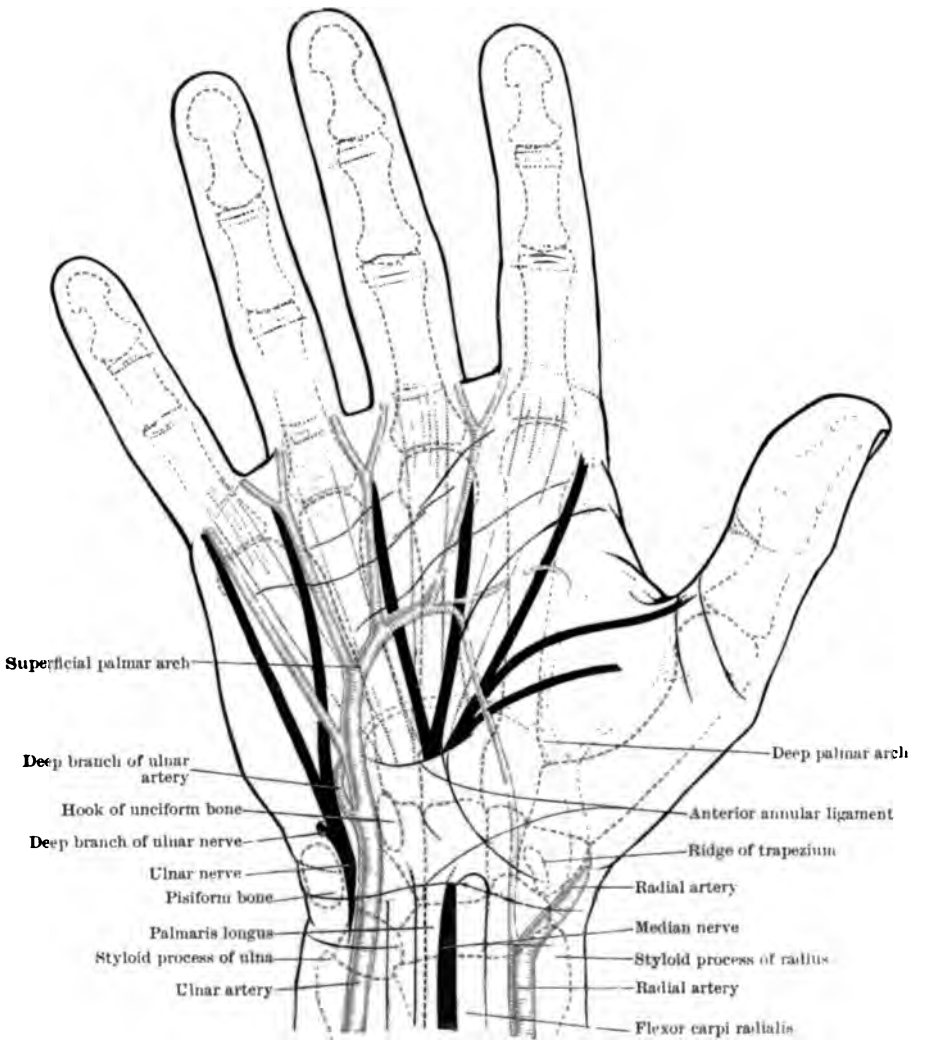


FIG. 928.—PALM OF HAND.

The bases of the **first**, **third**, and **fifth metacarpals**, all of which can be readily identified on the dorsal aspect, furnish a sufficient guide to the line of the carpo-metacarpal articulations. At the base of the **third metacarpal** is a tubercle, which can be felt projecting from its dorsal aspect at a point 1¾ in. vertically below the tubercle upon the back of the lower end of the radius. This metacarpal tubercle marks the insertion of the extensor carpi radialis brevior, the favourite site for the development of a "*ganglion*," which may frequently be ruptured by pressing it firmly against the tubercle. Anteriorly, the carpo-metacarpal articulations correspond to the lower border of the anterior annular ligament.

The *prominences* of the *knuckles* are formed entirely by the heads of the metacarpal bones. Anteriorly, the **metacarpo-phalangeal articulations** are situated ¾ in. above the level of the web of the fingers; posteriorly, the joints may be felt

the substance of the supinator brevis, will be found at the bottom of this septum, 2 in. below the head of the radius; below this point the septum is the best line along which to cut down upon the posterior surface of the radius. Winding across the lower third of this surface is an oblique prominence caused by the extensors of the metacarpal bone and first phalanx of the thumb.

The flexor sheaths of the palm and of the digits are of surgical importance in consequence of their liability to suppurative inflammation. The **common flexor sheath** begins 1½ in. above the annular ligament, under which it extends to a little below the middle of the palm. The **digital flexor sheaths** extend from the bases of the terminal phalanges to the level of the distal transverse crease of the palm, opposite the necks of the metacarpal bones, *with the exception of the sheath of the little finger*, which is continuous with the common flexor sheath of the palm. The **sheath of the flexor longus pollicis** extends from the base of the terminal phalanx upwards to a point about 1 in. above the annular ligament; it frequently communicates with the common flexor sheath. From this anatomical arrangement it follows that suppuration in the sheaths of the little finger and thumb is specially liable to spread upwards into the palm, and thence underneath the annular ligament into the forearm.

The pulsations of the **radial artery** can readily be felt in the lower third of the forearm, midway between the outer border of the radius and the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis. The course of the vessel is indicated upon the surface by a line extending from the bifurcation of the brachial (½ in. below the middle of the bend of the elbow) to the tubercle of the scaphoid, around which, and below the tip of the styloid process, the artery winds to the back of the radial side of the wrist; in the latter situation the vessel, after passing beneath the extensor tendons of the thumb, dips into the palm through the proximal extremity of the first interosseous space. Incisions for opening or resecting the wrist are planned so as to avoid the vessel.

The upper third of the **ulnar artery** is deeply placed, and takes a curved course from the bifurcation of the brachial towards the inner part of the anterior surface of the forearm; the lower two-thirds of the vessel correspond to the lower two-thirds of a line drawn from the front of the internal condyle to the inner border of the pisiform bone. The course of the **ulnar nerve** corresponds to the whole of the above line.

The **median nerve** in the forearm may be mapped out by a line extending from a point midway between the centre of the bend of the elbow and the internal epicondyle, to a point midway between the styloid processes; in the lower third of the forearm the line follows the inner border of the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis. To evacuate pus spreading deeply up the front of the forearm, the incisions should be made on either side of the line corresponding to the median nerve. The **radial nerve** winds to the back of the forearm round the outer border of the radius beneath the tendon of the supinator longus, at the junction of the middle and lower thirds of the forearm. The summit, or most distal part of the **superficial palmar arch**, corresponds to the mid-point of a line extending from the middle of the lowest transverse crease of the wrist to the root of the middle finger; a line drawn from the outer border of the pisiform bone across the hook of the unciform, and thence in a curved direction downwards and outwards to this point, corresponds to the main or proximal part of the arch; the first and fourth digital branches overlie the fifth and third metacarpal bones respectively, while the second and third overlie the fourth and third interspaces respectively. The **deep arch** lies almost transversely, midway between the lower border of the anterior annular ligament and the superficial arch. The **radialis indicis** corresponds to the radial border of the index-finger.

The **ulnar nerve** and the commencement of its two divisions lie immediately to the inner side of the superficial palmar arch, so that the pisiform and the hook of the unciform are the guides to the nerve. The **median nerve** emerges from beneath the annular ligament opposite the inner edge of the thenar eminence, while the digital branches to the thumb follow its lower margin. Incisions for the removal of foreign bodies may therefore be made into the thenar with greater freedom than into the hypo-thenar eminence.

Incisions to evacuate deep-seated pus in the palm may be made in one or n the following situations: (1) over the lower two-thirds of the second metacarpal bon over the distal half of the fourth metacarpal bone; (3) from the proximal part of th incision an opening may be made through the first interosseous space on to the d care being taken to keep below the radial artery; (4) a longitudinal incision betwe median and ulnar nerves, on the proximal side of the superficial palmar arch. wrist a longitudinal incision may be made immediately internal to the palmaris tendon, thus falling between the line of the median nerve and the ulnar artery. T the **digital flexor sheaths**, incisions are made along the middle of the palmar surface fingers opposite the first and second phalanges. The **collateral digital vessels** and descend along the lateral aspects of the fingers, nearer the flexor than the ex surfaces. In cutting down upon the dorsal aspects of the phalanges, the incisions be made to one or other side of the extensor tendon, preferably upon the ulnar side, to division of the insertions of lumbrical muscles. The subcutaneous tissue of the p aspect of the terminal phalanges is connected by fibrous processes with the perios hence the frequency of necrosis of the terminal phalanx in suppurative inflamm in this region.

THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

THE BUTTOCK.

The region of the hip or buttock extends from the crest of the ilium abo the gluteal fold below. The highest point of the **iliac crest**, situated a little b its middle, is on a level with the fourth lumbar spine; the **anterior superior** of the **ilium** is directed forwards, and belongs to the groin, which it limits e nally; the **posterior superior spine**, situated at the bottom of a dimple or depression, is on a level with the second sacral spine, and corresponds, therefo the middle of the **sacro-iliac joint**. Two and a half inches behind the an superior spine is a prominence upon the outer lip of the iliac crest; this minence, which is termed the **tubercular point**, is the most external part of the and have been referred to in dealing with the surface anatomy of the abdo A hand's breadth below the tubercle of the crest is the **great trochanter** o femur, the most external bony landmark of the hip; its anterior and post borders are best felt between the fingers and thumb, while the limb is sli abducted to relax the ilio-tibial band, and if the thigh be now rotated, it wi noted that the trochanter rotates around the segment of a circle, the radi which is formed by the head and neck of the femur; in non-impacted fractu the neck of the femur the trochanter rotates around the segment of a smaller circle. *Nelaton's line*, drawn from the anterior superior spine to the prominent part of the ischial tuberosity, crosses the hip at the level of the u border of the great trochanter; this line is employed to ascertain the pres or absence of upward displacement of the trochanter. Chiene demonstrates relative height of the trochanters by stretching two tapes across the fro the pelvis, one between the anterior superior spines, and the other between upper borders of the trochanters; the lower tape will converge towards the u on the side of the upward displacement. A line prolonging the anterior bord the great trochanter vertically upwards touches the iliac crest at the tuber point. The **ischial tuberosity**, in the erect posture, is overlapped by the l border of the gluteus maximus; its most prominent part is felt a little abov inner part of the gluteal fold. If the hip be rotated inwards, the **lesser troch** of the femur may be felt by deep palpation above the outer end of the gl fold; it corresponds to the interval between the lower border of the quadr femoris and the upper border of the adductor magnus, and therefore, also, t level of the internal circumflex artery.

The **lower border** of the **gluteus maximus** lies a little above the **gluteal fold** i nally, crosses it about its middle, and is continued downwards and outwar meet the upper end of the furrow of the external intermuscular septum, at junction of the upper and middle thirds of the femur. The inner borders o two great gluteal muscles are separated by the deep **gluteal cleft**, which ex upwards and backwards from the perineum to the level of the fourth sacral s

here it opens out into the triangle upon the back of the sacrum. Anteriorly the ıttock is limited by the prominence of the **tensor fasciæ femoris muscle**, which :tends downwards and somewhat backwards from the anterior end of the crest, to in the ilio-tibial band below the root of the great trochanter.

The **gluteal artery** reaches the buttock immediately below the upper border of ıe great sacro-sciatic foramen, opposite a point corresponding to the junction of .e upper and middle thirds of a line drawn from the posterior superior iliac spine the upper border of the great trochanter. To expose the vessel, the incision ıould be made along this line, which has the advantage of running parallel to the ɔres of the gluteus maximus, as well as parallel to the interval between the .uteus medius and pyriformis muscles.

The **great sciatic nerve** enters the buttock at a point corresponding to the junc-ɔn of the upper and middle thirds of a line drawn from the posterior superior iac spine to the ischial tuberosity; from this point the nerve passes downwards ıd slightly outwards upon the ischium to a point midway between its tuberosity ıd the great trochanter. The **spine of the ischium** and the **pudic vessels** are tuated opposite the junction of the lower and middle thirds of the above line. The ɜssels and nerves which enter the buttock through the great sacro-sciatic foramen *low the pyriformis*, may be exposed through an incision below and parallel to ıat above described for exposing the gluteal artery, viz. an incision corresponding the middle two-fourths of a line extending from the upper end of the gluteal eft to the root of the great trochanter; the deep landmarks are the lower border the pyriformis and the root of the ischial spine.

THE BACK OF THE THIGH.

The **hamstring muscles**, and especially the tendon of the biceps and semi-

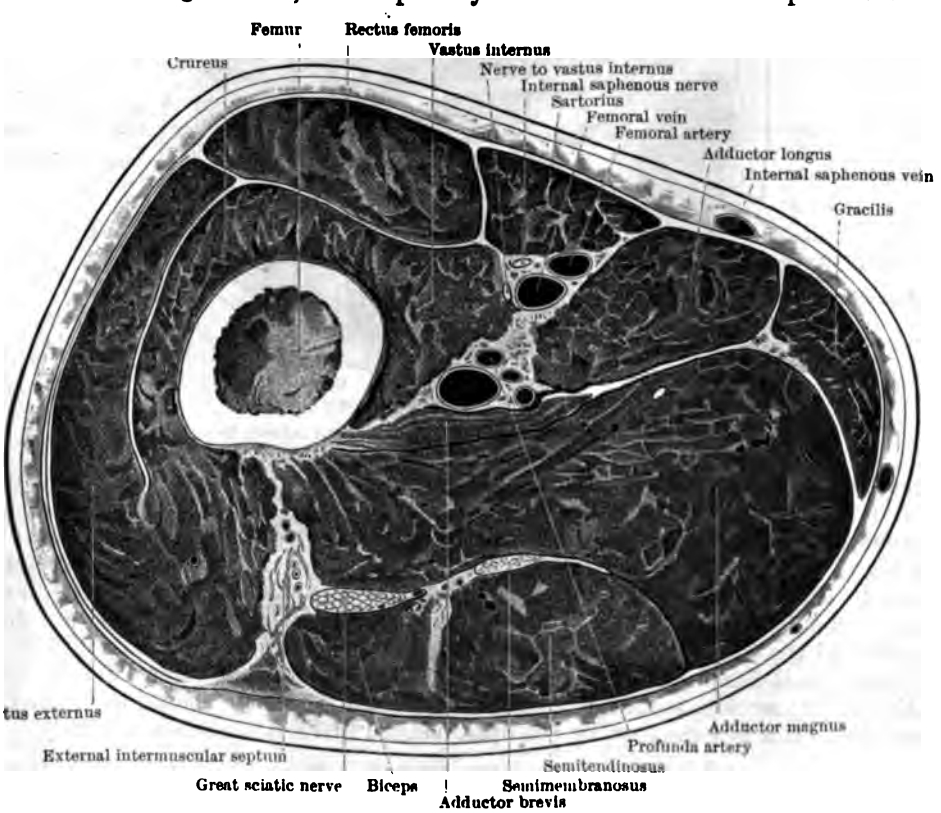


FIG. 930.—SECTION THROUGH THIGH AT THE LEVEL OF THE UPPER PART OF HUNTER'S CANAL.

ıdinosus are thrown into prominence either by standing on tiptoes with the

knees slightly flexed, or by flexing the leg against resistance. By throwi hamstrings into action, the line of the **external intermuscular septum** of the t indicated by a well-marked furrow, extending from the lower edge of the in of the gluteus maximus to the outer aspect of the knee; behind this furrow **biceps**, and in front of it is the large **vastus externus**, covered by the stro tibial portion of the fascia lata. The **shaft of the femur** may be cut dow along the whole length of this furrow with least injury to the soft parts: the t of the femur and deep-seated popliteal abscesses are most conveniently r through the lower part of the same incision. The course of the **great sciatic** corresponds to the upper half of a line extending from a point midway b the tuberosity of the ischium and the great trochanter to the centre of the po space. The nerve enters the thigh under cover of the outer border of the whereas the **small sciatic**, which takes the same line, descends superficial

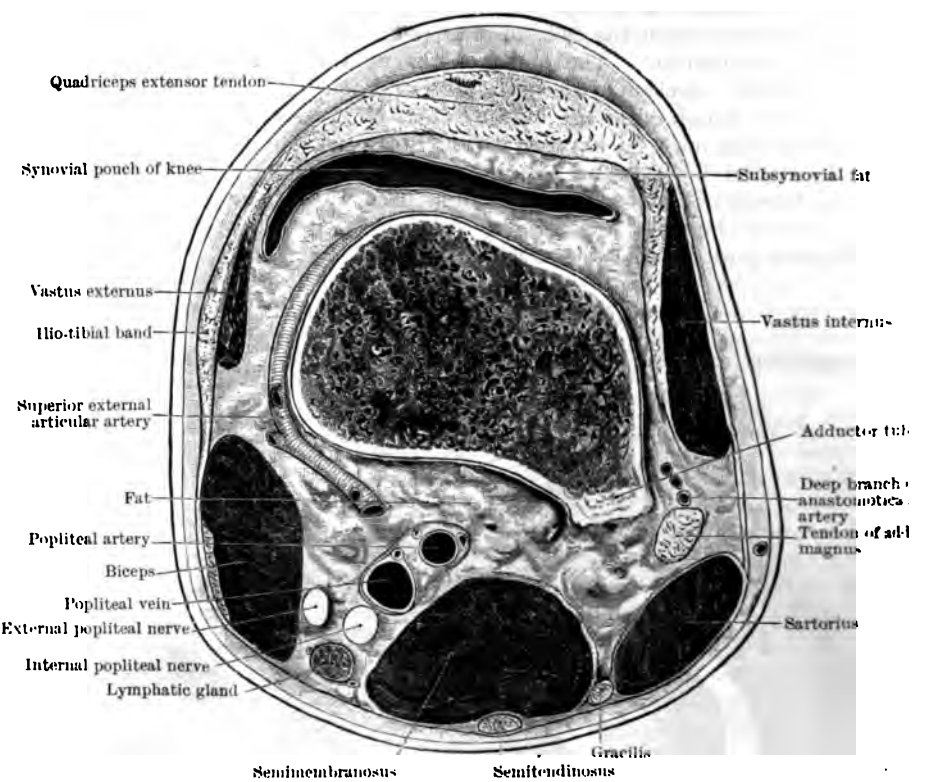


FIG. 931.—SECTION THROUGH THE THIGH IMMEDIATELY ABOVE THE PATELLA.

biceps, between it and the fascia lata. In the operation of stretching the sciatic the nerve is cut down upon immediately below the lower border of gluteus maximus. The surgeon, standing on the side of the patient opposi the leg to be operated upon (Chiene), makes an incision in the line of the n through the integuments and fascia lata, and, sweeping the index-fi round the outer border of the biceps, hooks up the nerve as it lies between muscle and the adductor magnus. The **external popliteal nerve** may be rolled u the finger as it descends immediately behind the tendon of the biceps and the of the fibula; so close is the nerve to the tendon that the latter should be divide cases where this is necessary, by the open method rather than subcutaneously.

Abscesses may reach the flexor compartment of the thigh from various sources, viz.: (1) the posterior aspect of the hip-joint: (2) from the pelvis through the great sacro-sciatic fora (3) from one or other of the bursæ under the gluteus maximus; (4) from the front of the hip- by passing backwards under the tensor fasciæ femoris; or by winding backwards beneath the of the femur, and through the interval between the quadratus femoris and the adductor mag (5) from the iliac fossa under Poupart's ligament into Scarpa's triangle, and thence to the ba

the thigh by one or other of the routes already mentioned; (6) the pus may spread upwards from the trigone of the femur, the knee, a popliteal gland, or from a bursa.

THE POPLITEAL SPACE.

When the knee is extended the **popliteal fascia** is put upon the stretch, and obliterates the hollow of the popliteal space; by flexing the knee the fascia is relaxed, and the fingers may be pressed deeply into the upper or femoral division of the space; as a rule, the pulsations of the popliteal artery can be felt. Beneath the **semitendinosus** is the fleshy **semimembranosus**, which bulges into the space and overlaps the upper part of the popliteal artery. Between the semimembranosus and the inner head of the gastrocnemius is the most important **bursa** in the popliteal region; it not infrequently becomes distended with fluid, and then presents usually

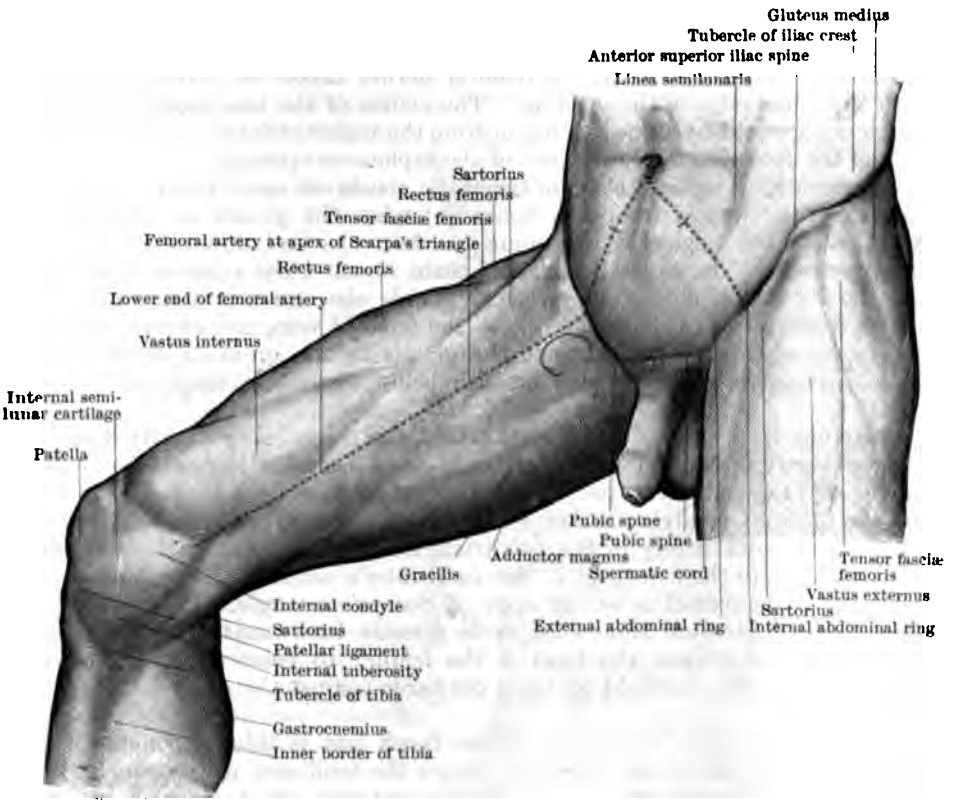


FIG. 932.—THE THIGH AND GROIN.

a more or less sausage-shaped outline; according to Holden, the bursa communicates with the cavity of the knee-joint in one subject out of five.

To map out the line of the **popliteal vessels** and the **internal popliteal nerve**, draw a line from a point a little internal to the upper angle of the space to a point midway between the condyles of the femur, and thence down the middle of the space to the level of the lower part of the tubercle of the tibia. The internal popliteal nerve lies immediately beneath the deep fascia; the artery is separated from the trigone of the femur by a quantity of fat. The popliteal **lymphatic glands** lie beneath the popliteal fascia, one upon the internal popliteal nerve, the others deeply in the space (Leaf).

THE FRONT OF THE THIGH.

Between the front of the thigh and the abdomen is the *fold of the groin*, at the bottom of which **Poupart's ligament** can be felt as a tense band, stretching from the anterior superior spine of the ilium to the spine of the pubis. The **anterior superi-**

spine looks directly forwards; comparative measurements of the lower ex
are made by stretching a tape from it to the tip of one or other of the mall
being taken that the pelvis is horizontal, and the limbs in corresponding
The **pubic spine** is felt under the upper and outer part of the mons Vener
a corresponding point in the male; between the spine and the symphys
crest of the pubis, the two crests together forming a rounded subcutane
ridge. A line extending from the pubic spine horizontally outwards across
of the thigh crosses the front of the hip-joint at the level of the lower part of
of the femur. The cord-like **tendon** of the **adductor longus** is readily fe
point about 1 in. below the pubic spine is selected for performing the
of subcutaneous tenotomy of the tendon.

The centre of the **saphenous opening** is situated 1½ in. below and
to the pubic spine; it overlies the inner (hernial) and middle (venou
partments of the femoral sheath; behind the outer border of the openin
arterial compartment of the sheath; crossing over the lower border is the
tion of the long saphenous vein. A femoral hernia makes its way into t
beneath the upper edge of the opening. The course of the **long saphenous**
the thigh is indicated by a line extending from the adductor tubercle of the
condyle of the femur to the lower part of the saphenous opening.

The **horizontal** or **inguinal chain** of **lymphatic glands** can usually be felt al
a little below, the line of Poupart's ligament; when the glands are infla
surgeon should not neglect to examine the buttocks and anus as well
external genitals. The **vertical** or **femoral chain** lies in close relation to t
end of the long saphenous vein. Deeper glands also are met with ben
cribriform fascia, close to the inner side of the femoral vein, and there is g
one in the crural canal. To clear out the glands in the groin an incisio
be made parallel to, and a finger's breadth below, the whole length of
ligament.

To map out the course of the **femoral artery**, the thigh being slightly fle
rotated outwards, draw a line from the mid-point between the anterior
iliac spine and the symphysis pubis to the adductor tubercle at the upper a
part of the internal condyle; rather less than the upper third of this li
sponds to the femoral artery in Scarpa's triangle, while rather more than it
third corresponds to the artery as it lies in Hunter's canal. The seat of
for ligature of the vessel is at the apex of Scarpa's triangle. To comp
common femoral, pressure should be made directly backwards against th
eminence, and not against the head of the femur; to compress the fe
Hunter's canal, pressure should be made outwards against the inner surfac
shaft of the femur.

On the outer aspect of the thigh the **fascia lata** is thick, aponeuro
loosely attached to the vastus externus; hence the tendency of abscesses t
downwards beneath it towards the knee. The **sartorius**, which forms the
portant muscular landmark of the thigh, may be thrown into prominence b
taining the thigh unsupported, flexed, and slightly rotated outwards. Obse
in the upper third of the thigh it forms the outer boundary of Scarpa's trian
the middle third it is placed over Hunter's canal; while in the lower
lies in front of the inner hamstrings. External and adjacent to the upper
the sartorius is the prominence of the **tensor fasciæ femoris**, which, as it d
diverges from the sartorius; in the angle between the two the tendon of th
may be felt as it overlies the lower part of the anterior aspect of the capsul
hip-joint.

The inner aspect of the lower half of the **shaft of the femur** may be conveniently
upon through the vastus internus, where it comes to the surface between the sartorius a
muscles; the incision should be made in the direction of a line extending from a point
between the inner border of the patella and the adductor tubercle, to the anterior supe
spine.

The front of the **hip-joint** may be reached through an incision downwards from th
superior iliac spine, either along the inner or the outer border of the sartorius; in th
case the deeper part of the dissection passes between the iliacus and the inner border of t
while in the latter case the joint is reached external to the rectus tendon, between it

sudden or violent contraction, as in preventing oneself from falling backwar patella may be transversely fractured at the moment of partial flexion. I flexion almost the whole of the trochlear surface of the condyles is expo palpation, covered, however, by the stretched quadriceps tendon.

The upper part of the inner surface of the internal condyle is overlapped muscular prominence of the lower fibres of the **vastus internus**. Leading u from the internal condyle is a slight furrow, corresponding to the interval b the lower part of the vastus internus and the sartorius; at the bottom of the the cord-like **tendon of the adductor magnus** may readily be felt, and followed to its insertion into the **adductor tubercle**; the latter, situated at the junction internal supracondyloid ridge with the upper and back part of the internal co marks the level of the **epiphysial cartilage**. Anteriorly and posteriorly th physial cartilage lies immediately above the highest part of the articular cart

Disease of the lower end of the diaphysis of the femur generally invades the trigone femur and the popliteal space rather than the cavity of the knee-joint. In *Macewen's op for knock-knee*, the incision (through which the osteotome is introduced to divide the fe carried down to the bone through the vastus internus a little above the internal condyle, a breadth above the summit of the trochlea, to avoid injury to the epiphysial cartilage, a same distance in front of the adductor tendon, to avoid injury to the deep branch of the motic artery.

Below the internal condyle is the subcutaneous **inner tuberosity of the** across which the tendons of the sartorius, gracilis, and semitendinosus pass to insertion. Between the above tendons and the inner head of the gastrocnem a groove which winds downwards and forwards from the popliteal space: an in along this groove will expose the **long saphenous vein** and **nerve** and the supe branch of the anastomotic artery.

On the outer side of the knee is the **ilio-tibial band**, which, after crossin obscuring the line of the joint, is attached to the **outer tuberosity of the tibia** semiflexion of the knee the posterior border of the band is thrown into relief, well-marked furrow intervenes between it and the prominent tendon of the b the lower part of the shaft of the femur and the trigone may be reached th an incision along this furrow. Under cover of the ilio-tibial band, as it cross line of the joint, are the **external semilunar cartilage**, the **inferior external ar artery**, and the **external lateral ligament**. The **head of the fibula**, with the ten **the biceps** passing to be inserted into it, are rendered distinctly visible by flexing the knee: the former lies on a level with the tubercle of the tibia, behind and a little below the most prominent part of the outer tube of the tibia. Immediately below the head of the fibula is the termination **external popliteal nerve**, which is liable to be contused from blows, ar fractures of the neck of the fibula.

The **synovial membrane** of the knee-joint extends downwards anteriorly as far level of the upper border of the tibia; posteriorly, it dips downwards for a short di behind the popliteal notch of the tibia, to form a small cul-de-sac, the close relati which to the popliteal artery must be borne in mind in performing the operati excision of the knee. Anteriorly, the synovial cavity extends upwards beneath the q ceps in the form of a pouch, which reaches nearly two inches above the articular s of the femur; posteriorly, there is no extension of the synovial cavity upwards abo condyles; laterally, the synovial membrane covers the anterior third of the outer s of each condyle.

In **effusion into the knee-joint** the hollows become obliterated, the patella is floated u fluctuation may be obtained above, below, and to either side of the patella.

To pass a tube through the knee-joint for drainage, two short vertical incisions s be made—one on each side of the joint at the level of the upper part of the patell a finger's breadth behind its lateral edges. In **arthrectomy** of the knee for tubercular disea subsynovial fat facilitates the separation of the suprapatellar pouch from the lower and a part of the shaft of the femur; to expose the **pouches behind the condyles**, the crucial liga must be divided.

THE LEG.

The inner surface of the **tibia** is subcutaneous throughout, hence the seat fracture of the shaft is, as a rule, easily felt, and the lower extremity of the t

fragment is liable to perforate the skin. The skin over the lower half of this surface is the commonest seat of varicose and callous ulcers, which are frequently prevented from healing by adhesion of the floor of the ulcer to the periosteum.

The **shaft of the fibula**, situated on a plane posterior to that of the tibia, is, with the exception of the triangular subcutaneous surface above the external malleolus, deeply placed amongst the muscles. To examine the fibula, the surgeon should stand on the opposite side of the patient and manipulate the bone along the line of the intermuscular septum between the peronei and the muscles of the calf.

The greater fulness of the antero-external surface of the leg, as compared with its inner surface, is due to the presence of the **extensor and peroneal groups of muscles**. When these groups are thrown into action, the individual muscles are mapped out upon the surface by the grooves corresponding to their intermuscular septa. The **posterior peroneal septum** is seen as a well-marked furrow, extending from the posterior aspect of the head of the fibula to the hollow behind the external malleolus; in front of it are the **peronei muscles**, the *longus* giving rise to a prominence on the upper half of the leg, while the *brevis* is prominent on the lower half; behind the septum is a prominence formed by the outer border of the **soleus**, which projects beyond that of the **gastrocnemius**.

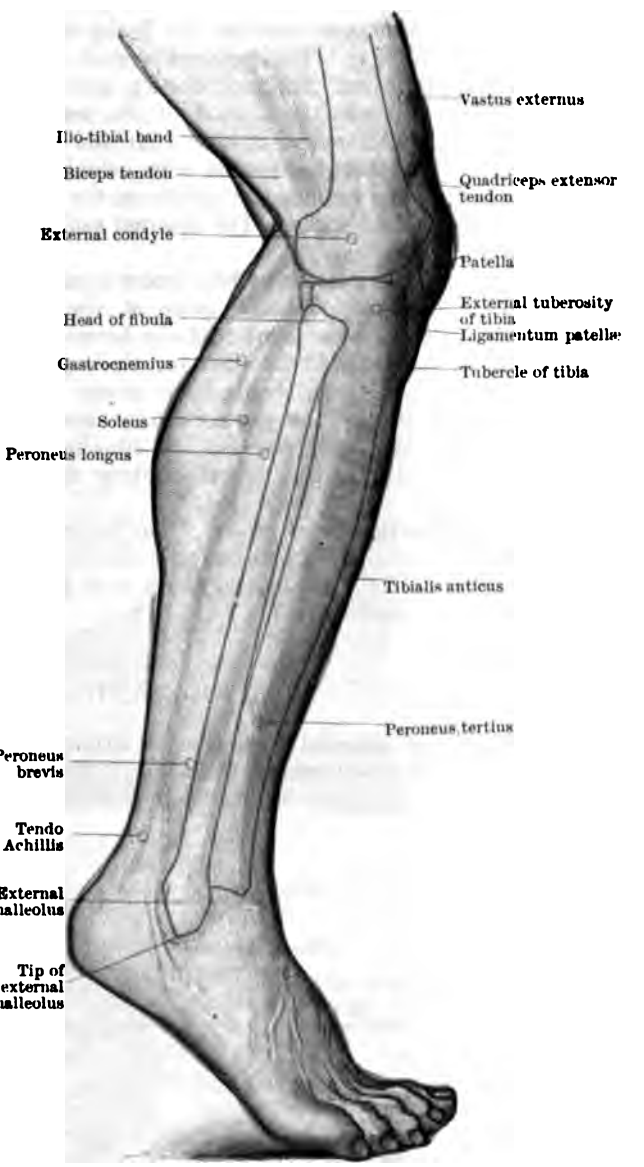


FIG. 934.—OUTER ASPECT OF KNEE AND LEG.

It is along the line of the posterior peroneal intermuscular septum that incisions should be made to expose the fibula; to avoid the musculo-cutaneous nerve, however, the incision must not extend higher than 1 in. below the head of the fibula.

The furrow between the extensors and the two peronei, the **anterior peroneal septum**, is much less distinct, and runs in a line from the anterior border of the head of the fibula to the anterior border of the external malleolus; the **cutaneous portion of the musculo-cutaneous** nerve corresponds to the lower half of this line. At the junction of the middle and lower thirds of the leg the extensor muscles incline inwards over the anterior surface of the tibia.

The **anterior tibial artery** reaches the front of the interosseous membrane 2 in. below the tubercle of the tibia; in the upper two-thirds of its course it lies upon the

interosseous membrane, while in its lower third it winds on to the front of th to terminate at a point opposite the ankle-joint, midway between the two m *Incisions to expose the vessel* should strike the outer border of the tibialis a which corresponds to a line drawn from a point midway between the e tuberosity of the tibia and the head of the fibula, to the termination of the

When the muscles of the calf are thrown into action, a groove is seen b the two heads of the **gastrocnemius**, the fleshy fibres of which extend a little the middle of the leg. The fleshy fibres of the **soleus** extend to the ju of the middle and lower thirds of the leg, and project beyond the margins gastrocnemius. The narrowest part of the **tendo Achillis** is situated oppos bases of the malleoli, and it is here that the tendon is divided in the op of tenotomy. The **short saphenous vein**, which lies a little to the outer the tendon, gradually reaches the middle of the calf, along which it ascends middle of the popliteal space. The **internal saphenous vein** and **nerve** lie alo inner border of the tibia.

The course of the **posterior tibial artery** is mapped out by drawing a lin the lower angle of the popliteal space, at the level of the lower border tubercle of the tibia, to a point midway between the internal malleolus an tendo Achillis. *To expose the vessel* in the upper half of the leg, an inci made parallel to and ½ in. behind the inner border of the tibia: after re ing the inner border of the gastrocnemius and dividing the tibial origin soleus, the artery is found lying on the tibialis posticus. In exposing the below the soleus, divide two layers of deep fascia and keep the knife di towards the tibia.

The **peroneal artery** is given off 3 in. below the head of the fibula; inc to expose the vessel are made in the direction of a line extending fro posterior border of the head of the fibula to a point midway between the ex malleolus and the tendo Achillis.

THE FOOT AND ANKLE.

The tip of the **external malleolus** is situated ¼ in. lower and ¾ in. fu back than that of the **internal malleolus**. Above the external malleolus i

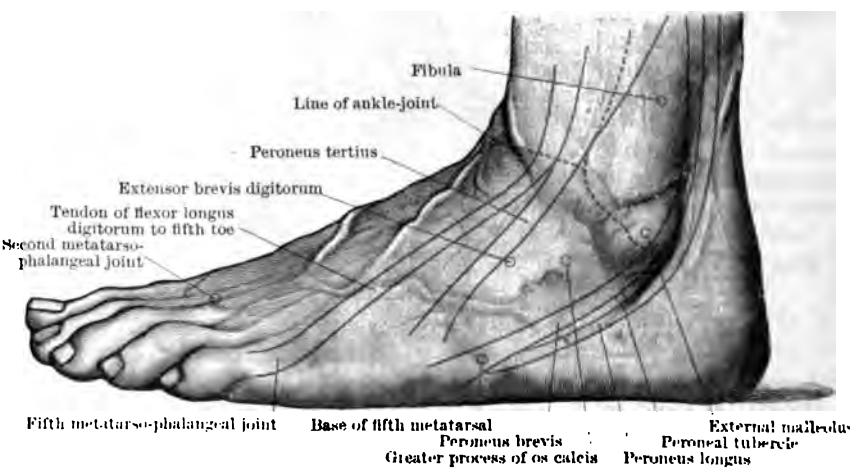


FIG. 935.—OUTER ASPECT OF FOOT AND ANKLE.

triangular subcutaneous surface of the fibula, the apex of which corresponds the lower end of the extensor-peroneal intermuscular septum.

The **line of the ankle-joint** can be felt on either side of the extensor tendons when the foot is extended the anterior part of the superior articular surface of **astragalus** forms a visible prominence below the anterior border of the lower e the tibia. The small posterior surface of the astragalus is felt below and b

the internal malleolus, at the anterior part of the hollow between it and the heel. In *effusions into the ankle-joint* the hollows in front and behind the malleoli are obliterated, and the extensor tendons are raised from the front of the joint.

A finger's breadth below the tip of the internal malleolus is the **sustentaculum tali**; 1¼ in. in front of the latter, and midway between the dorsal and plantar margins of the inner aspect of the foot, is the **tubercle of the scaphoid** (the inner landmark in Chopart's amputation), which is generally visible, and always distinctly palpable. The **calcaneo-astragaloid joint** lies immediately below the sustentaculum, while close above it the **tendon of the tibialis posticus** may be rendered visible, as it extends from behind the tip of the internal malleolus to the tubercle of the scaphoid. An inch and a half in front of the tubercle of the scaphoid is the **joint between the internal cuneiform and the first metatarsal**; the ridge at the base of the latter bone furnishes a good guide to the articulation. The **first metatarso-phalangeal joint** lies a little in front of the middle of the ball of the great toe.

A finger's breadth vertically below the tip of the external malleolus is the **peroneal tubercle** of the os calcis, and midway between the two is the **calcaneo-astragaloid joint**; the tubercle is, when present, a trustworthy guide to the level at which the **two peronei tendons** cross the outer surface of the os calcis. The **greater process** of the **os calcis** is felt in the triangular interval between the tendons of the

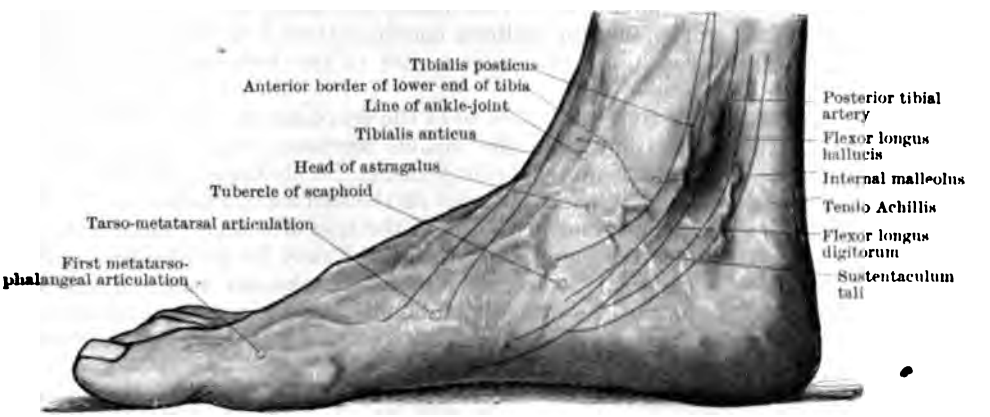


FIG. 936.—INNER ASPECT OF FOOT AND ANKLE.

peroneus brevis and tertius; the **calcaneo-cuboid joint**—the outer landmark in Chopart's amputation—is placed a little in front of the mid-point between the tip of the external malleolus and the base of the fifth metatarsal bone. To open the **outer tarso-metatarsal articulations**, the knife, entered behind the projecting base of the fifth metatarsal bone, should be directed forwards as well as inwards. On the dorsum of the foot the tarsal joints are obscured by the extensor tendons. The **synovial membrane** of the **ankle-joint** is prolonged on to the neck of the astragalus, and care must be taken to avoid opening the ankle-joint in performing Chopart's amputation.

The **line** of the **tarso-metatarsal joints** extends nearly 1 in. further forwards on the inner than on the outer border of the foot; between these points the joint-line takes a zigzag course on account of the second metatarsal bone extending backwards between the internal and external cuneiform bones. The joint between the second metatarsal and middle cuneiform is nearly ½ in. behind that between the first metatarsal and internal cuneiform, and nearly ¼ in. behind that between the third metatarsal and the external cuneiform. The strong transverse inter-osseous ligament (*Lisfranc's ligament*), which connects the outer surface of the internal cuneiform with the base of the second metatarsal, must be divided in the tarso-metatarsal amputation of Lisfranc. In order to preserve the insertions of the two tibial and the three peroneal muscles it is advisable, when possible, instead of disarticulating at "Lisfranc's joint," to saw through the metatarsal bones just in front of their bases.

The **metatarso-phalangeal articulations** are situated 1 in. behind the web c toes. In disarticulating a toe, the transverse metatarsal ligament, which u the heads of the metatarsal bones, should not be injured.

The **tendon** of the **tibialis posticus** may be felt, and, by inverting the foot, as it extends from behind the tip of the internal malleolus to the tubercle c scaphoid; it crosses the astragalus immediately above the sustentaculum tali.

In the commonest form of club-foot, viz. *talipes equino-varus*, the tubercle c scaphoid is approximated to the internal malleolus, so that tenotomy of the t should be performed through a puncture a little below the tip of the internal mall if the knife, after dividing the tendon, be carried down to the bone, the **inferior cal scaphoid ligament** will be divided and the **astragalo-scaphoid joint** opened, a pro which is called for before the foot can be brought into good position.

Crossing the front of the ankle-joint, from within outwards, are the foll tendons: viz. the **tibialis anticus**, the largest and most prominent; the **ex longus hallucis**, the **extensor longus digitorum**, and the **peroneus tertius**. **extensor brevis digitorum** gives rise to a fleshy pad which overlies the dorsal a of the calcaneo-cuboid joint. When the foot is everted, the tendon of the **pe brevis** may be seen extending from the tip of the external malleolus to the b the fifth metatarsal bone; immediately below it is the tendon of the **peroneus l** which, as it winds round the cuboid, is obscured by the fleshy fibres of the abd minimi digiti muscle. The **abductor hallucis muscle**, although described along the sole, forms a fleshy pad along the inner border of the foot below the su taculum tali.

An incision, extending from the tubercle of the scaphoid to the middle o inner border of the heel, will expose the various tendons, vessels, and nerv they pass from the inner ankle into the sole beneath the abductor hallucis.

The **dorsalis pedis artery** may be mapped out on the surface by drawing a line a point opposite the ankle-joint, midway between the tips of the two malleoli, t hinder end of the first interosseous space; the vessel may be compressed ag the inner column of the tarsal bones. The **internal saphenous vein** and **ner** between the anterior border of the internal malleolus and the tendon of the ti anticus; the **external saphenous vein** and **nerve** take the same course as the te of the peroneus brevis.

The **internal plantar vessels** and **nerves** lie along the **internal intermu septum**, which corresponds to a line drawn from the under surface of the tuberosity of the os calcis to the interval between the first and second toes. **external plantar vessels** and **nerves** may be exposed by an incision alon **external intermuscular septum**, which runs in a line extending from the mid the under surface of the heel to the fourth toe (Kocher); to map out the c of the **plantar arch**, draw a line across the sole from the inner side of the ba the fifth metatarsal bone to the hinder end of the first interosseous space.

INDEX.

INDEX

By T. W. P. Lawrence.

Abdomen, 1043
  cavity of, 1043
  contents of, 1047
  fasciæ of, 426
  lymphatics of, 918
  muscles of, 426, 427
  planes of, 1267
  regions of, 1047, 1267
  semilunar space of Traube of, 1271
  surface and surgical anatomy of, 1264
  zones of, 1047, 1267
Abdominal aorta, 798, 1276
  cavity, 1043
    apertures of, 1045
    boundaries of, 1043
    fasciæ of, 1044
    pelvic portion of, 1045
    subdivisions of, 1045, 1047
  ring, external, 430, 433, 1265
    internal, 432, 1265
  wall, fasciæ of, 426
    muscles of, 427, 434
Abducent nerve. *See* Nerve
Abduction, 259
Abductor pollicis muscle, 345, 353, 355
  hallucis muscle, 386, 389, 1312
  longus pollicis muscle, 351
  minimi digiti muscle of foot, 387, 389
  minimi digiti muscle of hand, 347, 353
Aberrant arteries, 838, 946, 952
Abnormalities of arteries, 947
  of heart, 946
  of lymphatics, 955
  of veins, 954
Accessorius muscle of back, 393
    of foot, 384, 389
Accessory processes of vertebræ, 83
Acetabular artery, 852, 861
Acetabulum, 214, 219, 220
Achromatic spindle, 10, 13
  substance, 8, 10
Acini, 1008
Acino-tubular glands, 1007
Acinous glands, 1007
Acromial angle, 188
  artery, 829
  nerves, 617, 619, 622
Acromio-clavicular joint, 274, 326, 1292
Acromio-thoracic artery, 828
Acromion process, 186, 188, 189, 1292
Acustic area, 488, 520, 527
Adduction, 259
Adductor brevis muscle, 366, 375, 376, 399
  longus muscle, 365, 375, 376, 399, 1306
  magnus muscle, 366, 375, 376, 399, 1308
  minimus muscle, 367
  obliquus hallucis muscle, 388, 389
    pollicis muscle, 346, 353
  transversus hallucis muscle, 388, 389
    pollicis muscle, 346, 353, 355
  tubercle of femur, 227, 230, 1308
Aditus ad antrum, 120, 1233
  laryngis, 964
Affenspalte, 564
Agger nasi, 133, 721
Agitator caudæ muscle, 369
Agminated glands, 1062, 1064
Air-cells, ethmoidal, 129, 130, 149, 151, 173, 174, 720, 721, 1236
  of lung, 991, 992
  mastoid, 122, 752
Air-sinuses, 71
  frontal, 105, 106, 174, 175
  maxillary. *See* Antrum of Highmore
  sphenoidal, 122, 128, 151, 174
Akrocephalic skulls, 179
Ala cinerea, 488
  nasi, 717
  of sacrum, 85
  of vomer, 140, 173
Alæ of cerebellum, 506, 507
  of thyroid cartilage, 958
Alar lamina. *See* Neural tube
  ligaments of knee, 302
  odontoid ligaments, 267
  process of ethmoid, 128
  spine of sphenoid, 124, 156, 157, 160, 167
  sulcus, 717
Albumen of ovum, 12
Alcock's canal, 853
Alecithal ovum, 11
Alimentary canal, 993
    development of, 32, 1105
Alisphenoids, 127, 181
Allantoic arteries, 51
  diverticulum, 50, 51, 65
  stalk, 51, 65
  veins, 62, 934
Allantois, 51
Alveolar arch, 162, 180

Alveolar glands, 1007
index, 180
periosteum, 1016, 1025, 1027
point, 178
process, 131, 133, 152, 177
Alveoli of glands, 1008
of jaws, 133, 144, 145, 1016, 1027, 1028
of lung, 991, 992
Alveolo-dental periosteum, 1016, 1025
Alveolo-glossal sulcus, 1244
Alveus, 572, 577
Ameloblasts, 1026
Amitosis, 9
Amnion, 48, 59
false, 49
fold, 49, 65
true, 49
Amniotic area, 24, 48
cavity, 48, 49, 50
fluid, 48
folds, 27, 49, 65
Amphiarthrosis, 256, 257
Ampulla of lachrymal duct, 740
of Fallopian tube, 1186
of lactiferous duct, 1208
of rectum, 1089, 1091
of semicircular canal, 760, 764
of vas deferens, 1164, 1166
of Vater, 1120
Amygdala, 1035
of cerebellum, 507
Amygdaloid nucleus, 576, 579, 582
tubercle, 576
Anal canal, 1091, 1280
columns of, 1093, 1094
development of, 45
hæmorrhoidal zone of, 1094
orifice of, 1074, 1092, 1095
relations of, 1092
sinuses of, 1095
valves of, 1093, 1095, 1281
vessels of, 1095
white line of, 1095
veins, 1096
Analogy, 2
Anaphase, 10, 13
Anapophysis, 94
Anastomoses, arterial segmental, 939
Anastomosis, crucial, 855, 862
Anastomotic artery. *See* Artery
vein of Trolard, 883
Anatomical neck of humerus, 190
Anatomy, 1
surgical, 1222
systematic, 3
topographical, 4
Anconeus muscle, 350, 354
Angeiology, 3
Angle, acromial, 188
cephalo-auricular, 743, 745
facial, 180
frontal, 108
inferior lateral, of sacrum, 86
infracostal, 1265
of jaw, 144, 147, 177, 1237
pubic, 218
of rib, 97, 98, 99, 100
Rolandic, 558
sacro-vertebral, 87, 223
of scapula, 186
sphenoidal, 108
sternal, 95
Angle, subcostal, 102
Angular artery, 807
gyrus, 563, 564, 1225
process, 103, 105, 148, 1224, 1237
vein, 879
Angulus Ludovici, 1255
Ankle, surface and surgical anatomy o
Ankle-joint, 306
movements of, 307, 389
nerves of, 651, 653
surgical anatomy of, 1310
synovial membrane of, 307, 1311
Annectant gyri, 558, 563, 565, 566
Annular ligament of ankle, 377
of stapes, 752, 757
of wrist, 337, 1298
Annulus fibrosus, 262
ovalis, 787
tympanicus, 748
Ano-coccygeal body, 1089, 1092
Ano-cutaneous line, 1095
Ansa hypoglossi, 621, 622, 697
lenticularis, 545, 581
peduncularis, 545
Vieussenii, 708
Ante-cubital lymphatic glands, 913
Anticlinal vertebra, 88
Antihelix, 744
development of, 37, 43
fossa of, 744
Antithesis in muscular action, 404
Antitragicus muscle, 746
Antitragus, 744
development of, 37, 43
Antrum of Highmore, 131, 133, 134,
152, 173, 174, 176, 721, 1021, 1240
mastoid, 44, 120, 122, 156, 749, 752, 12
maxillary. *See* Antrum of Highmor
pyloric, 1051, 1052, 1055
Anus, 993, 1092, 1095, 1280
development of, 45
imperforate, 1097
sphincters of, 1093, 1095
Aorta, 797, 942, 947
abdominal, 798, 839, 1276
branches of, 800, 839, 842, 843
abnormalities of, 947
arch of, 797, 942, 947, 1264, 1289
branches of, 798, 800, 947
ascending, 797, 800, 930, 1264
bifurcation of, 797, 947, 1276, 1290
descending, 798, 837, 933, 939, 947
branches of, 798, 837
development of, 928
great sinus of, 797
primitive, 61, 62, 925, 926, 933, 939,
relations of, 797, 798, 1040
sinuses of Valsalva of, 797
thoracic, 797
descending, 798, 837, 1290
ventral, 926
Aortic arches, caudal, 62, 926, 928, 942
cephalic, 36, 37, 62, 926, 927, 9
942, 948
segmental branches of, 932
area, 1262
bulb, 929, 947
septum of, 930, 947
cusp, 791
opening of diaphragm, 424
orifice of heart, 789, 791, 1262
plexus, 710, 711, 714

Artery or Arteries—*continued*
labial, inferior, 806
posterior, 854
lachrymal, 816
laryngeal, inferior, 823
superior, 804, 1218
lingual, 805, 933, 1006, 1243, 1249, 1251
of inferior dental, 812
of lower limb, 856, 934, 943, 953
lumbar, 839, 850, 933, 940, 949
macular, 735
malleolar, external, 868
internal, 865, 868
mammary, external, 829
internal, 825, 933, 940, 941, 951, 1255
lateral, 951
masseteric, 812
mastoid, of occipital, 808
of posterior auricular, 808
maxillary, external, 806
internal, 810, 933, 950, 1237
median, 834, 943, 952
mediastinal, 825, 839
medullary. *See* Arteries, nutrient
meningeal, anterior, 815
of internal carotid, 815
middle, 811, 1224, 1225
of occipital, 807
posterior, 809
small, 811
surgical anatomy of, 1227
of vertebral, 819
mental, 812
mesenteric inferior, 847, 942, 949, 1276
superior, 845, 942, 949, 1126, 1276
metacarpal, 833
metatarsal, 869
muscle fibres of, 781
musculo-phrenic, 826
mylo-hyoid, 812
nasal, dorsal, 816
lateral, 807
naso-palatine, 813
nerves of, 783
of nose, 717, 723
nutrient, of bones, 74, 831, 834, 851, 852, 862, 865
obturator, 852, 953
occipital, 807, 993
of posterior auricular, 808
œsophageal, 823, 839, 942
ophthalmic, 815, 950
orbital, of middle meningeal, 811
of superficial temporal, 810
ovarian, 843, 942, 949, 1185, 1192, 1284
palatine, 1000, 1037, 1246
ascending, 806, 1000
of ascending pharyngeal, 809
descending, 812
posterior, 1000, 1246
palpebral, of ophthalmic, 816
pancreatic, 844
of hepatic, 1128
of splenic, 1128
of superior mesenteric, 1128
pancreatica magna, 844, 1128
pancreatico-duodenal, inferior, 847, 1128
superior, 845, 1126, 1128
parietal, of superficial temporal, 810
parieto-occipital, 821
parotid, of posterior auricular, 808
pectoral, of acromio-thoracic, 829
Artery or Arteries—*continued*
of penis, 854, 1172
perforating, of foot, 866, 867, 869
of hand, 833, 836
of internal mammary, 826
of peroneal, 865
of profunda femoris, 861
pericardial, 826, 839
perineal, superficial, 854, 1170
transverse, 854
perirenal, 842
peroneal, 865, 934, 943, 953, 1310
anterior, 865
posterior, 865
pharyngeal, ascending, 808, 933, 1037
phrenic, inferior, 839, 949
superior, 825
pituitary, 815
plantar, external, 865, 866, 954, 1312
internal, 865, 953, 1312
popliteal, 863, 934, 943, 953, 1305
prevertebral, of ascending pharyngeal, 8(
princeps cervicis, 808
hallucis, 869
pollicis, 833, 952
profunda clitoridis, 1198
brachii inferior, 831
superior, 831
femoris, 860, 953
penis, 1173
of posterior ulnar carpal, 835
pterygoid, 812
pterygo-palatine, 812
pubic, of deep epigastric, 857
of obturator, 852
pudic, accessory, 953
deep external, 860
external, 1170
internal, 853, 1278, 1303
superficial external, 859
pulmonary, 795, 930, 933, 942, 947, 989, 1264
pyloric, 845, 942, 1060
radial, 831, 934, 943, 952, 1301
radialis indicis, 833, 952, 1301
ranine, 805
recurrent, of deep palmar arch, 837
interosseous, posterior, 835
radial, 832, 952
ulnar, 834
renal, 842, 942, 949, 1140, 1276
of round ligament, 843
sacral, lateral, 850, 943
middle, 841, 942, 949, 1095
saphenous, 862
small, 953
of scalp, 1222
scapular, posterior, 824
dorsal, 829
transverse, 825
sciatic, 854, 934, 943, 953
scrotal, 854
segmental, 932, 933, 939
anastomoses of, 939
somatic, 933, 939
splanchnic, 933, 939, 942
septal, of nose, 807
sheath of, 782
sigmoid, 848, 1075
spermatic, 842, 942, 949, 1162
external, 857
spheno-palatine, 813

Artery or Arteries—*continued*
spinal, 818, 819, 838, 850, 933
splenic, 844, 942, 949, 1212, 1213
stapedial, 757
sternomastoid, of occipital, 807
of superior thyroid, 805
striate, external, 817
internal, 817
structure of, 780, 781
stylo-mastoid, 808
subclavian, 801, 821, 933, 934, 941, 942, 947, 951
branches of, 823
left, 821, 822, 948
right, 821, 822, 933, 948
subclavian, surgical anatomy of, 1252, 1255, 1289
subcostal, 838
sublingual, 805
submaxillary, 806
submental, 806
subscapular, 825, 829
superficial petrosal, 811
volar, 832
suprahyoid, 805
supraorbital, 816, 1224
suprarenal, 842, 942
suprascapular, 825
supraspinous, 825
sural, 863, 864
systemic, 797
tarsal, lateral, 869
temporal, deep, 812
middle, 809
of posterior cerebral, 821
of retina, 735
superficial, 809, 933, 1224
testicular, 843
thoracic, alar, 829
long, 829
superior, 828
thyroid, inferior, 823, 1217, 1252
superior, 804, 942, 1217, 1251
thyroidea ima, 801, 942, 947, 1217
tibial, anterior, 867, 934, 943, 953, 1309
posterior, 864, 934, 943, 953, 1310
recurrent, 868
of tongue, 1006
of tonsil, 806, 1006
tracheal, 823
transverse of basilar, 820
tubal, 843
tunica externa of, 781
intima of, 781
media of, 781
tympanic, 809, 811, 814
ulnar, 834, 934, 943, 952, 1301
umbilical, 51, 848, 851, 1098
of upper limb, 821, 933, 943, 951
ureteral, 842, 843
uterine, 843, 852, 1192, 1284
vaginal, 851, 1195
of liver, 1120
of vas, 851, 1167
venæ comites of, 946, 955
vertebral, 818, 823, 933, 940, 941, 947, 950, 1252
vesical, inferior, 851, 1157, 1167
middle, 851
of obturator, 852
superior, 851, 1157, 1167
vesico-vaginal, 1195
Artery or Arteries—*continued*
vessels of, 782
Vidian, 812, 815
visceral, intermediate, 939, 942
zygomatico-orbital, 810
Arthrodia, 257, 285
Arthrology, 3, 255
Articular arteries. *See* Artery
disc, 260, 261
eminence, 114, 155
process, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 82, 86, 94
Articulations. *See* Joints
Aryteno-epiglottidean folds, 38, 964
muscle, 970
Arytenoid cartilage, 960, 971, 992
ossification of, 961
processus muscularis of, 960
vocalis of, 961, 971
sesamoid of, 960
muscle, 968, 970, 971
Ary-vocalis muscle, 970, 971
Ascending degeneration, 466
Association centres, 593
fibres, cerebellar, 511
of cerebral hemispheres, 589
of cord, 468, 470
of medulla, 498
Asterion, 154, 159, 179
Astragalo-calcaneal ligaments, 309
Astragalo-scaphoid ligament, 310
joint, 309, 1312
membrane, 311
Astragalus, 239, 248, 1310
articular surfaces of, 306, 309
homology of, 253
ossification of, 249
Asymmetry, 4
Atlas, 77, 91, 92, 94, 167, 1251
transverse ligament of, 265, 267
Atlo-axial joint, 265
movements at, 267, 398
Atresia ani, 1097
Atrium meatus nasi, 133, 721
of primitive heart, 929
of tympanic cavity, 748
Attic, tympanic, 1232
Attollens aurem muscle, 402, 404
Attraction cone, 16
sphere, 9, 10, 11
Attrahens aurem muscle, 402, 404
Auditory area, 593
artery, 769, 820
meatus, external, 116, 120, 122, 155, 74
blood-vessels of, 748
ceruminous glands of, 748, 778
development of, 44
fissures of Santorini of, 748
foramen of Huschke of, 748
isthmus of, 747
lymphatics of, 748
nerves of, 748
structure of, 747
surgical anatomy of, 1229
internal, 119, 120, 171, 172, 761
nerve. *See* Nerve
ossicles, 754
pit, 66, 769
radiation, 583, 591, 593
teeth of Huschke, 766
vesicle, 703
Auerbach, plexus of, 1060, 1073

Auricles of heart. *See* Heart
Auricula, 743
Auricular artery. *See* Artery
canal, 929
fissure, 116
index, 744
nerves. *See* Nerves
septum, 930
surface, 86, 217
vein, posterior, 878
Auricularis anterior muscle, 402
posterior muscle, 402
superior muscle, 402
Auriculo-temporal nerve, 684
Auriculo-ventricular apertures, 783, 787, 788, 789, 790
groove, 783, 785, 1262
Auscultation, triangle of, 319
Axial line, dorsal, of limbs, 614, 672
ventral, of limbs, 660, 672
muscles, 318, 391
process, 22. *See* also Axon
skeleton, 69, 70, 183
Axilla, 1293
folds of, 1293
lymphatic glands of, 1294
surgical anatomy of, 1293
Axillary arches, 324, 671
artery, 821, 827, 933, 951, 1292, 1293
border of scapula, 186
fascia, 321
lines, 1253
lymphatic glands, 914
region, 1253
sheath, 828
vein, 888, 938, 946, 1292
Axis, 79, 93, 1253
basicranial, 171
cœliac, 843, 942, 949, 1276
cylinder. *See* Axon
lentis, 736
ligament of malleus, 757
optical, 724
of pelvis, 222
thyroid, 823, 941, 951
Axon, 22, 445, 448, 449, 461, 462, 472, 513, 514, 585, 586, 704
Azygos lobe of lung, 989
uvulæ muscle, 418, 419
veins. *See* Veins

Bacillary layer of retina, 732, 734
Back, fasciæ of, 318, 391
muscles of, 318, 392, 398
regions of, 1284
spinal furrow of, 1284
surgical anatomy of, 1284
Baillarger, bands of, 585, 587
Balbiani, body of, 11
Ball-and-socket joint, 257, 259
Band of Baillarger, 585, 587
of Bechterew, 587
ilio-tibial, 357, 360, 368, 1308
of Meckel, 757
of Vicq d'Azyr, 545, 548, 572, 585
Bar, hyoid, 37, 148
thyro-hyoid, 148
Barbula hirci, 746
Bartholin, duct of, 1013
glands of, 1182, 1198, 1206, 1283
Basal cells of olfactory mucous membrane, 723
centre of inferior maxilla, 146
Basal ganglia, 579
lamina. *See* Neural tube
layer of placenta, 57, 58
ridge of tooth, 1017
Base of cranium, 160
of lower jaw, 144
Base-line of Reid, 1227
Basement membrane, 1008
Basicranial axis, 171
Basihyal, 148
Basilar artery, 820, 933, 941, 951
groove, 112
membrane. *See* Membrana basilaris
process, 109, 160, 181
sinus, 885
vein, 883
Basilic vein, 891, 938, 946, 955, 1295, 1296
Basi-occipital, 113, 164
Basion, 166, 171, 172, 178
Basiotic, 113
Basi-pharyngeal canal, 163
Basi-sphenoid, 127
Basis-bundle, anterior, 470, 473, 483, 491, 494
lateral, 468, 470, 473, 484, 498
Basis cochleæ, 760
of hyoid, 147
modioli, 761
pedunculi cerebri, 532
stapedis, 756
Basket-cells, 513
Bechterew, band of, 587
nucleus of, 520
Beraud, valve of, 741
Bertin, bones of, 128
columns of, 1138
Biceps brachii muscle, 332, 336, 354, 1297
flexor cruris muscle, 372, 375, 376, 1304, 1308
Bicipital artery, 830
fascia, 333, 1297
furrow, 1295
groove, 190, 1293
tuberosity, 200
Bicuspid artery, 812
teeth, 1015, 1018
Bigelow, Y-ligament of, 295
Bile canaliculi, 1118, 1122
Bile duct, 1108, 1120
common, 1068, 1070, 1120, 1123, 1270, 1290
interlobular, 1118, 1122, 1123
papilla, 1070, 1120
Biventer cervicis muscle, 395
Biventral lobule, 507
Bladder, gall, 1108, 1118, 1123, 1265, 1270
urinary, 1130, 1144
capacity of, 1150
development of, 1200, 1202
distended, 1148
empty, 1147
fixation of, 1156
in female, 1151
in infant, 1153
interior of, 1151, 1283
ligaments of, false, 1100, 1154, 1156
true, 1156
mucous coat of, 1157
muscular coat of, 1156
neck of, 1145
nerves of, 1157
peritoneal relations of, 1153
plicæ uretericæ, 1151
serous coat of, 1156
sphincter of, 1157

Bucco-pharyngeal area, 23, 33
fascia, 1037
membrane, 33, 35, 38
Buds, taste, 770
Bulb, aortic, 929, 947
septum of, 930
of brain. *See* Medulla oblongata
of corpus spongiosum, 1277
of jugular vein, 876
of lateral ventricle, 576
olfactory, 587, 589
of urethra, 1171
of vagina, 1283
of vestibule, 1182, 1198
Bulbo-cavernosus muscle, 436
Bulbus arteriosus, 927, 929
oculi, 723
pili, 777
Bulla ethmoidalis, 721
Burdach, column of. *See* Spinal cord
Burns, space of, 879
Bursæ, 258, 275, 278, 296, 299, 303, 317, 318, 328, 329, 332, 333, 349, 359, 361, 362, 363, 369, 370, 372, 373, 382, 384, 405, 962, 1305, 1307
subcutaneous, 258
subtendinous, 258
thecal, 258
Buttock, fasciæ of, 355
muscles of, 368, 375
surgical anatomy of, 1302

Cæcal artery, 1081
folds, 1081
fossæ, 1081
Cæcum, 993, 1074, 1076, 1273
cupulare of cochlea, 764
development of, 1078
dimensions of, 1076
fœtal, 1078
ileo-cæcal orifice of, 1076, 1077, 1078
infantile, 1079
position of, 1076, 1078
relations of, 1076
types of, 1078
vermiform process of, 1074, 1077, 1079
vessels of, 1081
vestibulare cochleæ, 763, 764
Calamus scriptorius, 488
Calcaneal artery, 866
Calcanean facets, 240, 241
Calcaneo-astragaloid joint, 308, 1311
Calcaneo-cuboid joint, 311, 1311
ligaments, 311, 315
Calcaneo-fibular ligament, 307
Calcaneo-scaphoid ligaments, 309, 315, 1312
Calcaneo-tibial ligament, 307
Calcaneus, 243
Calcar avis, 576
femorale, 229
Calcarine artery, 821
fissure, 565, 566, 576
Callosal gyrus, 568
Calloso-marginal fissure, 560
Calvaria, 103
Calyces, renal, 1141, 1202
Canal of Alcock, 853
alimentary, 993
primitive, 32, 1105
anal, 1091, 1280
development of, 45
for Arnold's nerve, 118
Canal, auricular, 929
basi-pharyngeal, 163
carotid, 118, 120, 165, 169
central, of cochlea, 762
of cord, 456, 459, 473, 484
of medulla, 498
crural, 359
dental, 132, 156, 158
inferior, 143, 144
of epididymis, 1162, 1199, 1202, 1205
ethmoidal, 129, 130, 149, 169
Eustachian, 117, 164, 165, 166, 167
Haversian, 71
of Huguier, 114, 750
hyaloid, 736, 742
infraorbital, 131, 132, 134, 151, 176
inguinal, 432, 1162, 1265
for Jacobson's nerve, 118
lachrymal, 133, 740, 743
malar, 136
of nasal duct, 151, 173, 175
neural, 75, 89
neurenteric, 20, 66
of Nuck, 1190
obturator, 293
palatine, accessory, 142, 159, 163
anterior, 134, 162, 173
posterior, 133, 134, 142, 159, 162
palato-maxillary, 133
of Petit, 736
portal, 1120
pterygo-palatine, 126, 143, 159, 163
sacral, 86
of Schlemm, 725
semicircular. *See* Semicircular canal
spheno-vomerine, 140
spinal, 76, 87, 89
of Stenson, 998
temporal, 137, 155
for tensor tympani, 117, 750
urogenital, 1200
Vidian, 126, 159, 163, 165, 169
Canaliculi, bile, 1112, 1118
of bone, 71
Canaliculus innominatus, 125
lachrymalis, 1239
mastoideus, 118
tympanicus, 118
Canalis centralis cochleæ, 762
cranio-pharyngeus, 124, 127, 164, 181
innominatus, 164
reuniens, 770
spiralis modioli of Rosenthal, 761
Canine teeth, 1015, 1017, 1022
fossa, 131, 1237
Canthi of eye, 738
Capillaries, 780
structure of, 780
Capillary arterioles, 780
lymphatics, 905
veins, 780
Capitellum, 193
Capitular process, 94
Capsula adiposa of kidney, 1276
Capsular arteries, 839, 842, 1121
Capsule, external, 580, 581, 583
of Glisson, 1115, 1120, 1121
glomerular, 1139
internal, 543, 582
anterior limb of, 583
auditory radiation fibres of, 583
fronto-pontine fibres of, 583, 591

Capsule, internal, fronto-thalamic fibres of, 583
genu of, 583
lenticular part of, 583
optic radiation fibres of, 553, 583, 592
posterior limb of, 583
pyramidal fibres of, 583, 591
retro-lenticular part of, 583, 592
strio-thalamic fibres of, 581, 583
temporo-pontine fibres of, 583, 591
thalamo-frontal fibres of, 583
thalamo-striate fibres of, 583
of joints, 258
of lens, 733
otic, 120, 181
suprarenal. *See* Suprarenal capsule
of Tenon, 405, 724
Cardia, 1051, 1055, 1287, 1290, 1271
Cardiac bronchus, 990
lobe of lung, 990
nerves. *See* Nerves
plexus. *See* Plexus
portion of stomach, 1050, 1052, 1055
veins, 871
Cardinal veins, 935, 936, 944
Carina urethralis, 1195
Carotid artery. *See* Artery
gland, 1220
groove, 123, 169
lymphatic glands, 1247
plexus, 707
sheath, 400, 802
triangle, 1200, 1251
tubercle, 1252
Carpal arch, anterior, 835
dorsal, 836
arteries. *See* Artery
bones, 203
architecture of, 208
ossification of, 208
variations in, 209
joints, 284
movements at, 289
nerves to, 635
synovial membrane of, 286
transverse, 285
Carpale, 253
Carpo-metacarpal joints, 287
Carpus, 203, 208
Cartilage bones, 72, 73, 182
costal, 101
cricoid, 958, 959, 992, 1249
ensiform, 94, 96
of larynx, 958, 992
of Meckel, 36, 146
nasal, 717
lateral, 718
processus sphenoidalis of, 718
of septum, 717
vomerine, 718
parachordal, 181
of pinna, 745
of Reichert, 148
semilunar, 301, 1307, 1308
tarsal, 1239
of trachea, 975
xiphoid, 94, 96
Cartilagines corniculatæ, 961
cuneiformes, 961
Cartilaginous cranium, 181
vertebral column, 90
Cartilago triticea, 962
Caruncula lachrimalis, 738, 1239
major, of Santorini, 1070
minor, of Santorini, 1070
sublingualis, 997, 1012
Carunculæ hymenales, 1193, 1197
Cauda equina, 454, 609
helicis, 745
Caudal aortic arches, 62, 926, 928, 9
fold, 27, 49, 66
nerves. *See* Nerves
process, 43
Caudate lobe of liver, 1113
nucleus, 574, 575, 579
Cavernous arteries, 815
plexus. *See* Plexus
sinus, 886
Cavity, amniotic, 48, 49, 50
glenoid, 114, 1249
segmentation, 17
sigmoid, of radius, 201
of ulna, 196
Cavum conchæ, 744
dentis, 1016
Meckelii, 679
Retzii, 439
subarachnoidale, 601
Cells, 8
basal, of olfactory mucous memb 723
body of, 8
ethmoidal, 129, 130, 149, 151, 173,
germinal, 15, 12, 13, 22, 447, 471
of Golgi, 464, 586
lymphoid, 906
of marrow, 71
of Martinotti, 586
mastoid, 122, 752, 1234
nerve. *See* Nerve-cells
nucleus of, 8
olfactory, 722, 723
of Rauber, 18
reproduction of, 9
reproductive, 10
sperm-mother, 13
sustentacular, 13
Cell-mass, inner, 18, 50
intermediate, 26, 32
Cementum, 1014, 1023, 1025, 1027
Central arteries. *See* Artery
gyri. *See* Gyri
lobe, 507
lobule of cerebellum, 506, 507
lymphatic of hand, 915
point of perineum, 1277
sulcus of insula, 568
Centrale, 253
Centre, association, 593
medullary. *See* Medullary centre
of ossification, 72, 73
Centrolecithal ovum, 11
Centrosome, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17
Centrum of vertebra, 75, 94
Cephalic aortic arches, 36, 37, 62, 928, 932, 942
flexure of brain, 479
fold, 27, 49, 65
index, 178
myotomes, 442
somites, 31, 32
vein, 891, 938, 946, 955, 1296
Cephalo-auricular angle, 743, 745
Cerato-hyal, 148

Cerebellar arteries. *See* Artery
tract. *See* Tract
veins, 883
Cerebello-olivary tract, 496, 497, 510
Cerebellum, 475, 505
alæ of, 506, 507
arbor vitæ of, 510
association fibres of, 511
clivus monticuli of, 506, 507
commissural fibres of, 511
corpus dentatum of, 510
trapezoides of, 509,
culmen monticuli of, 506
development of, 477, 480, 528
fissures of, 506, 507, 508, 509, 529
folia of, 510, 512
folium cacuminis of, 506, 507
furrowed band of, 508
gray matter of, 509, 512
hemispheres of, 506, 1227
lingula of, 487, 506, 507
lobes of, 506
lobules of, 506, 507, 508
medullary vela of, 511
minute structure of, 512
nodule of, 507, 508
notches of, 506
nucleus emboliformis of, 510
fastigii of, 510, 511, 521
globosus of, 510
peduncles of, 510
inferior, 476, 485, 489, 510
middle, 476, 486, 500, 501, 510
superior, 476, 486, 503, 510, 511, 535, 546, 592
pyramid of, 507, 508
roof-nucleus of, 510, 511, 521
sulci of, 506, 507, 530
tonsil of, 507
tuber valvulæ of, 507, 508
uvula of, 507, 508
vallecula of, 506
vermis of, 506
white matter of, 509, 512
Cerebral arteries. *See* Arteries
cortex, 554, 584
association centres of, 593
fibres of, 589
auditory area of, 593
band of Baillarger of, 585, 587
of Bechterew of, 587
of Vicq d'Azyr of, 545, 548, 572, 585
cells of Golgi of, 464, 586
of Martinotti of, 586
commissural fibres of, 588
connexion with optic thalamus, 545
gray layers of, 585
inter-radial felt-work of, 587
layer of polymorphic cells of, 585, 586
of pyramidal cells of, 585
nerve-fibres of, 586
olfactory area of, 593
projection fibres of, 588, 591
somæsthetic area of, 593
stratum zonale of, 585
structure of, 584
supra-radial felt-work of, 587
tangential fibres of, 585
thickness of, 584
visual area of, 593
white layers of, 585
hemispheres, 553
Cerebral hemispheres, association fibres of, 588, 589
basal ganglia of, 579
borders of, 554
claustrum of, 582
commissural fibres of, 588
convolutions of. *See* Gyri
corpus callosum of, 570
cortex of, 554, 584. *See also* Cerebral cortex
development of, 478, 480, 481, 556, 595
fimbria of, 568
fissures of, 553, 554, 555
form of, 553
general structure of, 554
gray matter of, 554, 584
groove for lateral sinus on, 554
gyri of, 554. *See also* Gyri
incisura longitudinalis of, 596
internal capsule of, 582. *See also* Capsule, internal
intimate structure of, 584
island of Reil of, 556, 567
limen insulæ of, 568
lobes of, 555
lower margin of, 1224
medullary centre of, 554, 584, 588
morphological subdivision of, 584
nuclei of, 554, 579, 582
opercula of, 556, 561
poles of, 554
position and connexions of, 474, 553
præoccipital notch of, 562
projection fibres of, 591
Rolandic angle of, 558
septum lucidum of, 573, 597
sulci of, 554
surfaces of, 553
surgical anatomy of, 1224
Sylvian fossa of, 556, 596
point of, 555
ventricles of, 572, 573. *See also* Ventricles
veins, 882, 883
vesicles, 22, 66, 476, 481
Cerebro-spinal fluid, 453
nervous system, 443, 451
axis of, 443. *See also* Brain, Spinal cord
ganglionic part of, 448
gray matter of, 443
medullary part of, 451
nerve-cells of, 445
nerve-fibres of, 444
nerves of, 444. *See also* Nerves, cranial; Nerves, spinal
neuroglia of, 451
neurons of, 448, 449, 451
white matter of, 443
Cerebrum. *See* Cerebral hemispheres, Corpus callosum, Fornix, Thalamus, Ventricle
Ceruminous glands, 748, 778
Cervical arteries. *See* Artery
fascia, 400, 1246
flexure of neural tube, 477, 479, 526
ganglion. *See* Ganglion
lymphatic glands, 911, 912, 1251, 1252
nerves. *See* Nerves
pleura, 977
plexus. *See* Plexus
ribs, 80, 92, 94, 100
sympathetic, 706, 715, 1251
veins. *See* Veins
vertebræ, 75, 76

Cervicalis ascendens muscle, 393
Cervix uteri, 1188
  arbor vitæ of, 1188
    glands of, 1191
    mucous membrane of, 1191
    muscular coat of, 1191
    supra-vaginal portion of, 1188
    vaginal portion of, 1188, 1283
Chamæcephalic skulls, 179
Chamæprosope, 179
Chamber, anterior, of eye, 730, 737, 743
      endothelium of, 727
  posterior, of eye, 730, 737
      recesses of, 735
Check ligaments, 267
Cheek-bone, 135, 152
Cheeks, 997
  glands of, 997
  sucking-pad of, 997
Chest. *See* Thorax
Chiasma, optic, 475, 551, 676, 703
Choanæ, 160, 163, 719, 1032
Chondro-cranium, 181
Chondro-epitrochlearis muscle, 324
Chondro-glossus muscle, 414, 416
Chorda tympani nerve. *See* Nerve
Chordæ tendineæ, 790, 791
  Willisii, 884
Chordal portion of skull, 181
Chorioid, 725, 727
  development of, 745
  lamina basalis of, 728, 729
    chorio-capillaris of, 728
    supra-chorioidea of, 728
    vasculosa of, 728
  nerves of, 731
  pigment of, 728
  proper tissue of, 728
  spatium perichorioidale of, 725
  stratum intermedium of, 728
  tapetum of, 729
Chorioidal fissure, 742
Chorion, 48, 52
Chorionic area, 24, 52
  vesicle, 52
  villi, 52, 54, 55, 58, 65
Choroid plexuses, 512, 529, 575, 578, 596
Choroidal artery, 817, 820
  fissure, 578, 596, 605
  veins, 882
Chromaffin cells, 1215
Chromatin, 9
  skein, 10
Chromogenic cells, 1215
Chromosome, 10, 13, 15, 17
Chyme, 1050
Ciliary arteries. *See* Artery
  body, 725, 729
  border, 730
  bundle, 403
  ganglion. *See* Ganglion
  muscle, 729
  nerves, 680, 681, 725, 727, 731
  processes, 729
Cingulum, 590, 1017
Circle of Willis, 821
Circular sinus, 885
  sulcus, 556, 567
Circulation, fœtal, 60, 63, 931
Circulus arteriosus, 821
    major, 731
    minor, 731
Circulus tonsillaris, 690
Circum-anal glands, 1095
Circumduction, movement of, 259
Circumflex arteries. *See* Arteries
  iliac artery. *See* Artery
    vein, 899, 901
  nerve, 625, 632, 1295
Circumflexus palati muscle, 419
Circumvallate papillæ, 1003, 1004
Cisterna basalis, 602
  chyli, 907
  magna, 602, 1227
  pontis, 602
Cisternæ subarachnoidales, 602
Clarke, column of, 461, 464, 468, 46
Claudius, cells of, 766, 767
Claustrum, 582
Clava, 484, 492
Clavicle, 184, 1291
  architecture of, 185
  articulations of, 273
  homology of, 254
  ossification of, 186
  variations in, 185
Clavicular artery, 829
  facet, 95
  nerves, 617, 619, 622
  notch, 95
Cleft, gluteal, 1290, 1302
  olfactory, 1239
  palate, 135, 1013, 1240
  visceral, 35, 43, 66, 67, 701, 703
Cleido-mastoid muscle, 411
Cleido-occipitalis muscle, 411
Clinoid process, anterior, 124
    middle, 123
    posterior, 122, 169, 170
Clitoris, 1182, 1197
  arteries of, 1198
  bone of, 1198
  corpora cavernosa of, 1197
  crura of, 1197
  development of, 1200, 1207
  dorsal vein of, 897
  frenulum of, 1196, 1197
  glans of, 1197
  prepuce of, 1196, 1197
  suspensory ligament of, 1197
Clivus monticuli, 506, 507
Cloaca, 45, 1200, 1203
Cloacal fossa, 45, 1200, 1203, 1206
  membrane, 21, 23, 45,
Co-aptation, 259
Coccygeal artery, 855
  ganglion, 704, 711
  gland, 1220
  nerves, 607, 613, 655
  plexus, 658
Coccyx, 86, 94, 221, 223
Cochlea, 759, 760
  membranous, 764
Cochlear nerve. *See* Nerve
Cochleariform process, 117, 750, 752,
Cœliac artery, 843
  axis, 843, 942, 949, 1276
  lymphatic glands, 920
  plexus, 712, 713
Cœlom, 24, 27, 50, 52, 1105
Colic arteries. *See* Artery
  impression of liver, 1113
  lymphatic glands, 920
  veins, 903, 904

Collar bone, 184
Collateral fissure, 559, 579
  nerve-fibres, 468
Collecting tubules, renal, 1139
Colles, perineal fascia of, 1277
Colliculi inferiores, 534
  superiores, 534
Colliculus nervi optici, 731
Colon, 1074. *See also* Intestine
  appendices epiploicæ of, 1074, 1075
  ascending, 993, 1074, 1081, 1082, 1274
  cæcum of, 1074, 1076. *See also* Cæcum
  descending, 993, 1074, 1083, 1274
  dimensions of, 1074
  haustra of, 1054
  hepatic flexure of, 1074, 1082, 1274, 1288, 1290
  iliac, 1074, 1085, 1274
  mesentery of, 1082, 1086
  nerves of, 1075
  pelvic, 1074, 1085, 1086, 1274
    in new-born child, 1086
    mesentery of, 1086
    structure of, 1087
  plicæ semilunares of, 1075
  sacculi of, 1075, 1087
  sigmoid flexure of, 993, 1074, 1084
  splenic flexure of, 1074, 1083, 1274, 1288, 1290
  structure of, 1075
  tæniæ of, 1061, 1074, 1075, 1087
  transverse, 993, 1074, 1082, 1274
  vessels of, 1075
Columnæ carneæ, 790, 791
  fornicis, 572
  rugarum vaginæ, 1195
Columns of Bertini, 1138
  of Morgagni, 1093, 1094
  spinal cord. *See* Spinal cord
  vertebral, 74, 87, 1289. *See also* Vertebræ, Vertebral column
    membranous, 30
Comes nervi isciatici, 855, 953
    mediani, 834
    phrenici, 825
Comma tract, 466
Commissura habenularum, 548
Commissural fibres, cerebellar, 511
    cerebral, 588
Commissure of cord. *See* Spinal cord
  gray, of third ventricle, 544, 550, 594
  of Gudden, 532, 552, 676
  hippocampal, 572, 589
  of lips, 995
  optic, 475, 551, 676, 699, 703
  white anterior, of brain, 549, 588, 597
    posterior, of brain, 547, 548, 595
Communicating arteries. *See* Artery
Complexus muscle, 395, 398
Compound glands, 1007
Compressor bulbi muscle, 436
  hemispherium bulbi, 436
  naris muscle, 403
  radicis penis, 436
  urethræ muscle, 437
  venæ dorsalis penis muscle, 437
Concentric corpuscles of Hassall, 1220
Concha, 744
  inferior, 100, 139, 152
  media, 129, 152
  sphenoidalis, 128
  superior, 129
Condyle of femur, 227
  of humerus, 190, 192, 193
  of jaw, 145, 1237
  occipital, 111, 112, 166
    third, 79, 113
Condylic foramen, 111, 166, 170, 171, 172
  fossa, 111, 166
  surface of tibia, 232, 235
Condyloid joints, 257
Cone of attraction, 16
  bipolars of retina, 733
  granules of retina, 733
  retinal, 734, 743
Coni vasculosi, 1162, 1204
Conical papillæ, 1003
Conjoined tendon, 430, 431, 1266
Conjugate diameter of pelvis, 222, 223
Conjunctiva, 739
  fornix of, 739
  nerves of, 740
  ocular, 739, 1238
  palpebral, 739, 1238
  plica semilunaris of, 738
  vessels of, 740
Conoid ligament, 274, 275
  tubercle, 185
Constrictor muscles of pharynx, 416, 419, 4
  of urethra, 437
Conus arteriosus, 789
  medullaris, 452, 458, 459, 1290
Convoluted tubules of kidney, 1139
Convolutions of cerebrum. *See* Gyri
Coraco-acromial ligament, 275
Coraco-brachialis muscle, 332, 336, 1293, 1
    superior, 332
Coraco-clavicular ligament, 274
Coraco-glenoid ligament, 277
Coraco-humeral ligament, 277, 324
Coracoid process, 186, 189, 254, 1292
Cord, gangliated, of sympathetic, 703
    cervical, 706, 715
    lumbar, 710, 715
    sacral, 711, 715
    thoracic, 708
  genital, 1204
  lumbo-sacral, 648
  lymphatic, 906
  spermatic, 1160, 1162, 1168, 1265
    cremasteric fascia of, 431, 434, 1169
    infundibuliform fascia of, 427, 433, 11
    intercolumnar fascia of, 430, 434, 1169
  spinal. *See* Spinal cord
  umbilical, 51
  vocal. *See* Larynx
Cords of brachial plexus, 623, 625, 663
Corium, 773
  papillæ of, 773
  stratum papillare of, 773
    reticulare of, 773
Cornea, 725, 726, 1138
  anterior elastic lamina of, 726
  arcus senilis of, 727
  blood-vessels of, 727
  curvature of, 726
  development of, 743
  ligamentum pectinatum of, 727
  nerves of, 727
  posterior elastic lamina of, 727
  spaces of Fontana of, 727
  structure of, 726
Cornicula laryngis, 961
Cornu ammonis. *See* Hippocampus major

Cornua, of coccyx, 86
of cord. *See* Spinal cord
of hyoid bone, 147, 148, 1250
of lateral ventricles, 573, 576
of sacrum, 84
of saphenous opening, 356
of thyroid cartilage, 958, 959
of uterus, 1192
Corona dentis, 1015
glandis, 1170
radiata, 583, 591
of ovum, 12
Coronal plane, 5
suture, 108, 153, 160, 177
Coronary arteries. *See* Arteries
ligament, 1099, 1115, 1116
plexus. *See* Plexus
sinus, 784, 787, 870, 871, 931, 945, 954
veins. *See* Veins
Coronoid fossa, 193
process of jaw, 145, 157, 1237
of ulna, 195, 196, 1297
Corpora mammillaria, 475, 478, 548, 550, 572, 595
quadrigemina, 476, 477, 531, 534
brachia of, 532, 534, 535
connexion with cochlear nerve, 534
Corpora quadrigemina, connexion with thalamus, 534
development of, 542
fillet-fibres of, 534, 538
inferior, 531, 534
structure of, 534
superior, 531, 534, 552, 553, 592
Corpus adiposum buccæ, 997
albicans of ovary, 1184
Arantii, 790
callosum, 476, 570, 588
absence of, 588, 590
body of, 571
development of, 597
forceps major of, 571, 576
genu of, 571
gray matter of, 571
gyri of, 571
radiation of, 571, 588
rostrum of, 571
splenium of, 571
striæ longitudinales of, 569, 571, 573
tapetum of, 571, 576, 588, 591
cavernosum clitoridis, 1197
penis, 1170, 1172
ciliare, 729
dentatum, 510
geniculatum externum, 531, 544, 546, 552, 592, 594
internum, 532, 538, 552, 592
Highmori, 1161
luteum, 1184
spongiosum penis, 1170, 1172, 1277
striatum, 554, 580, 584
connexions of, 581
development of, 596
vein of, 574, 882
subthalamicum, 546
trapezoides, 501, 509, 510, 520
vitreum, 735
Corpuscles, blood, 61
concentric, of Hassall, 1220
of Krause, 775
lymph, 906
Malpighian, of spleen, 1213
Corpuscles of Meissner, 775
of Pacini, 775
of Ruffini, 775
tactile, 774
Corpuscula bulboidea, 775
lamellosa, 775
Corrugator cutis ani, 436, 1093
supercilii, 403, 404
Cortex, cerebral. *See* Cerebral cort
renal, 1138
Corti, ganglion of, 761, 768
head-plates of rods of, 766
organ of, 765, 766
cells of Claudius, 766, 767
cells of Hensen, 766, 767
development of, 769
hair-cells of, 766, 767
lamina reticularis of, 766, 767
membrana tectoria of, 766, 767
pillars of, 766
rods of, 766
space of Nuel of, 767
supporting cells of, 766, 767
fibres of, 767
phalangeal processes of, 767
tunnel of, 766
Cortico-pontine tract, 501, 540, 583,
Costal cartilages, 101, 271, 1265
Costal pleura, 977, 978
zone of abdomen, 1047
Costo-central joints, 269
Costo-chondral joints, 271, 1255
Costo-colic ligament, 1083
Costo-coracoid ligament, 322
membrane, 321, 828
muscle, 324
Costo-sternal joints, 271
Costo-transverse joints, 270
Costo-vertebral joints, 269
Cotyloid cavity, 219
ligament, 294
notch, 217, 219, 220
Cowper, glands of, 1159, 1176, 1180,
Cranial nerves, 674. *See also* Nerve
1st, *see* Nerve, olfactory
2nd, *see* Nerve, optic
3rd, *see* Nerve, oculo-motor
4th, *see* Nerve, trochlear
5th, *see* Nerve, trigeminal
6th, *see* Nerve, abducent
7th, *see* Nerve, facial
8th, *see* Nerve, auditory
9th, *see* Nerve, glosso-pharynge
10th, *see* Nerve, vagus
11th, *see* Nerve, spinal accessory
12th, *see* Nerve, hypoglossal
Cranio-cerebral topography, 1224
Craniology, 178
Craniometry, 178
Cranio-pharyngeal canal, 124, 127,
Cranium, 103, 159, 177. *See also* Sk
articulations of, with spine, 266
bony landmarks of, 1223
capacity of, 178
cartilaginous, 181
cerebrale, 103, 160
circumference of, 179
fossæ of, 167, 171, 176
height of, 179
membranous, 181, 184
surgical anatomy of, 1222, 1224
thickness of, 1224

Cranium, trabecular portion of, 183
veins of, 880, 883
vertebral portion of, 183
viscerale, 103, 160
Cremaster muscle, 431
Cremasteric artery, 843, 857
fascia, 431, 434, 1169
Crescent of Gianuzzi, 1008
Crescentic lobule, 506, 507
Crest, falciform, 119
frontal, 105, 169
iliac, 214, 223, 1290, 1302
incisor, 134
infra-temporal, 125, 155, 157
lachrymal, 133, 138, 151
malar, 125
nasal, 134, 173
neural, 21
obturator, 218
occipital, external, 109
internal, 110, 171
pubic, 218, 223, 1306
sacral, 84
sphenoidal, 124
supra-mastoid, 114, 154
temporal, 104, 107, 154, 1224, 1237
of tibia, 233
turbinated inferior, 133, 142
turbinated superior, 133, 142
Cribriform fascia, 356
plate, 128, 130, 173, 176, 177
Crico-arytenoid joint, 962
muscles, 968, 969, 971
Cricoid cartilage, 959, 961, 992, 1249
Crico-thyroid artery, 805
membrane, 962, 1249, 1289
muscle, 968, 971
Crista acustica, 764
basilaris cochleæ, 765
galli, 128, 169
mallei, 755
sacralis, 84, 85
spinarum, 748
semilunaris cochleæ, 761
terminalis, 787, 932
transversa cochleæ, 762
urethræ, 1158, 1178
vestibuli, 759
Crucial anastomosis, 855, 862
ligament of atlas, 267
of knee, 300
Crura antihelicis, 744
cerebri, 532
crusta of, 532, 539
development of, 478, 480, 481, 542
fronto-pontine fibres of, 540, 591
position and connexions of, 475, 476, 532
pyramidal fibres of, 540, 591
red nucleus of, 535, 536, 546
tegmental part of, 532, 535, 543, 546, 550
temporo-pontine fibres of, 540, 591
clitoridis, 1197
of diaphragm, 423
fornicis, 572
of penis, 1171
Crural arch, deep, 359
superficial, 359, 430
canal, 359
fossa, 1098
nerves. *See* Nerves
ring, 359, 430
septum, 359
Crural sheath, 359
Crureus muscle, 361, 375
Crus anterius of stapes, 756
breve of incus, 756
commune of semicircular canals, 760
helicis, 744
longum of incus, 756
posterius of stapes, 756
Crusta of crus cerebri, 532, 539
petrosa, 1014, 1023, 1025, 1027
Cryptorchism, 1168
Cryptozygous skulls, 160, 179
Crystalline lens. *See* Lens
Cubo-cuneiform articulation, 312
Cuboid bone, 239, 247, 253
Cucullaris muscle, 318
Culmen monticuli, 506, 507
Cuneate funiculus, 455, 466, 484, 491, 492
gyrus, 565, 566
nucleus. *See* Nucleus
tubercle, 485, 492
Cuneiform bone of hand, 203, 205, 209
of foot, external, 245, 247, 249, 253
internal, 245, 246, 249, 253
middle, 245, 246, 249, 253
cartilages, 961
tubercle, 964
Cuneo-lingual gyri, 566
Cuneo-metatarsal ligaments, 313
Cuneus, 566
Cup, optic, 698, 703, 731, 742
Cupola of cochlea, 760
terminalis, 764
Curved lines of ilium, 215
of occipital bone, 109, 110, 154, 159, 162, 166
Cushion, endocardial, 929
of epiglottis, 965
Eustachian, 1033
levator, 1034
Cusps, aortic, 791
of tooth, 915, 1017, 1021
Cutaneous lamella, 30, 31
Cuvier, duct of, 935, 936, 944, 954
Cylinder, axis. *See* Axon
Cymba conchæ, 744
Cystic artery, 845
duct, 1119, 1270
vein, 903
Cytolymph, 8
Cytoplasm, 7, 8, 10
Cyto-reticulum, 8

Dacryon, 179
Dartos muscle, 434, 1170
penis, 1172
Darwin, tubercle of, 744
Decidua, 53, 56
basalis, 54, 57, 58
capsularis, 54, 57
layers of, 57, 58
relation of ovum to, 53
vera, 54, 57
Deciduous teeth, 1015, 1022, 1027
Decussation of cerebellar peduncles, 536
of fillet, 493
of Forel, 539
fountain, 539
of Meynert, 539
motor, 493
in optic commissure, 676
of pyramids, 482, 483, 490

Decussation, sensory, 493
transverse, of pons, 500
Defæcation centre, 1097
Degeneration, Wallerian, 466
Deglutition, movements in, 419
Deiters, nucleus of, 520, 521
supporting cells of, 766, 777
Deltoid eminence, 191
ligament, 307
muscle, 327, 331, 1295
tubercle, 185
Demilunes of Gianuzzi, 1008
Demours, lamina of, 725
Dendrites, 22, 445, 447, 449, 461, 513, 585, 704
Dental arches, 143, 152, 160, 180, 1021
artery, 811, 812
canals, 132, 143, 144, 156, 158
foramen, 144, 157
formula, 1015
index, 181, 1029
lamina, 1026
nerves. *See* Nerves
veins, 880
Dentary centre, 146
Dentate fissure, 569
gyrus, 568
nucleus, 510, 511
Dentinal fibrils, 1024, 1028
papilla, 1025, 1026
sheaths, 1024, 1028
tubes, 1024, 1028
Dentine, 1014, 1023, 1024, 1025, 1026, 1028
Depressor alæ nasi muscle, 403
anguli oris muscle, 404, 405
labii inferioris muscle, 404, 405
septi muscle, 403
Dermal teeth, 1025
Dermis, 773
Descemet, lamina of, 727
Descending degeneration, 466
Descriptive terms, 4, 70
Deutoplasm, 10, 47
Development, 1
of alimentary canal, 32
of anal canal, 45
of appendicular skeleton, 253
of arteries, 932
of auditory ossicles, 757
of blood vascular system, 60, 925
of blood-vessels, 60
of brain, 476, 526
of cerebellum, 477, 480, 528
of cerebral hemispheres, 478, 480, 594, 595
of chondro-cranium, 181
of cranial nerves, 698
of Eustachian tube, 43, 44
of external ear, 43, 66
of eye, 741
of heart, 62, 925, 928
of inter-brain, 478
of intestine, 1105
of joints, 259
of labyrinth, 769
of larynx, 35
of limbs, 46, 66
of liver, 1122
of mamma, 1209
of medulla oblongata, 477, 480, 526
of mid-brain, 476, 477, 542
of mouth, 34, 38, 67, 41
of neck, 35, 36, 37, 67
Development of nerve-cells, 447, 4
of nose, 38, 66
of œsophagus, 1042
of palate, 40, 1013
of pancreas, 1129
of pericardium, 925
of peritoneum, 1105
of pharynx, 34, 1037
of pinna, 43, 66
of pituitary body, 42
of placenta, 52
of pons Varolii, 477, 480, 528
of quadrigeminal bodies, 542
of respiratory apparatus, 992
of salivary glands, 1013
of skeletal muscles, 441
of skin, 778
of spinal cord, 471
of spinal nerves, 660
of spleen, 1213
of suprarenal capsules, 1216
of sympathetic system, 715
of teeth, 1025
of thymus gland, 1220
of thyroid gland, 1217
of tongue, 35, 37, 1013
of tonsil, 1037
of tympanic cavity, 43, 44
of urinogenital organs, 1198
of veins, 62, 934
Diagonal sulcus, 560, 561
Diaphragm, 423, 426, 1043
anomalies of, 426
arch of, 1286, 1290
central tendon of, 424
crura of, 423
foramina in, 424
hernia of, 426
Diaphragma sellæ, 599
Diaphragmatic ganglion, 622, 713
line of pleura, 979, 981
lymphatic glands, 924
pleura, 977
plexus, 622, 713
Diaphysis, 71
Diapophysis, 94
Diarthrosis, 256, 257, 260
Diencephalon, 476, 478, 481, 542
Digastric fossa, 144
groove, 117, 166
muscle, 413, 415, 416, 442
triangle, 1249
Digital arteries. *See* Arteries
fossa, 225
of testis, 1160
sheaths of fingers, 339
of toes, 378
veins, 889, 900, 946
Digitus post minimus, 253
Dilatator pupillæ, 731
Dilator naris muscle, 403
tubæ muscle, 754
Diphyodont dentition, 1029
Diploë, 71
Diploic veins, 880
Disc, articular, 260, 261, 268, 274,
interpubic, 292
intervertebral, 261
optic, 731
tactile, 774
Discus proligerus, 1185
Diverticulum, allantoic, 50, 51, 65

Diverticulum, ilei, 1023, 1105
Dolicho-cephalic skulls, 160, 178
Dolicho-facial skulls, 179
Dolichuranic skulls, 180
Dorsal axial line of limbs, 614
Dorsalis clitoridis artery, 854, 1198
  hallucis artery, 869
  indicis artery, 833, 952
  linguæ artery, 805, 1006
  pedis artery, 868, 1312
  penis artery, 854
  pollicis artery, 832
Dorsiflexion, 308, 315
Dorso-epitrochlearis muscle, 324
Dorsum sellæ, 122, 169, 181
Douglas, fold of, 432, 1101, 1189, 1267
  pouch of, 1090, 1100, 1189, 1283, 1284
Duct or Ducts, alveolar, of lung, 991
  of Bartholin, 1013
  bile, 995, 1068, 1070, 1113, 1120, 1122, 1123, 1270
  of Cuvier, 935, 936, 944, 954
  cystic, 1119, 1270
  ejaculatory, 1159, 1162, 1164, 1179, 1199
  of Gärtner, 1187
  hepatic, 1118, 1123
  interlobular, of liver, 1118, 1122, 1123
  lactiferous, 1208
  lingual, 1217
  lymphatic, right, 904, 906, 909, 956
  Müllerian, 1199, 1204
  nasal, 722, 740, 741, 743, 1239
    development of, 40
  pancreatic, 995, 1068, 1070, 1124, 1127, 1128
  parotid, 1011, 1238
  prostatic, 1175
  of Rivinus, 1113
  of Stenson, 995, 1011
  submaxillary, 1012
  thoracic, 904, 906, 956, 1040, 1254, 1289
  thyro-glossal, 37, 1014, 1217, 1242
  vitelline, 1073, 1105
  vitello-intestinal, 33, 48, 51, 1105
  of Wharton, 997, 1012, 1244
  of Wirsung, 1127
  Wolffian, 1198, 1200, 1204
Ductless glands, 1007, 1210
Ductus arteriosus, 37, 63, 64, 933, 947
  cochlearis, 759, 764, 765, 769
  endolymphaticus, 763, 769
  para-urethralis, 1158, 1196
  reuniens of Hensen, 763, 770
  utriculo-sacularis, 763
  venosus, 63, 903, 935
    fissure of, 1112, 1114
    ligament of, 1117
Duodenal folds, 1069
  fossæ, 1068
  impression, 1114
Duodeno-jejunal flexure, 1065, 1070, 1272
  fossa, 1069, 1272
Duodenum, 993, 1065. *See also* Intestine
  caruncula of, 1070
  diverticulum of, 1070
  first part of, 1065, 1066, 1272
  interior of, 1069
  nerves of, 1070
  orifice of bile-duct in, 1068
  peritoneal relations of, 1067, 1068, 1069
  relations of, 1065
  second part of, 1065, 1068, 1272
  structure of, 1070
Duodenum, surgical anatomy of, 1272
  suspensory muscle of, 1070
  third part of, 1065, 1068, 1290, 1272
  uncovered area of, 1068
  various forms of, 1070
  vessels of, 1070
Dura mater, 597
    cranial, 597
    diaphragma sellæ of, 599
    falx cerebelli of, 599
      cerebri of, 599
    lacunæ laterales of, 603
    layers of, 598, 600
    parasinoidal sinuses of, 603
    prolongations of, on nerves, 598, 600
    spinal, 453, 599
    venous blood-sinuses of, 598, 599

Ear, 743
  capsule, 120, 181
  external, 743
    development of, 43, 66, 67
    meatus of, 743. *See also* Auditory meatus
    pinna of, 743
  internal, 759. *See also* Labyrinth
  middle. *See* Tympanic cavity
  muscles of, extrinsic, 402
    intrinsic, 746
  surgical anatomy of, 1229
Ebner, glands of, 771
Ectochondral ossification, 72
Ectoderm, 18, 19, 28
  neural, 28
  structures formed from, 28
  surface, 28
Egg-tubes, 1184
Ejaculator urinæ muscle, 436
Ejaculatory duct, 1159, 1162, 1164, 1179, 1199
Elastic lamina of arteries, 781
    of cornea, 726, 727
  membrane of Henle, 782
Elbow, surgical anatomy of, 1296
Elbow-joint, 279
  fat-pads of, 281
  movements at, 281, 336, 354
  muscles acting on, 336, 354
  nerves of, 628
  surgical anatomy of, 1296
  synovial membrane of, 281
Embolus of cerebellum, 510
Embryo, 28
  development of. *See* Development
  ectoderm of, 28
  entoderm of, 28, 29
  external characters at different periods, 65
  folding off of, from blastodermic vesicle, 26
  intermediate cell-mass of, 32
  lateral mesodermic plates of, 31
  membranes of, 48, 59
  mesodermic somites of, 30, 31
  nutrition of, 47, 60
Embryology, 1, 7
Embryonic area, 19, 26, 50, 65
Eminence, genital, 45, 66, 1200, 1206
Eminentia arcuata, 119, 170
  collateralis, 560, 576, 578
  conchæ, 744
  teres, 488, 524, 527
  triangularis, 744
Emissary veins, 884, 886
Enamel, 1014, 1023, 1025, 1028
  cells, 1026, 1028

Enamel cuticle, 1024
germs, 1026
organs, 1026
prisms, 1023
Enarthrodial joints, 257
Encephalon. *See* Brain
End-bulbs of Krause, 775
Endocardial cushions, 929
Endocardium, 787, 788, 790, 791, 792
Endochondral ossification, 72
Endognathion, 1013
Endolymph, 762
Endoskeleton, 69
Ensiform artery, 826
cartilage, 94, 96
Entoderm, 18, 19, 29, 50
Epactal bones, 131
Eparterial bronchus, 976, 990
Ependyma, 573
Ependymal cells, 451, 459
layer, 472
Epiblast, 18
Epibranchial organs, 701, 702
Epicardium, 791, 792
Epicondyles, 192, 193, 194, 228
Epicondylic lines, 227
process of humerus, 194, 195, 1296
ridges, 192
Epicranial aponeurosis, 400, 401
Epidermis, 773, 778
Epididymal artery, 843
Epididymis, 1159, 1160, 1280
body of, 1160
canal of, 1162, 1199, 1202, 1205
globus major of, 1160
minor of, 1160
hydatids of, 1160, 1205
sinus of, 1160
structure of, 1161
vasa aberrantia of, 1162, 1199
Epidural space, 598, 600
Epigastric arteries. *See* Artery
fossa, 1255
Epigastric region, 1047, 1267
veins. *See* Veins
Epigastrium, 1047
Epiglottidean ligaments, 963
Epiglottis, 961, 1218, 1289
cartilage of, 961
cushion of, 965
in deglutition, 971
development of, 35, 38, 992
frenulum of, 1002
glands of, 968
taste buds of, 770
Epihyal, 148
Epiotic, 121
Epiphyses, 71, 73, 74
Epipteric ossicles, 119, 131
Episternal bones, 97
notch, 1289
Epistropheus, 79
Epithalamus, 542, 594
Epithelium, 28
Epitrichium, 779
Epitrochleo-anconeus muscle, 350
Epitympanic space, 1232, 1233
Eponychium, 776, 779
Epoophoron, 1187, 1190, 1199
Erect position, 4
Erector clitoridis muscle, 437
penis muscle, 436
Erector spinæ muscles, 393, 398, 3
Eruption of teeth, 1022, 1025, 102
Erythroblasts, 72
Ethmoid bone, 103, 128, 151, 169,
ossification of, 130
variations in, 130
Ethmoidal arteries, 816
canals, 129, 130, 149, 169
cells, 129, 130, 149, 151, 173, 1
1236
crest, 133, 142
foramen, 104, 169
groove, 129
notch, 104
plate, 181
process, 139
sinus, 174
spine, 123
Ethmo-turbinals, 129
vomerine region, 181
Eustachian canal, 117, 164, 165, 16
cushion, 1033
tube, 750, 753, 1232, 1233, 1246
blood-vessels of, 754
in child, 754
development of, 43, 44
dilator muscle of, 754
fascia salpingo-pharyngea of, 7
groove for, 124, 164, 165, 753
isthmus of, 753
lamina membranacea of, 754
nerves of, 754
ostium pharyngeum of, 753, 75
tympanicum of, 753
pars cartilaginea of, 753
ossea of, 753
tonsil of, 754
valve, 788, 892, 932
Eutelolecithal ovum, 11
Eversion of foot, 315
Exoccipitals, 113, 181
Exognathion, 1013
Exoskeleton, 69
Expression, facial, 404
Expiration, 426
Extension, movement of, 259
Extensor brevis digitorum muscle
390, 1312
pollicis muscle, 352, 354, 355
carpi radialis brevior muscle, 349
longior muscle, 349, 354
ulnaris muscle, 350, 354
communis digitorum muscle, 349
hallucis longus muscle, 380
indicis muscle, 353, 354
longus digitorum muscle, 379, 38
pollicis muscle, 353, 354, 355
primi internodii hallucis muscl
minimi digiti muscle, 350, 354
ossis metacarpi pollicis muscle, 3
metatarsi hallucis muscle, 380
proprius hallucis muscle, 380, 38
Eye, 723. *See also* Eye-ball
development of, 741
movements of, 407
pineal, 547
Eyeball, 723, 724
anterior chamber of, 730, 737, 74
coats of, 725. *See also* Choric
Sclera
dimensions of, 724
equator of, 724

Eyeball, meridional lines of, 724
nerves of. *See* Nerves, ciliary
nervous tunic of, 725, 731
poles of, 724
posterior chamber of, 730, 737
refracting media of, 725. *See also* Aqueous humour, Lens, Vitreous body
sagittal axis of, 724
sclero-cornea of, 725
shape of, 724
sulcus scleræ of, 724
tunica vasculosa of, 725, 727. *See also* Chorioid, Ciliary body, Iris
Eyelashes, 738, 739
Eyelids, 738, 1238
blood-vessels of, 740
canthi of, 738
development of, 743
in fœtus, 67, 68
glands of Moll of, 739, 778
lacus lacrimalis of, 738
lymphatics of, 740
mucous membrane of, 738. *See also* Conjunctiva
muscles of, 402, 404, 739
nerves of, 740
palpebral ligament of, 739
papilla lacrimalis of, 738
septum orbitale of, 739
skin of, 739
tarsal arches of, 740
glands of, 739, 740
ligaments of, 739
plates of, 738
third, 738
Eye-teeth, 1017

Face, bones of, 103, 131, 151, 160, 177
bony landmarks of, 1236
measurements of, 179
muscles of, 402, 404, 442
surgical anatomy of, 1236
Facial angle, 180
Facial artery. *See* Artery
expression, 404
index, 179
nerve. *See* Nerve
veins. *See* Veins
Falciform crest, 119
ligament of saphenous opening, 357, 359
of liver, 1098, 1107, 1113, 1115, 1116, 1124, 1270
process, 292
Fallopian tube, 1181, 1185, 1283
abdominal ostium of, 1185
ampulla of, 1186
development of, 1199
fimbriæ of, 1186
hydatids of, 1187
infundibulum of, 1186
isthmus of, 1186
mesosalpinx of, 1185, 1189
nerves of, 1186
ovarian fimbria of, 1184, 1186
pars uterina of, 1186
plicæ of, 1186
structure of, 1186
uterine ostium of, 1186
vessels of, 1186
Fallopius, aqueduct of, 119, 165, 170, 752, 762
hiatus of, 119, 122, 169
Falx cerebelli, 599
Falx cerebri, 599
Fangs of teeth, 1015
Fascia or Fasciæ of abdomen, 426, 1044
of arm, 332
axillary, 321
of back, 318, 391
bicipital, 333, 1297
bucco-pharyngeal, 1037
bulbi, 724
cervical, 400
deep, 974, 1246
muscular compartment of, 1247
suprasternal compartment of, 1247
vascular compartment of, 1247
visceral compartment of, 1246
cremasteric, 431, 434, 1169
cribriform, 356
deep, 317
of foot, 376
of forearm, 336
of groin, 356
of hand, 336
of head, 399
iliaca, 1044
infundibuliform, 427, 433, 1169
intercolumnar, 430, 434, 1169
lata of thigh, 356, 1306
of leg, 376
of lower limb, 355
lumbar, 318, 391
masseteric, 400
of neck, 400
obturator, 438
of orbit, 405
parotid, 1010
palmar, 338
pectoral, 321
pelvic, 438, 1044
penis, 1172
of perineum, 434, 1277
phrenico-pleural, 982
plantar, 378
popliteal, 358, 1305
prevertebral, 401
pyriformis, 438
rectal, 1091
recto-vesical, 439
salpingo-pharyngea, 754
of Scarpa, 1278
semilunar, 333
of shoulder, 327
spermatic, 430
superficial, 317
temporal, 400
of thigh and buttock, 355
transversalis, 427, 1044
triangular, 430
of upper limb, 318
Fasciculus longitudinalis inferior, 590
superior, 590
middle, of brachial plexus, 624
occipito-frontalis, 590
olfactory, of cornu ammonis, 572
posterior, of brachial plexus, 624
retroflexus, 539, 547
solitarius, 517, 518, 524, 527
spiralis of cochlear nerve, 768, 769
thalamo-mammillaris, 545
uncinatus, 590
of Vicq d'Azyr, 545, 548, 572
Fat-pads, synovial, 258, 281, 295, 302
Fauces, 1000

Fauces, isthmus of, 993, 995, 998, 1100, 1244, 1288
pillars of, 999, 1000, 1034, 1244
Female pronucleus, 13, 16
Femoral artery, 858, 934, 943, 953, 1306
fossa, 1098
hernia, 359
lymphatic glands, 916
sheath, 358, 427, 859
vein, 897, 898, 946
Femur, 224, 297
architecture of, 229
connexions of, 229
homology of, 253
lower epiphyseal line of, 1308
ossification of, 229
pilastered, 229
variations in, 229
Fenestra ovalis s. vestibuli, 752, 759
rotunda s. cochleæ, 752, 1232
Fenestrated membrane, 781
Fertilisation of ovum, 16, 65
Fibræ arcuatæ. *See* Arcuate fibres
lentis, 737
Mülleri, 699, 734
Fibres of Purkinjé, 791
Fibrils, dentinal, 1024, 1028
Fibro-cartilages, 258, 260, 274, 275, 282, 292, 301
intervertebral, 261
semilunar, 301, 1307, 1308
triangular, 282, 283
Fibrous plate of fingers, 289
of toes, 315
tympanic, 748
Fibula, 235, 1308, 1309
architecture of, 238
connexions of, 238
homology of, 253
ossification of, 239
variations in, 239
Fibular artery, 868
Fibulare, os, 253
Field, polar, 9
Fifth ventricle, 573
Filament, axial, 15
Filiform papillæ, 1003
Fillet, 494, 592
connexion with cochlear nuclei, 538
geniculate body, 534, 538
optic thalamus, 539
quadrigeminal body, 534, 538
superior olive, 538
decussation of, 493
interolivary stratum of, 496
lateral, 505, 521, 533, 538
mesial, 504, 539, 546, 553, 592
in mid-brain, 533, 534, 535, 538
in pons, 502, 504
Filtrum ventriculi of Merkel, 965
Filum terminale, 452, 459, 599
Fimbria, 568, 572, 577
Fimbriæ of Fallopian tube, 1184, 1186
Fimbrio-dentate sulcus, 569
Fingers, bones of, 203, 212
movements of, 354
Finger-cells, 773
Fissura antitragohelicina, 745
vestibuli, 760
Fissure or Fissures, auricular, 116
calcarine, 565, 576
calloso-marginal, 560
Fissure or Fissures of cerebellum, 506
of cerebrum, 553, 554
chorioidal, 742
choroidal, 578, 596, 605
collateral, 559, 579
complete, 554
of cord, 454, 460, 473
dentate, 554, 569, 577
of ductus venosus, 1112, 1114
ecto-rhinal, 560, 568, 584
floccular, 509, 529
Glaserian, 114, 121, 750
great horizontal, of cerebellum, 506,
longitudinal, of cerebrum, 474, 596
hippocampal, 554, 569
incomplete, 554
infrapyramidal, 508, 530
interlobar, 555
of lung, 988
of medulla, 482
palpebral, 738
parallel, 567, 1224, 1225
parapyramidal, 508, 530
parieto-occipital, 558, 1223, 1225
external, 559, 565
internal, 559, 565
petro-basilar, 118
petro-occipital, 165
petro-squamous, 119
petro-tympanic, 750
portal, 1113, 1115
post-nodular, 509, 530
post-lunata, 507, 530
prima, 530
pterygo-maxillary, 156, 158
of Rolando, 558, 1224, 1225
annectant gyri of, 558
development of, 558, 564
retrotonsillar, 508, 530
of Santorini, 745
secunda, 508
sphenoidal, 124, 125, 127, 149, 151, 17
spheno-maxillary, 125, 131, 136, 14
155, 158, 160, 164
spheno-petrous, 164, 165
suprapyramidal, 508, 530
of Sylvius, 553, 555, 1224
anterior ascending ramus of, 556, 55
development of, 556
horizontal rami of, 556, 557
stem of, 555
terminal piece of, 556
valleculla of, 555
transverse, of brain, 604, 605
of liver, 1113, 1115
tympano-mastoid, 116
umbilical, 1114
urinogenital, 1200
Flat bones, 70, 71
Flechsig, areas of, 499
Flexion, 259
Flexor accessorius muscle, 384, 390
brevis digitorum muscle, 386, 389, 39
hallucis muscle, 388, 389
minimi digiti of foot, 388, 389
of hand, 347, 353, 354, 355
pollicis muscle, 345, 353, 355
carpi radialis muscle, 339, 353, 354, 1
ulnaris muscle, 340, 353, 354
caudæ muscle, 441
longus digitorum muscle, 384, 389, 39

Flexor longus hallucis muscle, 385, 389, 390
pollicis muscle, 343, 353, 355, 1301
profundus digitorum muscle, 342, 353, 354
sublimis digitorum muscle, 341, 353, 354
Flexures of brain, 479
cephalic, 479
cervical, 477, 479, 526
pontine, 479
duodeno-jejunal, 1065, 1070
hepatic, 1074, 1082, 1288, 1290, 1274
sigmoid, 993, 1074, 1084
splenic, 1074, 1083, 1288, 1290, 1274
Floating ribs, 97
Floccular fossa, 119, 122
Flocculus, 508, 509, 529
Fœtus, circulation of, 60, 63, 931
development of. *See* Development
external characters at different periods, 65
estimate of age of, 68
membranes of, 48, 59
Fold, amnion, 49, 65
aryteno-epiglottidean, 38, 964
axillary, 1293
caudal, 27, 49, 66
cephalic, 27, 49, 66
of Douglas, 432, 1101, 1189, 1269
genital, 45, 1206
glosso-epiglottic, 1002
gluteal, 1302
labio-scrotal, 1200, 1206
lateral amniotic, 45
medullary, 21, 66
perineal, 45
pharyngo-epiglottic, 963, 1002, 1036
recto-genital, 1101
recto-uterine, 1189
recto-vaginal, 1189
sacro-genital, 1156
salpingo-palatine, 1033
salpingo-pharyngeal, 1033
transverse vesical, 1156
utero-vesical, 1189
vestigial, of Marshall, 784, 795
Folia of cerebellum, 510, 512
linguæ, 1004
Folium cacuminis, 506, 507
Follicles, Graafian, 1184, 1204
of hair, 776
of Lieberkühn, 1062
lymphatic, 906
Follicles, primitive, of ovary, 1204
of teeth, 1027, 1028
Fontana, spaces of, 727
Fontanelles, 106, 183, 1223
Foot, articulations of, 306
bones of, 239, 248
fasciæ of, 376
lymphatics of, 916, 917
mechanism of, 315
muscles of, 378, 386, 389
surgical anatomy of, 1310
Foot-plate of stapes, 756
Foramen apicis dentis, 1015
cæcum of skull, 105, 128, 169
of medulla, 482
of tongue, 37, 1000, 1014, 1217, 1242
centrale cochlea, 761
condylic, 111, 166, 170, 171, 172
dental, inferior, 144, 157
ethmoidal, 104, 149, 169
of Huschke, 748
incisor, 134, 162
Foramen infraorbital, 131, 151, 1237
intervertebral, 76, 86, 89
jugular, 118, 120, 165, 170
lacerum, 165, 169
magnum, 109, 112, 160, 166, 170, 171
of Majendie, 512, 601
mandibulare, 144, 158
mastoid, 117, 156, 171
mental, 143, 1237
of Monro, 476, 479, 544, 551, 573, 594
obturator, 214, 219
occipital, 106
optic, 124, 127, 149, 169
ovale, of heart, 63, 787, 788, 930, 947
of sphenoid, 125, 127, 157, 158, 164, 16
palatine, greater, 162
lesser, 142, 163
posterior, 1246
parietal, 108, 109, 159, 167
quadratum, 424
rotundum, 125, 127, 159, 170
sacro-sciatic, 222
of Scarpa, 134, 162
sciatic, great, 291
small, 292
singulare of cochlea, 762
spheno-palatine, 142, 159, 173
spinal, 75, 76, 77, 80, 82
spinosum, 125, 127, 157, 164, 169
of Stenson, 134, 135, 162
stylomastoid, 118, 120, 165, 167
supraorbital, 104, 148, 1224
supratrochlear, 194
thyroid, 214, 219
transversarium, 77
vertebral, 75, 76, 80, 82
vertebrarterial, 77, 78, 79, 80, 94
of Vesalius, 125, 157, 170
of Winslow, 1049, 1097, 1102, 1107, 1116, 1272
Foramina nervosa, 765
papillaria, 1137
sacral anterior, 83, 86
posterior, 84, 86
Thebesii, 787, 788
venarum minimarum cordis, 787, 788
Forceps major, 571, 576
Fore-arm, fasciæ of, 336
lymphatics of, 915
muscles of, 339
Fore-arm, superficial veins of, 890
surgical anatomy of, 1298
Fore-brain, 476, 478, 542, 594
corpora geniculata of, 542. *See also* Corp geniculata
epithalamus of, 542, 547
hemispheres of, 553. *See also* Cerebral he spheres
hypothalamus of, 542, 548
thalamus of, 542. *See also* Thalamus
Fore-gut, 33, 37, 1105
Forel, decussation of, 539
Formatio reticularis, 457, 460, 490, 498, 4 502, 528
Formative pole, 11
Fornix of cerebrum, 571
connexion with hippocampus major, 57
development of, 597
lyra of, 572
pillars of, anterior, 548, 550, 572
posterior, 568, 572
tæniæ of, 572

Fornix of conjunctiva, 739
pharyngis, 1033
of vagina, 1193, 1283
Fossa or Fossæ, acetabuli, 219
anterior palatine, 134, 162
antihelix, 744
canine, 131, 1237
cloacal, 44, 1200, 1203, 1206
condylic, 111, 166
coronoid, 193
cranial, 167
anterior, 167, 171, 176
middle, 169, 171
posterior, 170
digastric, 144
digital, of femur, 225
of testis, 1160
ductus venosi, 1112, 1114
duodenal, inferior, 1068, 1069
superior, 1068, 1069
duodeno-jejunal, 1069, 1272
epigastric, 1155
floccular, 119, 122
glandulæ lachrymalis, 105, 149
glenoid, 114, 116, 122, 155, 186, 276
of helix, 744
hypotrochanterica, 229
ileo-cæcal, 1081
ileo-colic, 1082
iliac, 217, 220
incisor, 131, 144
incudis, 749
infraspinous, 187, 189
infratemporal, 156
inguinal, external, 1098
internal, 1098, 1101
middle, 1098
intercondyloidea, 227
tibiæ, 232
intersigmoid, 1086, 1274
ischio-rectal, 1281
jugular, 118, 122, 165, 1233
of Landzert, 1069
for ligamentum teres, 224, 229
mastoid, 1233
myrtiform, 131
nasal. *See* Nasal fossa
navicularis, 1180, 1198, 1283
obturator, 1143
olecranon, 193
orbital, 148
ovalis, 787, 788, 930
ovarica, 1182
paraduodenal, 1068, 1069
pararectal, 1090, 1101
paravesical, 1101, 1155
patellaris, 735
pituitary, 122, 171, 181
pterygoid, 126, 163
pterygo-palatine, 158
radialis, 193
retro-cæcal, 1081
retro-colic, 1081
rhomboidalis, 482, 487
of Rosenmüller, 754, 1033, 1034, 1246
scaphoid, 126, 163
spheno-maxillary, 158
subarcuata, 119
submaxillary, 144, 1012
subscapular, 189
supraspinous, 187, 188
supratonsillar, 1034, 1035, 1036, 1038
Fossa or Fossæ of Sylvius, 556, 596
temporal, 107, 154
triangularis of pinna, 744
for vena cava inferior, 1111, 1115
venæ umbilicalis, 1114
vesicæ felleæ, 1115
zygomatic, 154, 164
Fossula fenestræ cochleæ, 118, 752
vestibuli, 752
inferior, of internal auditory meatus, 7(
superior, of internal auditory meatus, 7
Fountain decussation, 539
Fourchette, 1196
Fourth ventricle. *See* Ventricle
Fovea centralis retinæ, 731, 734
inferior of fourth ventricle, 488, 527
pterygoidea, 145
superior of fourth ventricle, 488, 527
trochlearis, 105, 149
Foveolæ gastricæ, 1159
Frenula valvulæ coli, 1077
Frenulum epiglottidis, 1002
of Giacomini, 569
of lips, 995
præputii clitoridis, 1196, 1197
penis, 1171
veli, 531, 542
Frenum linguæ, 997, 1005, 1244
Fretum Halleri, 829
Frontal artery. *See* Artery
bone, 103, 148, 149, 152, 169, 173
architecture of, 106
ossification of, 106
sexual differences in, 104
variations in, 106
eminences, 103, 177, 1224
gyri. *See* Gyrus
lobe, 560
nerve, 679
plane, 5
region, 148
sinus, 105, 107, 129, 149, 174, 175, 1235
suture, 148
vein, 879
Fronto-marginal sulcus, 560
Fronto-nasal process, 38
Fronto-pontine tract, 540, 583, 591
Froriep, ganglion of, 700, 701
Fundiform ligament, 377
Fundus of cæcum, 1076
of stomach, 1051, 1052, 1055, 1271, 1290
tympani, 749
uteri, 1187, 1284
vesicæ, 1145
Fungiform papillæ, 1003, 1004
Funicular process, 1266
Funiculus anterior of cord, 455
cuneatus, 455, 466, 473, 484, 489, 491, 49
gracilis, 455, 466, 473, 484, 489, 491, 492
lateralis of cord, 455
posterior of cord, 455
of Rolando, 485, 491
separans, 488
Furcula, 35, 38, 1013
Furrow, bicipital, 1295
nuchal, 1253
spinal, 1284
sternal, 1253
ulnar, 198

Galen, veins of, 604, 882

Gall-bladder, 1108, 1118, 1265, 1270
development of, 1123
duct of, 1119
structure of, 1119
variations in, 1119
Gangliated cord of sympathetic. *See* Cord
Ganglion or Ganglia, aortico-renal, 710, 712
basal, of brain, 579
of cardiac plexuses, 793
cervical, inferior, 706, 708, 1255, 1289
middle, 706, 708
plexuses of, 712
superior, 706
of uterus, 1192
ciliary, 680, 701
development of, 699
long root of, 680, 681
short root of, 677, 681
sympathetic root of, 681, 708
coccygeal, 704, 711
cochlear, development of, 699
cœliac, 713
of Corti, 761, 768
of cranial nerves, 443
diaphragmatic, 622, 713
of Froriep, 700, 701
Gasserian, 524, 679, 699, 701, 702, 707
geniculate, 524, 686, 699, 701, 702
habenulæ, 547
impar, 704, 711
interpedunculare, 539, 548
jugular, of ninth nerve, 689, 700
of vagus, 690, 692
lenticular, 680
lumbar, 710
of Meckel, 682, 699
mesenteric, superior, 713
nodosum, 690, 692
olfactory, 698, 703
otic, 685, 707
development of, 699
petrous, 689, 700, 701
of root of vagus, 690, 692, 701
sacral, 711
of Scarpa, 768
semilunar, 710, 712
of fifth nerve, 679
spheno-palatine, 682
development of, 699
spinal, 443, 608
accessory, 608
cells of, 608
development of, 661
spirale cochleæ, 689, 761, 768
splanchnic, great, 710
submaxillary, 685, 687, 707
sympathetic, 443, 704
cells of, 704
collateral, 704, 715
development of, 715
gray rami of. *See* Rami communicantes
terminal, 704, 715
thoracic, 709
central branches of, 710
first, 706
peripheral branches of, 709, 710
plexuses of, 712
of trunk of vagus, 690, 692, 700, 701
vestibular, 689, 699, 700
of Wrisberg, 693
Ganglionic layer of retina, 732
Gasserian artery, 811, 815
Gasserian artery, depression, 170
ganglion, 524, 679, 699, 701, 702, 707
Gastric artery. *See* Artery
impression of liver, 1113
lymphatic glands, 918
veins, 904, 1060
Gastrocnemius muscle, 381, 389, 1309, 1310
Gastro-colic omentum, 1049, 1104
Gastro-duodenal artery, 845
Gastro-epiploic artery, 845, 1060
veins, 903, 904, 1060
Gastro-hepatic omentum, 1050, 1116, 1107
Gastro-phrenic ligament, 1057, 1099
Gastro-splenic omentum, 1050, 1057, 1099, 1104, 1108, 1212
Gelatinous marrow, 72
Gemellus inferior muscle, 372, 375, 376
superior muscle, 372, 375, 376
Genial spines, 144
Geniculate bodies. *See* Corpora geniculata
ganglion, 524, 686, 699, 701, 702
Genio-hyo-glossus muscle, 414, 415, 416, 1244
Genio-hyoid muscle, 414, 415, 416
Genital cord, 1204
eminence, 45, 66, 1200, 1206
fold, 45, 1206
organs, external, 1159, 1182, 1195, 1206
ridge, 1204
Genito-crural nerve. *See* Nerve
Gennari, stria of, 585
Genu of corpus callosum, 571
of facial nerve, 686
of fissure of Rolando, 558
of internal capsule, 583
Germ cells, enamel, 1026
tooth, 1027
Germinal cells, 12, 13, 15, 22, 447, 471, 661
epithelium, 1184, 1204
layers, 8, 19
spot, 10, 11
vesicle, 11
Giacomini, frenulum of, 569
Gianuzzi, crescents of, 1008
Gimbernat, ligament of, 430
Gingivæ, 998
Ginglymus, 257
Giraldés, organ of, 1160, 1199, 1205
Girdle, pectoral, 189, 254
pelvic, 214, 254
Glabella, 104, 148, 171, 178, 1223, 1237
Gladiolus, 94
Glands, 1007
acini of, 1008
acino-tubular, 1007
acinous, 1007
agminated, 1062, 1064
alveolar, 1007
alveoli of, 1008
of Bartholin, 1182, 1198, 1206, 1283
basement membrane of, 1008
of Bowman, 722
of Brunner, 1061, 1070
buccal, 997
bulbo-urethral, 1176
carotid, 1220
ceruminous, 748, 778
cervical, of uterus, 1191
ciliary, 778
coccygeal, 1220
compound, 1007
of Cowper, 1159, 1176, 1179, 1206, 1278
digestive, 993

Glands, ductless, 1007, 1210
duodenal, 1070
of Ebner, 771
Haversian, 295
intestinal, 1062
labial, 996, 997
lachrymal, 740, 1238
of Lieberkühn, 1062, 1073, 1075, 1093
lingual, anterior, 1006
of Littré, 1180
lymphatic. *See* Lymphatic glands
mammary. *See* Mammary gland
Meibomian, 739, 1238
molar, 997
of Moll, 739, 778
of Montgomery, 1207
mucous, 1008
olfactory, 722
palatine, 998, 999
parathyroid, 1218
parotid. *See* Parotid gland
præputial, 1171
prostatic, 1175, 1179
racemose, 1007
salivary, 994, 995, 1008, 1009, 1013
sebaceous, 777, 779
serous, 1008
simple, 1007
solid, 1007
solitary, 1062, 1063, 1075
structure of, 1008
sublingual, 1012, 1013, 1244
submaxillary. *See* Submaxillary gland
sudoriparous, 778, 779
suprarenal, 1212, 1286, 1290
tarsal, 739
thymus, 1218
thyroid, 1216
of tongue, 1006
tubular, 1007
urethral, 1177, 1180
uterine, 53, 1191
of vestibule, 1197
Glans clitoridis, 1197
penis, 1170, 1206
Glaserian fissure, 114, 121, 750
Gleno-humeral ligament, 277
Glenoid cavity of scapula, 186, 276
fossa of temporal bone, 114, 116, 122, 155, 1237
ligament, 276
Glisson, capsule of, 1115, 1120, 1121
Globe of eye, 723, 724
Globular process, 39, 68
Globus pallidus, 580, 581
Glomerulus, olfactory, 587
renal, 1140
of sweat glands, 778
Wolffian, 1201
Glosso-epiglottidean folds, 963, 1002
Glosso-pharyngeal nerve. *See* Nerve
Glosso-pharyngeus muscle, 417
Glottis respiratoria, 966, 971
spuria, 966
vera, 966, 971
vocalis, 966
Gluteal artery. *See* Artery
cleft, 1290, 1302
fold, 1302
line, 215
surface, 215
veins, 895
Gluteus maximus muscle, 368, 375, 376, 399, 1302
Gluteus medius muscle, 370, 375, 37(
minimus muscle, 370, 375, 376, 39(
Gnathic index, 180
Golgi, cells of, 464, 586
Goll, column of. *See* Spinal cord
Gonion, 179
Gowers, tract of, 468, 469, 473, 484, 4
Graafian follicles, 1184, 1204
Gracile funiculus. *See* Funiculus
lobule, 508
nucleus. *See* Nucleus
Gracilis muscle, 365, 375, 376
Granule cells, 514
layers of retina, 732, 733
Gray matter, central, of mid-brain, 5
of cerebellum, 509, 512
of cerebral cortex, 554, 584
cerebro-spinal, 443
of cord, 456, 460
development of, 473
of medulla, 489, 498
of optic thalamus, 544
Groin, 1305
fasciæ of, 356
Groove, antero-lateral, of medulla, 48
antero-median, of cord, 482
auriculo-ventricular, 783, 785, 1262
bicipital, 190, 191, 1293
carotid, 123, 169
digastric, 117, 166
for Eustachian tube, 124, 164, 165
for inferior petrosal sinus, 112, 117,
lachrymal, 132, 133, 138, 151
for lateral sinus, 108, 110, 112, 117, 171
medullary, 21
for meningeal arteries, 115, 105, 167, 169, 170, 171, 172
musculo-spiral, 192
mylo-hyoid, 145, 146
naso-pharyngeal, 1034
neural, 20, 21, 66
obturator, 218, 219, 220
for occipital sinus, 171
œsophageal, 1112
olfactory, 129, 130, 169
optic, 123
for petrosal sinus, 117, 171
for petro-squamosal sinus, 120
popliteal, 228
postero-lateral, of medulla, 482
primitive, 20, 66
pterygo-palatine, 126, 143
sacral, 84
subclavian, 100
for subclavius, 185
subcostal, 99, 100
for superficial petrosal nerve, 119
for superficial petrosal sinus, 117
for superior longitudinal sinus, 105, 167
vertebral, 87, 102
Gubernaculum dentis, 1028
testis, 1168
Gudden, commissure of, 532, 552, 676
Gullet, 1038
Gums, 995, 998
Gustatory cells, 771
hair, 771
pore, 771
Gyrus or Gyri, 554
angular, 563, 564, 1225

Gyrus or Gyri, annectant, deep, 558, 563, 564, 565, 566
callosal, 568
central anterior, 560
posterior, 564
cuneate, 566, 565
cuneo-lingual, anterior, 566
posterior, 566
dentatus, 568
development of, 596
fornicatus, 568
frontal ascending, 560, 1225
inferior, 560, 561, 1225
middle, 560, 561, 1225
superior, 560
hippocampal, 568, 584
lingualis, 566
marginalis, 561
occipito-temporal, 566, 567
orbitalis anterior, 562
internus, 562
posterior, 562
parietal, ascending, 563, 564, 1225
inferior, 563, 564
superior, 563, 564
postcentralis, 563
postparietalis, 563, 564
rectus, 562
subcallosus, 571, 573, 597
supracallosus, 569, 571, 573
supramarginal, 563, 564, 1224
temporal, 567
transverse, 567

Habenula, commissure of, 548
ganglion of, 547
perforata, 765
Hæmorrhoidal arteries. *See* Artery
plexus, 714
venous, 1096
veins. *See* Veins
Hair, 776
development of, 779
of fœtus, 68
erector muscles of, 778
follicle of, 776
papilla of, 777
Hair-cells, auditory, 763, 764, 766, 767
Hair-follicles, 776
Hairs, gustatory, 771
olfactory, 723
Hamstring muscles, 372, 1303
Hamular process, 126, 138, 163
Hamulus of cochlea, 761
lachrymalis, 138
laminæ spiralis, 761
pterygoideus, 126, 163, 1246
of unciform bone, 208
Hand, arterial arches of, 835
articulations of, 284
bones of, 203
fasciæ of, 336
movements of, 289
muscles of, 336, 345
surgical anatomy of, 1298
Hard palate, 152, 160, 162, 177, 180
Hare-lip, 1240
Hasner, valve of, 741
Hassall, concentric corpuscles of, 1220
Haunch-bone, 214
Haustra of colon, 1075

Haversian canals, 71
gland, 295
systems, 71
Head, arteries of, 801, 950
bones of, 103
fasciæ of, 399
lymphatics of, 909
mesodermal somites of, 31, 32
movements of, 398, 416
muscles of, 401, 442
nerves of, 700
segmental characters of, 183, 701
surgical anatomy of, 1222
veins of, 875
Head-cap, 15
Head-fold of embryo, 27, 33
Heart, 780, 783
abnormalities of, 946
annulus ovalis of, 787
aortic cusp of, 791
orifice of, 789, 791, 1262
vestibule of, 791
apex of, 785, 789, 946
arteries of. *See* Arteries, coronary
auricles of, 783, 786, 788, 792, 930, 1262
auricular appendices of, 786, 788, 929
auriculo-ventricular apertures of, 783, 787, 788, 789
groove of, 783, 785, 1262
base of, 784
capacity of, 793
central fibro-cartilage of, 789, 792
chambers of, 786
chordæ tendineæ of, 790, 791
columnæ carneæ of, 790, 791
conus arteriosus of, 789
coronary sinus of, 784, 787, 931, 871, 94[illegible] 954
corpora Arantii of, 790
crista terminalis of, 787
development of, 62, 66, 925, 928
endocardium of, 787, 788, 790, 791, 792
epicardium of, 791, 792
Eustachian valve of, 788, 932
fibrous rings of, 790, 791, 792
foramen ovale of, 787, 788, 930, 947
foramina Thebesii of, 787, 788
fossa ovalis of, 787, 930
infundibulum of, 789
interauricular septum of, 786, 787, 788, 930, 94[illegible]
sulcus of, 784
interventricular septum of, 789, 791, 929, 94[illegible]
sulcus of, 784, 785
lunulæ of valves of, 790
lymphatics of, 793
margins of, 786, 1262
mitral orifice of, 788, 790, 1262, 1290
valve, 790
moderator band of, 790
musculi papillares of, 790, 791, 792
pectinati of, 737, 788
myocardium of, 791
nerves of, 793
orifices of pulmonary veins in, 784, 788
of venæ cavæ in, 787
pars membranacea septi of, 791, 947
primitive, 928
pulmonary orifice of, 789, 790, 1262
valve of, 790, 932
Purkinjé's fibres of, 791
relation of, to wall of thorax, 785, 786, 789, 12[illegible]
semilunar valves of, 790, 791, 932

Heart, shape of, 783
size of, 792
structure of, 791
sulcus terminalis of, 787, 932
surface and surgical anatomy of, 1262
Thebesian valve of, 787, 788, 932
transposition of, 946
tricuspid orifice of, 787, 789, 1262, 1290
valve of, 789
trigona fibrosa of, 789
tubercle of Lower of, 788
veins of, 787, 788, 793, 871, 945
venous valves of, 931
ventricles of, 783, 788, 789, 790, 792
weight of, 793
Helicine arteries, 1173
Helicotrema, 761
Helix, 744
development of, 43
fossa of, 744
muscles of, 746
spine of, 745
tail of, 745
Helmholtz, ligamenta mallei of, 757
Hemispheres, cerebellar, 506
cerebral, 553. *See also* Cerebral hemispheres
Hemispheria bulbi urethræ, 1172
Henle, elastic membrane of, 782
layer of, 777
loop of, 1139
Hensen, cells of, 767
ductus reuniens of, 763, 770
stripe of, 767
Hepatic artery. *See* Artery
cells, 1122
cylinders, 1123
duct, 1118, 1123
flexure of colon, 1074, 1082, 1274, 1288, 1290
lymphatic glands, 918
plexus, 713
veins. *See* Veins
Hepato-duodenal ligament, 1116
Hepato-gastric ligament, 1116
Hepato-renal ligament, 1099
Hernia, 359, 430, 434, 1265, 1266
Hesselbach, triangle of, 434, 1266
Heterodont dentition, 1029
Hiatus canalis facialis, 119
Hiatus Fallopii, 119, 122, 169
interosseous, 283
sacralis, 84
semilunaris, 721, 1239
Highmore, antrum of, 134, 152, 173, 174, 721, 1021, 1240
Highmori, corpus, 1161
Hilum of kidney, 1130, 1290, 1274
of lung, 986
of lymphatic glands, 905
of olivary nucleus, 495, 510
of ovary, 1182
of spleen, 1211
of suprarenal capsule, 1214
Hind-brain, 476, 481
Hind-gut, 33, 34, 45, 1105
Hip, surgical anatomy of, 1302
Hip-bone, 214
Hip-joint, 293
movements at, 296, 375
nerves to, 644, 646, 647, 649, 652
surgical anatomy of, 1306
synovial membrane of, 295
Hippocampal fissure, 554, 568
Hippocampal gyrus, 563
Hippocampus major, 576
connexion with fornix, 572
with thalamus, 573
fimbria of, 568, 572, 577
olfactory bundle of, 572
pes of, 577
Histology, 4
Homodont dentition, 1029
Homology, 2
of limb-bones, 253
serial, 3
of vertebræ, 94
Homoplasy, 3
Horner, muscle of, 741
Horse-shoe kidney, 1140
Hour-glass stomach, 1058
Houston, valves of, 1093
Huguier, canal of, 114, 750
Humeral artery, 829
Humerus, 190, 1292
architecture of, 194
connexions of, 194
homology of, 253
lower epiphysis of, 195, 1297
ossification of, 194
surgical neck of, 191, 1295, 1296
upper epiphysis of, 194, 1293
variations in, 194
Humour, aqueous, 725, 737
Huschke, foramen of, 748
Huxley, layer of, 777
Hyaloid artery, 736, 742
canal, 736, 742
membrane, 735
Hyaloplasm, 8
Hydatid of Morgagni, 1187, 1199
of testis, 1160, 1205
Hymen, 1193, 1196, 1205
Hyo-epiglottidean ligament, 964
Hyo-glossal membrane, 1005
Hyo-glossus muscle, 414, 415, 416
Hyoid arch, 36, 37, 43, 442, 702
artery, 805
bar, 37, 148
bone, 147, 1218
connexions of, 147
cornua of, 147, 1250
development of, 37
movements of, 415, 419
ossification of, 148
Hyparterial bronchus, 976, 990
Hypochondrium, 1047, 1267
Hypochordal spange, 94
bow, 90
Hypogastric artery, 848, 851, 942
obliterated, 848, 851, 1098
nerves, 642, 712, 714
plexus, 712, 714
region, 1267
vein, 895
zone, 1047
Hypogastrium, 1047
Hypoglossal nerve. *See* Nerve
Hypophysis cerebri, 549
Hypospadias, 1203
Hypothalamus, 542, 595
Hypsicephalic skulls, 179

Idiosome, 13, 14
Ileal artery, 847
Ileo-cæcal artery, 847, 1081

Ileo-cæcal fold, 1081, 1082
fossa, 1081
glands, 920
orifice, 1076, 1078
valve, 993, 1077, 1290, 1273
frenula of, 1077
structure of, 1078
vein, 903
Ileo-colic artery, 847
fossa, 1081, 1082
veins, 903
Ileum, 993, 1065, 1071. *See also* Intestine
diverticulum of, 1073
structure of, 1073
vessels and nerves of, 1073
Iliac arteries. *See* Artery
colon, 1074, 1085, 1274
crest, 214, 1290, 1302
fascia, 1044
fossa, 217, 220
lymphatic glands, 920, 921
portion of fascia lata, 356
region, 1047, 1267
spine, anterior inferior, 214
superior, 214, 223, 1302, 1305
posterior inferior, 215, 223
superior, 214, 223, 1302
veins. *See* Veins
Iliacus muscle, 362, 363, 375, 376, 399
minor, 363
Ilio-capsularis muscle, 363
Ilio-coccygeus muscle, 441
Ilio-costalis muscle, 393
Ilio-femoral ligament, 295, 296
Ilio-hypogastric nerve, 642
Ilio-inguinal nerve, 642
Ilio-lumbar artery, 850, 953
ligament, 291
inferior, 291
vein, 895
Ilio-pectineal eminence, 217
line, 217, 224
Ilio-psoas muscle, 362, 376, 1307
Ilio-sacralis muscle, 441
Ilio-sciatic notch, 215
Ilio-tibial band, 357, 360, 368, 369, 1308
Ilio-trochanteric ligament, 295
Ilium, 214, 254
crest of, 214, 223, 1290, 1302
spines of, 214, 223, 1302, 1305
Incisive artery, 812
bundle, 403
centre, 135
fossa, 131
pad of palate, 998, 1000
Incisor crest, 134
foramen, 134, 162
fossa, 144
nerve, 685
teeth, 1015, 1017, 1022
Incisura acetabuli, 217, 219
cardiaca, 988
cerebelli anterior, 506
posterior, 506
ethmoidalis, 104
intertragica, 744
parietalis, 116
temporalis, 560, 568, 584
tentorii, 531, 599
terminalis auris, 745
thyroidea, 958
Incremental lines in dentine, 1024
Incudo-malleolar joint, 756
Incudo-stapedial joint, 756
Incus, 756
articulations of, 757
development of, 757
ligaments of, 757
movements of, 758
processus lenticularis of, 756
Index, alveolar, 180
auricular, 744
cephalic, 178
dental, 181
facial, superior, 179
total, 179
gnathic, 180
nasal, 180, 717
orbital, 180
palato-maxillary, 180
vertical, of skull, 179
Infra-axillary region, 1253
Infraclavicular lymphatic glands, 914
region, 1253
Infracostal angle, 1265
muscles, 422, 426
plane, 1265, 1267
Infraglenoid impression, 186
Infrahyoid muscles, 411, 415, 426
Inframammary region, 1253
Inframandibular nerve, 688
Infraorbital artery, 812
canal, 131, 132, 134, 151, 176
foramen, 131, 151, 1273
margin, 131
nerve, 682
plexus, 682, 688
vein, 880
Infrapatellar bursa, 299
fat-pad, 302
Infrascapular artery, 829
Infraspinatus muscle, 329, 331
Infraspinous fossa, 187, 189
Infrasternal depression, 96
notch, 1255, 1265
region, 1253
Infratemporal crest, 125, 155, 157
fossa, 156
Infundibuliform fascia, 427, 433, 1169
Infundibulo-pelvic ligament, 1284
Infundibulum of brain, 475, 548, 551, 595
ethmoidale, 129, 151, 173, 174, 175
of Fallopian tube, 1186
of heart, 789
of nose, 721
of pulmonary lobules, 991, 992
renal, 1141
Inguinal canal, 432, 1162, 1265
fossa, external, 1098
internal, 1098, 1101
middle, 1098
glands, 916
hernia, 430, 434, 1265, 1266
region, 1047
Inion, 154, 172, 178, 1223
Inner cell-mass, 18, 50
Innominate artery, 800, 801, 933, 942, 948, 950, 1249, 1264
bone, 214
architecture of, 220
connexions of, 219
homology of, 254
ossification of, 220
variations in, 220

Ischial spine, 217, 222, 1303
tuberosity, 217, 223, 1302
Ischio-bulbosus muscle, 436
Ischio-capsular ligament, 295
Ischio-cavernous muscle, 436
Ischio-coccygeus muscle, 441
Ischio-pubicus muscle, 437
Ischio-rectal fossa, 1281
Ischium, 214, 217, 221, 254
spine of, 217, 222, 1303
tuberosity of, 217, 223, 1302
Isthmus of auditory meatus, 747
of brain, 476
of callosal gyrus, 568
cartilaginis auris, 745
of Eustachian tube, 753
of Fallopian tube, 1186
of fauces, 993, 995, 998, 1000, 1244, 1289
of limbic lobe, 568
pharyngo-nasal, 932, 934
of pharynx, 998
rhombencephali, 476
of thyroid gland, 1216, 1249
Iter chordæ anterius, 687, 750
posterius, 687

Jacobson, nerve of, 689
organ of, 41, 720
Jaw, alveoli of, 133, 144, 1016, 1027, 1028
lower, 143, 152
angle of, 144, 1237
body of, 143, 1237
condyle of, 145, 1237
coronoid process of, 145, 1237
movements of, 410
ramus of, 143, 144, 1237
upper, 131
Jejunum, 993, 1065, 1071. *See also* Intestine
structure of, 1073
vessels and nerves of, 1073
Joints, 255
acromio-clavicular, 274, 275, 1292
amphiarthrodial, 256, 257, 260
ankle, 306, 1310
arthrodial, 257
astragalo-scaphoid, 309, 1312
atlo-axial, 265, 267, 398
of auditory ossicles, 756
ball-and-socket, 257, 259
biaxial, 257
calcaneo-astragaloid, 308, 1311
calcaneo-cuboid, 311, 1311
capsule of, 258
carpal, 284, 289
carpo-metacarpal, 287
classification of, 255
of clavicle, 273
condyloid, 257
costo-central, 269
costo-chondral, 271, 1255
costo-sternal, 271
costo-transverse, 270
costo-vertebral, 269
crico-arytenoid, 962
crico-thyroid, 961
cubo-cuneiform, 312
development of, 259
diarthrodial, 256, 257, 260
elbow, 279
enarthrodial, 257
of foot, 306
nerves of, 651, 653, 654, 655
Joints, hinge, 257
hip, 293
humero-ulnar, 279
immovable, 255, 260
incudo-malleolar, 756
incudo-stapedial, 756
intercentral, 261
interchondral, 271
intercoccygeal, 264
intercuneiform, 312
intermetacarpal, 287, 289
intermetatarsal, 314
interneural, 261, 263
interphalangeal, of foot, 314, 315, 390
of hand, 288, 1289, 1300
interpubic, 292, 293
intertarsal, 308, 312
knee, 297
of larynx, 961
of lower extremity, 293
lumbo-sacral, 289
metacarpo-phalangeal, 288, 289, 1299
metatarso-phalangeal, 314, 315, 390, 1311, 1312
movable, 256, 260
movements at, 259
multiaxial, 257, 259
occipito-atloid, 266, 398
of pelvis, 289, 293
pisi-cuneiform, 286
radio-carpal, 283, 1298
radio-humeral, 279, 1297
radio-ulnar, inferior, 282
superior, 281
rotatory, 257
sacro-coccygeal, 264
sacro-iliac, 290, 293, 1302
scapho-cuboid, 311
scapho-cuneiform, 312
scapulo-clavicular, 274
shoulder, 276
of spine with cranium, 266
sternal, 272
sterno-clavicular, 273, 275, 326
structures forming, 257
synarthrodial, 255, 257
talo-calcaneal, 308
talo-calcaneo-navicular, 309, 315
talo-scaphoid, 309, 315, 1312
tarsal, 308, 315
tarso-metatarsal, 313, 315, 1311
temporo-mandibular, 267
temporo-maxillary, 267, 1230
of thorax, 269
tibio-fibular, inferior, 304
superior, 304, 389
transverse carpal, 285
transverse tarsal, 311, 315
uniaxial, 257
of upper extremity, 273
of vertebral column, 261
wrist, movements at, 354
xiphisternal, 272, 1255, 1290, 1267
Jugal point, 179
Jugular foramen, 118, 165, 170, 172
fossa, 118, 120, 122, 165, 1233
ganglion. *See* Ganglion
lymphatic trunk, 908
notch, 112
process, 112, 162, 166
tubercle, 112
veins. *See* Veins
primitive, 935, 936, 937

epiglottidean, 964; ilio-femoral, 295, 296; ilio-lumbar, 291; ilio-trochanteric, 295; of incus, 756, 757; infundibulo-pelvic, 1284; interarticular, 258, 260, 264, 270, 272, 295; interchondral, 271; interclavicular, 274, 275; intercuneiform, 312; intermetatarsal, 314; interosseous, 285, 286, 287, 305, 309, 311, 312, 313; interspinous, 263; intertransverse, 264; ischio-capsular, 295, 297; of knee-joint, 298; lambdoid, 377; of larynx, 961; lienorenal, 1099, 1108, 1212; of Lisfranc, 1311; of liver, 1116; lumbo-costal, 271; lumbosacral, 289; malleolar, 305; of malleus, 756; metacarpo-phalangeal, 288; metatarso-phalangeal, 314; morphology of, 261; oblique, 283; occipito-atloid, 266; occipito-axoid, 266; odontoid, 267; orbicular, 282; orbito-tarsal, 1239; of ovary, 1184, 1190; palpebral, 739, 1239; of patella, 298, 357, 362, 377, 1307; of pelvis, 289; of peritoneum, 1050; phreno-colic, 1083, 1104; of pinna, 745; pisi-metacarpal, 286, 340; pisi-unciform, 286, 340; plantar, 311; of Poupart, 429, 1305; pterygo-spinous, 269, 401; pubic, 292; pubo-capsular, 295; pubo-femoral, 295, 296; pubo-prostatic, 439, 1156; pyloric, 1058; radio-carpal, 283; radio-ulnar, 282; rhomboid, 274, 275; round of liver, 903, 935, 1116; round of uterus, 1190, 1284; sacro-coccygeal, 264; sacro-iliac, 290; sacro-sciatic, great, 291; sacro-sciatic, small, 292; scapho-cuboid, 311; scapho-cuneiform, 312; of scapula, 275; of shoulder-joint, 276; spheno-mandibular, 37, 268; spino-glenoid, 275; spiral of cochlea, 765; of stapes, 756; stellate, 269; sterno-clavicular, 273, 275; sterno-pericardial, 793; stylo-hyoid, 37, 269; stylo-mandibular, 269, 401, 1010; subpubic, 292; suprascapular, 275; supraspinous, 264; suspensory, of clitoris, 1197; suspensory, of lens, 736; suspensory, of ovary, 1183; suspensory, of penis, 1172; talo-calcaneal, 309; talo-fibular, 307; talo-tibial, 307; tarsal, of eyelids, 739, 741; tarso-metatarsal, 313; temporo-mandibular, 267, 268; thyro-arytenoid, 963; thyro-epiglottidean, 964; thyro-hyoid, 962; tibio-fibular, 304, 305; tibio-navicular, 307; transverse, of acetabulum, 294; transverse, of atlas, 265, 267; transverse, humeral, 277; transverse, of knee, 302; transverse, metacarpal, 287, 288, 338; transverse, metatarsal, 314, 378; transverse, perineal, 293; trapezoid, 274, 275; triangular, of liver, 1116; triangular, of perineum, 292, 438; of tympanic membrane, 750; utero-sacral, 1189; of uterus, 1101, 1189; vaginal, 339, 378; of vertebral column and skull, 261

Ligamentum or Ligamenta, accessoria, 342, 343, 384
- apicis dentis, 267
- brevia, 342, 343, 384
- collateralia, 314
- denticulatum, 453, 602, 605
- jugale, 962
- labyrinthi canaliculorum, 764
- latum pulmonis, 979, 983
- longa, 342, 343, 384
- mucosum, 302
- nuchæ, 264
- patellæ, 299, 362
- pectinatum iridis, 727
- posticum Winslowii, 299

Ligamentum or Ligamenta, spirale cochleæ, 765
- subflava, 263
- teres femoris, 295, 297
  - hepatis, 1116
  - uteri, 1190, 1284
- vaginale, 1167
- venosum Arantii, 1117
- ventriculare, 963
- vocale, 963

Ligula, 512

Limbs, development of, 46, 66, 67
- dorsal axial line of, 614, 672
- lower, arteries of, 856, 934, 943
  - articulations of, 293
  - bones of, 184, 214
  - fasciæ of, 355
  - lymphatics of, 917
  - movements of, 390
  - muscles, 355
  - nerves of, cutaneous, 668, 669, 671, muscular, 669, 670, 671
  - surgical anatomy of, 1302
  - veins of, 897, 938, 946, 955
- morphology of, 253
  - of muscles of, 441
  - of nerve-plexuses of, 662
- nature of, 662
- nerve-plexuses of, 662, 672, 673, 674
- post-axial border of, 662, 663, 664
- pre-axial border of, 662, 663, 664
- segmental relations of, 663
- surfaces of, 662, 663
- upper, articulations of, 273
  - arteries of, 821, 933, 943, 951
  - bones of, 184
  - fasciæ of, 318
  - lymphatics of, 913
  - muscles of, 318
  - nerves of, cutaneous, 665, 666, 672 muscular, 667, 671
  - surgical anatomy of, 1291
  - veins of, 888, 938, 946, 955
- ventral axial line of, 660, 672

Limb-girdles, 254

Limbic lobe, 568

Limbus fossæ ovalis, 787, 930
- laminæ spiralis, 765

Limen insulæ, 568
- nasi, 719

Linea or Lineæ, alba, 428, 1265, 1267
- aspera of femur, 226, 227, 229
- intercondyloidea, 227
- nuchæ inferior, 110
  - mediana, 109
  - superior, 109, 154, 159
  - suprema, 109, 154, 159
- semilunaris, 430, 432
- splendens, 605
- transversæ, 465, 1232

Line or Lines, ano-cutaneous, 1095

Line or lines, base, of Reid, 1227
- of chest. *See* Thorax
- curved, of ilium, 215
  - of occipital bone, 109, 154, 159, 16
- dorsal axial, of limbs, 614, 672
- epicondylic, 227
- ilio-pectineal, 217, 221, 224
- incremental, 1024
- intertrochanteric, 225
- intertubercular, 1047
- lateral, organs of, 701
- mammillary, 981

Line or Lines, median, 5
mid-lateral, of thorax, 982
mylo-hyoid, 144, 167
of Nelaton, 1302
oblique, of mandible, 143, 144, 167
of tibia, 233
pectineal, 227
of pleural reflection, 979
popliteal, of tibia, 233
post-central, 1225
Poupart, 104
pre-central, 1225
of Schreger, 1024
spiral, of femur, 225, 227
subcostal, 1047
Sylvian, 1225
ventral axial, of limbs, 660, 672
white, of anus, 1095
of pelvis, 438, 440
Lingual artery. *See* Artery
cusps of teeth, 1017
duct, 1217
glands, 1006
gyrus, 566
lymphatic glands, 911
nerve. *See* Nerve
tonsil, 1001, 1242
vein, 876
Lingualis muscle, inferior, 415
superior, 415
Lingula, 124, 145
of cerebellum, 487, 506, 507
Linin, 8, 9
Lip, rhombic, 527
Lips, 996, 1240
commissures of, 995
development of, 39, 68
frenulum of, 995
glands of, 996, 997, 1240
lymphatics of, 997
mucous membrane of, 996
nerves of, 997
philtrum of, 996, 1103
structure of, 996
tubercle of, 996
Liquor folliculi, 1185
pericardii, 794
Lisfranc, ligament of, 1311
Lissauer, tract of, 468
Littré, glands of, 1180
Liver, 994, 1108
areolar coat of, 1121
arteries of, 1120
bile canaliculi of, 1118, 1122
capsule of Glisson of, 1115, 1120, 1121
cardiac depression of, 1113
caudate lobe of, 1113
cells of, 1122
in child, 1117
colic impression of, 1113
congenital irregularities in, 1118
coronary ligament of, 1099, 1115, 1116
development of, 1122
duodenal impression of, 1114
excretory ducts of, 1118, 1122, 1123
falciform ligament of, 1098, 1107, 1113, 1115, 1116, 1124, 1270
fissures of, 1112, 1114
fixation of, 1118
form of, 1108, 1117
fossa of gall-bladder of, 1115
of vena cava of, 1111, 1115
Liver, gastric impression of, 1113
inferior margin of, 1108, 1114
interlobular ducts of, 1118, 1122, 1123
ligaments of, 1116
lobes of, 1115, 1286
lobules of, 1117, 1121
longitudinal fissure of, 1115
lymphatics of, 1121
nerves of, 1121
notch of gall-bladder of, 1114, 1115
œsophageal groove of, 1112
omental tuberosity of, 1113
parietal surface of, 1108, 1110
peritoneal relations of, 1115
physical characters of, 1117
pons hepatis of, 1111, 1114
portal canals of, 1120
fissure of, 1113, 1115
position of, 1109, 1117, 1118
quadrate lobe of, 1113, 1114
relations of, 1110
renal impression of, 1113
Riedel's lobe of, 1117
round ligament of, 903, 935, 1116
serous coat of, 1121
size of, 1110, 1117
Spigelian lobe of, 1112
structure of, 1121
suprarenal impression of, 1111
surgical anatomy of, 1270, 1286
tuberculum papillare of, 1112
umbilical fissure of, 1114
notch of, 1114
uncovered area of, 1111
variations in, 1117
visceral surface of, 1108, 1113
veins of, 1120
central or intralobular, 1120, 1121
interlobular, 1120
sublobular, 1121
weight of, 1110, 1117
Lobe or Lobes, of cacumen, 507
caudate, of liver, 1112, 1113
central, of cerebellum, 506, 507
cerebellar, 506
cerebral, 555
of clivus, 507
of culmen, 507
frontal, 560
insular, 556, 567
limbic, 568
of liver, 1115
of lung, 988, 992
of nodulus, 508
occipital, 564, 1225
olfactory, 479, 569, 588, 596
parietal, 562
of pyramid of cerebellum, 508
pyramidal, of thyroid, 1216 1217
pyriform, 568, 584
quadrate, of liver, 1114
of Riedel, 1117
Spigelian, of liver, 1112
temporal, 567, 588, 1225
of tuber of cerebellum, 508
of uvula of cerebellum, 508
Lobule of ear, 744, 745
Lobules of cerebellum, 506, 507, 508
of lung, 990
Locus cœruleus, 488, 527
perforatus anticus, 475, 570, 580, 582
posticus, 475, 478, 548, 550

Long bones, 70, 71, 72
Longissimus capitis muscle, 395
cervicis muscle, 394
dorsi muscle, 393
Longitudinal bundle, posterior, 491, 494, 502, 504, 524, 535, 537, 541, 542, 553
sinus. *See* Sinus
Longus colli muscle, 421
Loop of Henle, 1139
of subclavian,
Lowenthal, marginal bundle of, 521
Lower, tubercle of, 788
Lumbar aponeurosis, 1044
arteries, 839, 850, 933, 940, 949
fascia, 318, 391
ganglia, 710
lymphatic glands, 922
trunk, 908
nerves. *See* Nerves
plexus, 639, 641
region, 1047, 1267, 1285
rib, 92, 94, 100
sympathetic, 710
veins. *See* Veins
vertebræ, 75, 82
Lumbo-sacral cord, 648
joint, 289
ligament, 289
plexus. *See* Plexus
Lumbricales muscles of foot, 384, 389, 390
of hand, 343, 353, 354, 355
Lung, 983
air-cells of, 991, 992
alveolar ducts of, 991
apex of, 985, 1255, 1289
azygos lobe of, 989
sulcus of, 987
blood-vessels of, 991
bronchial tubes of, 989
bronchioles of, 991
cardiac lobe of, 990
notch of, 988
development of, 992
fissures of, 988, 1258
fœtal, 985
form of, 985
hilum of, 986
infundibula of, 991, 992
ligamentum latum of, 979, 983
lobules of, 990
lower lobe, 988
lymphatics of, 989
middle lobe of, 989
nerves, 989
root of, 989, 1260, 1290
structure of, 990
sulcus subclavius of, 985, 987
surgical anatomy of, 1255
upper lobe of, 988
variations, 989
Lunula, 775, 790
Lymph, 904
Lymphatic capillaries, 905
Lymphatic duct, right, 904, 906, 909, 956
glands, 904, 905
of abdomen, 918
ano-rectal, 1281
ante-cubital, 913
anterior auricular, 910
anterior jugular, 911
anterior tibial, 916
aortic, 922
Lymphatic glands, appendicular, 920
axillary, 914, 1294
bronchial, 924
buccal, 910
carotid, 1247
cervical, 911, 912, 1251, 1252
circumflex-iliac, 921
cœliac, 920
colic, 920
common iliac, 921
diaphragmatic, 924
of digastric triangle, 1250
epigastric, 921
external iliac, 920
facial, 910, 1173
femoral, 916, 1306
follicles of, 906
gastric, 918, 1060
of head and neck, 909, 911
hepatic, 918
ileo-cæcal, 920
infra-clavicular, 914
infra-umbilical, 921
inguinal, 916, 1306
intercostal, 923
internal iliac, 921
mammary, 924
maxillary, 909
intertracheo-branchial, 924
lateral aortic, 922
lingual, 909
of lower limb, 916
lumbar, 922
mandibular, 910
mastoid, 909
mediastinal, 924
mesenteric, 919, 920, 1072, 1073
mesocolic, 1075
obturator, 921
occipital, 909
of the promontory, 921
pancreatic, 919
parotid, 910
pectoral, 914, 1294
of pelvis, 918
popliteal, 916, 1305
posterior auricular, 909
of posterior triangle, 1252
post-pharyngeal, 911, 1037, 1246
pre-aortic, 922
pre-auricular, 1238
pre-laryngeal, 911
pre-tracheal, 911, 1249
pubic, 916
rectal, 920, 1092, 1096
retro-aortic, 922
retro-crural, 920
retro-peritoneal, 1277
retro-pyloric, 918
sacral, 921
sinuses of, 906
splenic, 918, 1060
sternal, 924
structure of, 906
sub-clavian, 914
sub-clavicular, 1294
sub-maxillary, 911
sub-mental, 911
sub-pyloric, 918
sub-scapular, 914, 1294
sub-sternomastoid, 912
supra-clavicular, 913

Lymphatic glands, supra-condyloid, 1295
supra-hyoid, 911, 1218
supra-trochlear, 914
supra-umbilical, 921
of thorax, 923
trabeculæ of, 906
of upper limb, 913
visceral, of abdomen and pelvis, 918
visceral, of thorax, 924
zygomatic, 909
spaces, 904
perivascular, 905
trunk, common intestinal, 908
common lumbar, 908
descending, 908
jugular, 908
retro-aortic, 908
subclavian, 908
vessels, 905
of abdomen, 918
abnormalities of, 955
of anus, 1281
of arm, 915
of breast, 923
of buttock, 917
of blood-vessels, 783
of bones, 74
central, of hand, 915
cerebral, 909
endothelium of, 904
extra-cranial, 909
of foot, 917
of forearm, 915
of hand, 915
of head and neck, 909
of heart, 793
intra-cranial, 909
lateral aortic, 908
of leg, 917
of lower limb, 916
of lung, 989
meningeal, 909
of pelvis, 918
pre-aortic, 908
of scalp, 1223
terminal, 906
of thigh, 917
of thorax, 923
of tongue, 1007, 1244
tunica externa of, 905
interna, 905
media of, 905
of upper limb, 913, 915
valves of, 905
visceral, of abdomen and pelvis, 918
Lymph-vascular system, 780, 904
Lyra, 572

Macrodont skulls, 181, 1029
Macula acustica, 762, 763
cribrosa media, 759
superior, 759
lutea, 731, 734
Maier, sinus of, 740
Malar bone, 103, 135, 149, 151, 152, 160, 1237
architecture of, 137
connexions of, 137
ossification of, 137
variations in, 137
canal, 136
centre, 135
Malar crest, 125
nerve, 681, 688
process, 133
tuberosity, 136
Male pronucleus, 16
Malleolar arteries, 865, 868
folds of tympanic membrane, 750
Malleolus, external, 238, 1310
internal, 234, 1310
Malleus, 754, 1231
articulations of, 756
development of, 757
ligaments of, 757
movements of, 758
Malo-maxillary suture, 149
Malpighian corpuscles, 1139, 1202, 1213
layer of skin, 773
Mammary artery. *See* Artery
gland, 1207
alveoli of, 1208
ampullæ of, 1208
areola of, 1207
areolar glands of, 1207
development of, 1209
lobes of, 1208
lymphatics of, 923
nerves of, 1209
nipple of, 1207, 1208
stroma of, 1208
structure of, 1207
supernumerary, 1208
surgical anatomy of, 1293
suspensory ligaments of, 1293
variations in, 1208
vessels of, 1209
line, 981, 1253
lymphatic glands, 924
region, 1253
veins, 874
Mammillary bodies, 475, 478, 595
line, 981, 1253
process of vertebræ, 83, 92
Mandible, 103, 143, 268
Mandibular arch, 36, 38, 43, 442, 701
foramen, 144
Mantle-layer, 472
Manubrium mallei, 755, 756
sterni, 94
Marginal artery of heart, 800
gyrus, 561
tract, 521
veins of heart, 871
Marrow, 71
gelatinous, 72
red, 72
yellow, 71
Marrow cells, 71
Marshall, oblique vein of, 785, 871
vestigial fold of, 784, 795
Martinotti, cells of, 586
Masseter muscle, 407, 416
Masseteric artery, 807, 812
border of malar bone, 136
fascia, 400
vein, 880
Mastication, muscles of, 407, 410
Mastoid air-cells, 752, 1234
artery, 808
angle of parietal, 109
antrum, 44, 120, 122, 156, 749, 752
aditus of, 120, 1233
surgical anatomy of, 1233

Mastoid border-cells, 1234
canaliculus, 118
foramen, 117, 156, 171
fossa, 1233
lymphatic glands, 909
process, 116, 121, 122, 159, 167, 177, 752, 1234
Maturation of ovum, 12
Maxilla inferior, 103, 143, 152, 157, 166, 177
architecture of, 145
body of, 143
ossification of, 146
ramus of, 143, 144, 146, 157, 166
variations in, 146
superior, 103, 131, 149, 151, 152, 156, 160, 173
antrum of. *See* Maxillary sinus
architecture of, 134
body of, 131
connexions of, 134
ossification of, 135
processes of, 131, 133
variations in, 134
Maxillary artery. *See* Artery
lymphatic glands, internal, 909
nerves, 681, 683
process, 36, 38, 39, 41, 67, 66
of malar, 139
of palate bone, 142
sinus, 131, 133, 134, 135, 151, 152, 173, 174, 176, 177
surgical anatomy of, 1240
vein, internal, 880, 945
Maxillo-turbinal, 140
Meatus, auditory, external, 116, 120, 122, 155, 746, 1229
development of, 44
internal, 119, 171, 172, 761
of nose, atrium of, 721
inferior, 152, 173, 177, 721, 1293
middle, 129, 133, 152, 173, 177, 721, 1293
superior, 129, 173, 720
urinarius, 1170
Mechanism of foot, 315
of pelvis, 293
Meckel, band of, 757
cartilage of, 36, 146
diverticulum of, 1073, 1105
ganglion of, 682, 699
Median artery, 834, 943, 952
line, 5
nerve, 625, 627, 1295, 1296, 1297, 1301
veins. *See* Veins
Median-basilic vein, 891, 1297
Median-cephalic vein, 890, 955, 1297
Mediastinal arteries, 825, 839
lymphatic glands, 924
pleura, 977, 978
space, 977, 982
veins, 874
Mediastinum testis, 1161
thoracis, 976
anterior, 983
middle, 983
posterior, 983
superior, 982, 1289
Medulla of bone, 71
of kidney, 1138
oblongata, 481
anterior basis-bundle of, 483, 491, 494
antero-lateral furrow of, 482
antero-median groove of, 482
arcuate fibres of. *See* Arcuate fibres
Medulla oblongata, areas of, 483, 499, 48
acustic, 488, 520, 527
anterior, 483, 499
lateral, 483, 499
posterior, 484, 499
association fibres of, 498
calamus scriptorius of, 488
central canal of, 498
cerebello-olivary fibres of, 496
clava of, 484, 492
closed part of, 482, 489, 525
cuneate tubercle of, 485, 492
development of, 477, 480, 526
direct cerebellar tract of, 484, 485, 4
fasciculus solitarius of, 517, 527
fillet-fibres of, 493, 496
foramen cæcum of, 482
formatio-reticularis of, 490, 498, 499
fovea inferior of, 488, 527
funiculus cuneatus of, 484, 489, 491,
gracilis of, 484, 489, 491, 492
of Rolando of, 485, 491
gray matter of, 489, 498
intercalated portion of, 526
internal structure of, 489
lateral basis-bundle of, 484, 498
nuclei of, 490. *See also* Nucleus, g
arcuate, olivary, cuneate, lateralis
olivary eminence of, 484, 494. *Se*
Nucleus, olivary
open part of, 482, 487
origin of nerves from, 482, 514
position and connexions of, 475, 481
posterior longitudinal bundle in, 491
postero-lateral furrow of, 482
postero-median fissure of, 482
pyramidal tract in, 483, 489, 490,
528
pyramids of, 483, 490, 528
raphe of, 489, 528,
restiform body of, 485, 489, 496
striæ acusticæ of, 488, 497, 521
tract of Gowers in, 484, 498
trigonum acustici of, 488
hypoglossi of, 488, 516, 527
vagi of, 488, 517, 527
tuberculum Rolandi of, 485, 491
veins of, 883
white matter of, 489
Medullary arteries. *See* Arteries, nutrie
cavity, 71
centre, 554, 584, 588
corona radiata of, 591
myelinisation of, 594
folds, 21, 66
groove, 21, 66
lamina, external, 543, 544, 580
internal, 545, 580
rays, 1138
velum. *See* Velum
Megacephalic skulls, 178
Megadont skulls, 181
Megaseme skulls, 180
Meibomian glands, 739, 1238
Meissner, corpuscles of, 775
plexus of, 1060, 1073
Melanin, 774
Membrana atlanto-occipitalis, 266
basilaris cochleæ, 761, 764, 765, 766
substantia propria of, 766
vas spirale of, 766
zona arcuata of, 766

Membrana basilaris cochleæ, zona, pectinata of, 766
limitans retinæ externa, 734
retinæ interna, 734
pupillaris, 730, 742
sterni, 271, 272
tectoria, 266, 766, 767
tympani, 43, 750, 1231
annulus fibro-cartilagineus of, 750
blood-vessels of, 751
dendritic fibres of, 752
folds of, 1231
lymphatics of, 751
Membrana tympani, malleolar folds of, 750
membrana propria of, 751
nerves of, 751
otoscopic appearances of, 751
paracentesis of, 1232
pars flaccida of, 750
tensa of, 750
secundaria, 752
stratum circulare of, 751
cutaneum of, 751
mucosum of, 751
radiatum of, 751
triangular cone of, 1232
umbo of, 751
vestibularis, 765
Membrane bones, 72, 182
of Bruch, 728, 729
bucco-pharyngeal, 35, 38
cloacal, 21, 23, 45
chorionic, 52
costo-coracoid, 321, 828
crico-thyroid, 962, 1249, 1289
elastic, of Henle, 781
fenestrated, 781
hyaloid, 735
hyoglossal, 1005
interosseous of forearm, 283
of leg, 304
of Nasmyth, 1024
nictitating, 738
nuclear, 8, 9, 10
obturator, 293
periosteal, 71
of Reissner, 765
of Ruysch, 728
Schneiderian, 722
of Shrapnell, 750, 1232
thyro-hyoid, 962, 1218
tympanic. *See* Membrana tympani
vitelline, 11
Membranes, fœtal, 48, 59
Synovial, 257, 258, 260, 278, 281, 282, 284, 286, 288, 295, 302, 307, 312
Membranous cranium, 181
labyrinth, 759, 762
vertebral column, 30, 90
Meningeal arteries. *See* Artery
lymphatics, 909
veins, 880, 881
Meninges, 597. *See also* Dura, Arachnoid, Pia Mater
Meniscus, 258, 260, 268, 274, 275, 301
Mental artery, 812
foramen, 143, 146, 1237
nerve, 685
protuberance, 143, 146
spines, 144
tubercles, 143
Merkel, *filtrum* ventriculi of, 965
Mesaticephalic skulls, 178
Mesencephalon, 476, 477, 481, 531. *See also* Mid-brain
Mesenteric arteries. *See* Arteries
ganglion, superior, 713
lymphatic glands, 919
plexus, 713, 714
veins. *See* Veins
Mesenterico-mesocolic fold, 1069
Mesentery, 993, 1065, 1071, 1269
development of, 33, 1106
dorsal, 1106
folds of, 1072
primitive, 1105
root of, 1071, 1072
structure of, 1072
ventral, 1106, 1124
of vermiform appendix, 1080, 1105
Mesial plane, 4
Meso-appendix, 1080, 1105
Mesoblast, 19, 20, 22
Mesocephalic skulls, 178
Mesocolic glands, 1075
Mesocolon, descending, 1084
development of, 1108
pelvic, 1086, 1100
sigmoid, 1085, 1086
transverse, 1083, 1104, 1127, 1269
Mesoderm, 19, 20, 22, 25, 30, 50, 65
lateral plates of, 26, 30, 31
paraxial, 26
somites of, 26, 30, 31, 66
structures formed from, 30
Mesodont skulls, 181, 1029
Mesoduodenum, 1108
Mesogastrium, 1107
Mesognathion, 1013
Mesognathous skulls, 180
Mesometrium, 1190
Mesonephros, 1199, 1201
Mesorchium, 1167
Mesorectum, 1085, 1086
Mesorhine skulls, 180, 717
Mesosalpinx, 1185, 1189
Mesoseme skulls, 180
Mesosternum, 94
Mesotympanum, 1232
Mesovarium, 1182, 1184, 1189
Mesuranic skulls, 180
Metacarpal arteries, 783
bones, 203, 209, 1299
architecture of, 212
ossification of, 212
variations in, 212
ligament, transverse, 338
tubercle, 1299
Metacarpo-phalangeal joints, 288, 1299
Metaphase, 10, 13
Metasternum, 95
Metatarsal artery, 869
bones, 249
architecture of, 251
ossification of, 251
variation in, 251
ligaments, transverse, 314, 378
Metatarso-phalangeal joints, 314, 315, 390, 1311, 1312
Metathalamus, 542, 594
Metencephalon, 477, 481
Metopic fontanelle, 106
ossicle, 106
suture, 104, 160

Metrio-cephalic skulls, 179
Meynert, decussation of, 539
Microcephalic skulls, 178
Microdont skulls, 181, 1029
Microseme skulls, 180
Microsome, 8
Mid-brain, 481, 531
  aqueduct of Sylvius of, 531, 533, 542, 551
  corpora quadrigemina of, 531. *See also* Corpora quadrigemina
  cortico-pontine fibres of, 540
  crura of, 532. *See also* Crura cerebri
  deep origin of nerves from, 540
  development of, 476, 477, 542
  fasciculus retroflexus of, 539
  fillet fibres of, 533, 534, 535, 538
  fountain decussation of, 539
  frenulum veli of, 531, 542
  ganglion interpedunculare of, 539
  internal structure of, 533
  lamina quadrigemina of, 533
  lateral sulcus of, 533
  nuclei of, 533, 534, 535, 536
  oculomotor sulcus of, 533
  posterior longitudinal bundle of, 535, 537
  pyramidal fibres of, 540
  situation and connexions of, 476, 531
  stratum griseum centrale of, 533
    intermedium of, 581
  substantia nigra of, 533, 546, 581
  superior cerebellar peduncle in, 535
  sylvian gray matter of, 533, 540, 550
  veins of, 883
Mid-clavicular line, 1253
Mid-gut, 33, 34, 1105
Mid-sternal line, 1253
Middle-ear. *See* Tympanic cavity
Milk-teeth, 1014, 1015, 1022, 1027, 1242
Mitochondrial sheath, 15
Mitosis, 9
  heterotype, 13, 15
  homotype, 13
Mitral area, 1262
  orifice, 788, 790, 1262, 1290
Moderator band, 790
Modiolus, 760
Molar artery, 812
  glands, 997
  teeth, 1015, 1019, 1023, 1027
Molecular layers of retina, 732, 733
Moll, glands of, 739, 778
Monro, foramen of, 476, 479, 544, 551, 573, 594
  sulcus of, 551, 594
Mons Veneris, 1182, 1195
Montgomery, glands of, 1207
Monticulus, 506, 507
Morgagni, columns of, 1093, 1094, 1280
  hydatid of, 1187, 1199
Morphology, 2
  of appendicular skeleton, 253
  of cervical plexus, 622
  of cranial nerves, 700
  of head-muscles, 442
  of ligaments, 261
  of limbs, 253
  of limb-muscles, 441
  of limb-plexuses, 662
  of posterior divisions of spinal nerves, 614
  of primitive streak, 19
  of pudendal plexus, 660
  of skeletal muscles, 441
  of skull, 181
Morphology of sympathetic system, 71
  of teeth, 929
  of vascular system, 938, 943
Morula, 17, 65
Moss-fibres, 514
Motor area, 1225
Mouth, 993, 995
  aperture of, 995
  buccal glands of, 997
  cavity of, 995, 997
  development of, 34, 38, 41, 67
  floor of, 997
  incisive pad of, 998, 1000
  labial glands of, 996, 997
  molar glands of, 997
  mucous membrane of, 996
  muscles of, 403
  plica sublingualis of, 997
  primitive, 34
  roof of, 997
  sucking-pad of, 997
  sublingual caruncle of, 997
    region of, 997
  vestibule of, 995
Movable joints, 256
Movements in leaping, 390
  in locomotion, 390
  of respiration, 426
  in running, 390
  in swallowing, 419
  in walking, 390
Mucous glands, 1008
Müller, fibres of, 699, 734
    muscle of, 406
Müllerian duct, 1199, 1204
Multicuspidate teeth, 1019
Multifidus spinæ muscle, 395, 398, 399
Muscle or Muscles, of abdominal wall, 4
  abductor digiti quinti, 347, 353, 387,
    hallucis, 386, 389, 1312
    longus pollicis, 351
    minimi digiti of foot, 387, 389
      of hand, 347, 353
    pollicis brevis, 345, 353, 355
  accessorius of back, 393
    of foot, 384, 389
  adductor brevis, 366, 375, 376, 399
    longus, 365, 375, 376, 399, 1306
    magnus, 366, 375, 376, 399, 1308
    minimus, 367
    obliquus hallucis, 388, 389
      pollicis, 346, 353
    transversus hallucis, 388, 389
      pollicis, 346, 353, 355
  agitator caudæ, 369
  anconeus, 350, 354
  antitragicus, 746
  appendicular, 318
  of arm, 332
  arrectores pilorum, 778
  aryteno-epiglottidean, 968, 970
  arytenoid, 968, 971
  ary-vocalis, 970, 971
  attollens aurem, 402, 404
  attrahens aurem, 402, 404
  auricularis anterior, 402
    posterior, 402
    superior, 402
  axial, 318, 391
  azygos uvulæ, 418, 419
  of back, 318, 392, 398
  biceps brachii, 332, 336, 354, 1297

Muscle or Muscles, levator glandulæ thyroideæ, 412, 1217
levator labii superioris, 403, 405
alæque nasi, 403, 405
menti, 404, 405
palati, 418, 419
palpebræ superioris, 405, 407
prostatæ, 441
levatores costarum, 422, 426
lingualis inferior, 415
superior, 415
of little finger, 346
longissimus capitis, 395
longissimus cervicis, 394
dorsi, 393
longus colli, 421
of lower limb, 355
lumbricales of foot, 384, 389, 390
of hand, 343, 353, 354, 355
masseter, 407, 416
of mastication, 407, 410
morphology of, 441
of mouth, 403
of Müller, 406
multifidus spinæ, 395, 398, 399
mylo-hyoid, 413, 415, 416
nasalis, 403
of neck, 410, 419
of nose, 403, 405
obliquus auriculæ, 746
externus abdominis, 427
inferior, of neck, 397, 399
of orbit, 406
internus abdominis, 430
superior, of neck, 397, 399
of orbit, 406, 407
obturator externus, 367, 375, 376, 399
internus, 371, 375, 376, 399
occipito-frontalis, 401, 404, 1222
omohyoid, 411, 415, 416, 1250
opponens digiti quinti, 347, 353, 355
minimi digiti, 347, 353, 355
pollicis, 345, 353, 355
orbicularis oris, 403, 405, 996
palpebrarum, 402, 404, 404
of orbit, 405, 407, 442
origin of, 317
palato-glossus, 415, 416, 419
palato-pharyngeus, 417, 418, 419
palmaris brevis, 336
longus, 340, 353, 354, 1300
papillares of heart, 790, 791, 792
pectinati, 787, 788
pectineus, 364, 375, 376
of pectoral region, 321
pectoralis major, 322, 326, 331, 426, 1253
minimus, 324
minor, 324, 326, 426
of pelvis, 440
of perineum, 435
peroneo-calcaneus, 385
externus, 381
peroneo-cuboideus, 381
peroneus accessorius, 381
brevis, 381, 389, 1309, 1311, 1312
longus, 381, 389, 1309, 1311, 1312
quinti digiti, 381
tertius, 380, 389, 1312
of pharynx, 416, 419, 442
of pinna, 746
plantaris, 382, 389
platysma myoides, 401, 404, 442
Muscle or Muscles, popliteus, 383, 38
minor, 384
pronator quadratus, 344, 353, 354
radii teres, 339, 353, 354
psoas magnus, 362, 375, 398, 399, 1
parvus, 363, 375, 398, 399
pterygoid, external, 408, 410
internal, 410
pubo-cavernosus, 437
pubo-coccygeus, 441, 1095
pubo-rectalis, 441
pubo-vesicalis, 1157
pyramidalis abdominis, 431
pyramidalis nasi, 403, 404
pinnæ, 746
pyriformis, 371, 375, 376, 399
quadratus femoris, 372, 375, 376
lumborum, 434, 1285
quadratus plantæ, 384
quadriceps extensor femoris, 359, 37
recto-coccygeus, 1093
recto-uterine, 1101, 1189
recto-vesical, 1157
rectus abdominis, 432
capitis anticus major, 420
minor, 421
lateralis, 398, 399, 422
posticus major, 397
minor, 397
femoris, 359, 375, 399
of orbit, external, 405, 407
inferior, 405, 407
internal, 405, 407
superior, 405, 407
of respiration, 422, 426
retrahens aurem, 402, 404
rhomboideus major, 321, 326
minor, 320, 326
of Riolan, 739
risorius, 404, 405
rotator humeri, 332
rotatores dorsi, 397, 398
sacro-spinalis, 393
salpingo-pharyngeus, 417, 754
sartorius, 359, 375, 399, 1306
scalenus anticus, 419, 426
medius, 420, 426
posticus, 420, 426
of scalp, 401, 404, 1222
scansorius, 371
semimembranosus, 374, 375, 376, 13
semispinalis capitis, 395
colli, 395, 398
dorsi, 395, 398
semitendinosus, 373, 375, 376, 1305
serratus, anterior, 325
magnus, 325, 326, 426, 1255
posticus, inferior, 392, 398, 426
superior, 392, 398, 426
of shoulder, 327
skeletal, 316
of soft palate, 418, 442
soleus, 382, 389, 1309, 1310
sphincter ani externus, 435, 438, 441
internus, 1093, 1095
pupillæ, 731
pylori, 1056, 1058
recti, 1095
vaginæ, 436
vesicæ, 1156
spinalis dorsi, 395
splenius capitis, 392, 398

Muscle or Muscles, splenius colli, 393, 398
stapedius, 757
sternalis, 324
sterno-clavicularis, 325
sterno-cleido-mastoid, 410, 416
sterno-hyoid, 411, 415, 416
sterno-mastoid, 411, 416, 426, 1249
sterno-thyroid, 412, 415, 416
stylo-auricularis, 746
stylo-glossus, 414, 415, 416
stylo-hyoid, 413, 415, 416, 442
stylo-pharyngeus, 417, 419, 442
subanconeous, 336
subclavius, 324, 326
subcostales, 422, 426
subcrureus, 362
subscapularis, 330, 331
minor, 331
supinator brevis, 351, 354
supra-hyoid, 412, 415
supraspinatus, 329, 331
suspensory, of duodenum, 1070
temporal, 408, 410,
tensor fasciæ femoris, 369, 375, 399, 1303, 1306
suralis, 373
palati, 419, 754, 1246
tarsi, 403, 405, 741
tympani, 757, 1232
teres major, 330, 331
minor, 329, 331
of thigh, 355, 375
of thorax, 422, 426
of thumb, 343, 345, 355
thyro-ary-epiglottidean, 968, 971
thyro-arytenoid, 968, 969, 971
thyro-epiglottidean, 970
thyro-hyoid, 412, 415, 416
tibialis anticus, 378, 389, 1312
posticus, 385, 389, 1311, 1312
tibio-fascialis anticus, 379
of tongue, 414, 415, 442, 701, 1005, 1243
tracheal, 975
trachelo-mastoid, 395, 399
tragicus, 746
transversalis abdominis, 431
cervicis, 394
transverse, of tongue, 415
transversus perinei superficialis, 436
auriculæ, 746
perinei profundus, 437
thoracis, 422
vaginæ, 437
trapezius, 318, 326, 1285
triangularis sterni, 422, 426
triceps brachii, 334, 336, 1295
femoris, 381
of tympanic cavity, 757
of upper limb, 318
vastus externus, 361, 375, 1304
intermedius, 361
internus, 361, 375, 1308
zygomaticus major, 404, 405
minor, 404, 405
Muscle-cells, 316
Muscle-plate, 30
Muscular process of vertebræ, 75, 76
system, 316
triangle of neck, 1249, 1251
Musculo-cutaneous nerve. *See* Nerve
Musculo-phrenic artery, 826
veins, 874
Musculo-spiral groove, 192
nerve, 625, 632, 673, 1295, 1296, 1298
Myelencephalon, 477, 481
Myelin, 444
Myelinisation, 466, 470, 473, 537, 594
Myelocœle, 30
Myelospongium, 22, 472
Mylohyoid artery, 812
groove, 145, 146
muscle, 413, 415, 416
nerve, 685
ridge, 144, 167
Myocardium, 791
Myology, 3, 316
Myotomes, 30, 183, 317, 441
cephalic, 442, 701
Myrtiform fossa, 131

Naboth, ovules of, 1191
Nail, 775
bed of, 775
development of, 779
in fœtus, 47, 68
lunula of, 775
matrix of, 775
papillæ of, 775
vallum of, 775
wall, 775
Nares, anterior, 173, 717, 1237
posterior, 160, 163, 173, 719, 993, 1246
Nasal aperture, anterior, 148, 152, 180
artery. *See* Artery
bone, 103, 137, 152, 173
cavity, development, 40
crest, 134, 173
duct, 740, 741, 743, 1239
canal of, 151, 173, 175
development of, 40, 743
fossa, 148, 173, 177
agger nasi of, 721
atrium of, 721
basal cells of, 723
blood-vessels of, 723
Bowman's glands of, 722
bulla ethmoidalis of, 721
cavernous tissue of, 722
development of, 40
epithelium of, 722, 723
hiatus semilunaris of, 721
inferior meatus of, 721, 1239
infundibulum of, 721
inner wall of. *See* Septum
limen of, 719
lymphatics of, 723
middle meatus of, 721, 1239
olfactory cells of, 723
part of, 720, 722
orifices in, 719, 720, 721, 741
organ of Jacobson of, 720
outer wall of, 720
recessus naso-palatinus of, 720
spheno-ethmoidalis of, 720
respiratory part of, 720, 722
sensory nerves of, 723
superior meatus of, 720
supporting cells of, 722
ventricle of, 719
vestibule of, 719
index, 180, 717
laminæ, 41
nerve. *See* Nerve

Nerve or Nerves, masseteric, 683
mastoid, 618
maxillary, inferior, 683
superior, 681
median, 625, 627, 1295, 1296, 1298, 1301
of membrana tympani, 751
meningeal, of vagus, 692
meningeus, 681
mental, 685
middle cutaneous, of thigh, 646
of muscles of abdominal wall, 434, 642
of arm, 336
of back, 398
of buttock, 375
of face, 404
of foot, 389
of forearm, 353
of hand, 353
of hyoid bone, 415
of iris, 681
of leg, 389
of lower limb, 669, 670
of mastication, 410
of orbit, 407
of pectoral region, 326
of pelvis, 441
of perineum, 438
of pinna, 687
prevertebral, 422
of thigh, 375
of thorax, 426
of tongue, 415
between trunk and upper limb, 326
of shoulder, 331
of soft palate, 692
of upper limb, 626, 667, 671
musculo-cutaneous, of arm, 625, 627, 673
of leg, 650, 651, 1309
musculo-spiral, 625, 632, 673, 1295, 1296, 1298
myelinisation of, 466, 470, 473, 537, 594
mylo-hyoid, 685
nasal, 680
external, 680
inferior, 683
of infra-orbital, 682
internal, 680
superior, 683
naso-ciliaris, 680
naso-palatine, 683, 1000
to obliqui abdominis muscles, 638
obturator, 642, 643
accessory, 647
to obturator externus, 645, 647
internus, 649, 652
occipital, great, 612, 1253
of posterior auricular, 687
small, 617, 618, 622
third, 612
to occipito-frontalis, 687
oculo-motor, 674, 676, 699, 701
œsophageal, 695, 710
olfactory, 675, 703, 722
bulb of, 569, 587, 675, 703
development of, 587, 698
origin of, 675
tract of, 569, 587, 675
ophthalmic, 679, 701
optic, 475, 675, 703
origin of, 552, 675
development of, 698, 742
retinal portion of, 676. *See also* Retina
orbital, 681, 683
Nerve or Nerves, to palate, 1000
palatine, great, 683, 1000
posterior, 683
small, 683, 1000
palpebral, 682
to parotid gland, 1011
patellar, 647
pathetic, 677
perforans coccygeus major, 657
perforating cutaneous, 657
pericardiac, 695
perineal, 659
of fourth sacral, 658
of small sciatic, 657
superficial, 659
to perineal muscles, 659
peripheral, 607
peroneal, 647, 648, 650
communicating, 650
to peroneus brevis, 651
longus, 651
petrosal, great deep, 687, 707
small deep, 689, 707
superficial, external, 687
large, 686
small, 687, 689
pharyngeal, 1037
of Meckel's ganglion, 683
of ninth nerve, 690
of sympathetic, 707
of vagus, 692
phrenic, 617, 621, 1251
of pinna, 746
plantar, external, 654, 1312
internal, 654, 1312
pneumogastric. *See* Nerve vagus
popliteal, external, 647, 648, 650, 1304,
internal, 647, 648, 652, 1305
to prevertebral muscles, 617, 621
to psoas muscle, 642
pterygoid, external, 683
internal, 683
pterygo-palatine, 683
pudendal, inferior, 657
pudic, 658
pulmonary, 691, 709, 989
to pyramidalis muscle, 639
to pyriformis, 649
to quadratus femoris, 649, 652
lumborum, 642
radial, 633, 634, 1301
to radio-carpal joint, 628
to radius, 628
of rectum, 1096
to rhomboids, 625
sacculo-ampullaris, 769
sacral, 607. *See also* Plexus, lumbar, sa
anterior primary divisions of. *See* Pl
sacral, pudendal
posterior primary divisions of, 613
visceral branches of, 711, 714
sacro-coccygeal anterior, 658
posterior, 614
saphenous, long, 646, 1308, 1310, 1312
short, 653, 1312
to scaleni, 617, 620, 621
to scalp-muscles, 404
scapular posterior, 625
sciatic, great, 647, 648, 1303, 1304
small, 656, 665, 1304
segmental, of head, 701
to semicircular canals, 689

Nerve or Nerves, to shoulder-joint, 625, 632
of skin, 774
of small intestine, 1070, 1073
spheno-palatine, 681
to sphincter ani, 657, 659
pupillæ, 731
spinal, 443, 607
anterior primary divisions of, 609, 615, 662
classification of, 453, 607
development of, 660
distribution of, general, 610, 616
to limb-muscles, 665, 671
to skin of limbs, 665, 671
formation of, 662
ganglia of, 608
gray rami of, 615, 616, 617, 620, 623, 636, 637, 638, 639, 647, 655
morphology of primary divisions of, 614
number of, 608
origin of, 453, 455, 461, 608
spinal, posterior, primary divisions of, 609, 610, 662
spinal, recurrent branches of, 609
relation of, to meninges, 609
to vertebræ, 1289
roots of, 608. *See also* Nerve-roots
dorsal, 608, 661, 704
ventral, 608, 609, 661, 704
segmental disposition of, 610, 614
size of, 608
somatic portion of, 615, 662, 709
splanchnic portion of, 615, 662, 704, 709
visceral branches of, 609, 655, 662, 715
white rami of, 609, 615, 616, 637, 638, 640, 647, 655, 662, 704, 709, 710, 711, 712, 714, 715
spinal accessory, 695, 701, 1251
accessory part of, 695, 700, 702
deep origin of, 516
development of, 700
medullary part of, 516
nucleus of, 516
spinal part of, 516, 695, 700, 702
superficial origin of, 516, 482, 695
splanchnic, 710
great, 710
least, 710
small, 710
of stapedius muscle, 687, 758
sternal descending, 617, 619, 622
to sterno-mastoid, 617, 619
of stomach, 1060
to stylo-pharyngeus, 690
to subclavius, 624
of sublingual gland, 1013
of submaxillary gland, 1012
suboccipital, 611, 614
ganglion of, 608
subscapular, 625, 635
long, 635
lower, 635
short, 635
supraclavicular, of brachial plexus, 624
of cervical plexus, 618
supramandibular, 688
supraorbital, 679, 1224
suprascapular, 624, 625, 673
supratrochlear, 679, 1223
sural, 650, 657
sympathetic. *See* Sympathetic
to short muscles of little finger, 631
Nerve or Nerves, to short muscles of thumb, 629, 631
of taste, 771
temporal, of auriculo-temporal, 684
deep, 683
of facial, 687
of orbital, 1224
of superior maxillary, 681
to tensor palati, 686
tympani, 686, 757
vaginæ femoris, 649
tentorii, 679
to teres minor, 632
thoracic, 607, 613, 635
anterior primary divisions of, 635
communications of, 636, 638
cutaneous branches of, 613, 635, 636, 638, 639
external anterior, 625, 626
first, 635
internal anterior, 625, 626
long, 624, 625
muscular branches of, 635, 636, 638, 639
posterior primary divisions of, 613
second, 636
twelfth, 638
to tibia, 653
tibial, 647, 648, 650, 652
anterior, 650, 651
communicating, 653
posterior, 652
recurrent, 650
to tibio-fibular joint, 651, 653
of tongue, 698, 1006
of tonsil, 690, 1037
to transversalis abdominis, 638
to trapezius, 617, 620
to triangularis sterni, 638
trifacial. *See* Nerve, trigeminal
trigeminal, 678, 686, 701
ascending root of, 525
deep origin of, 503, 524, 525
development of, 699
divisions of, 679
Gasserian ganglion of, 679
mesencephalic root of, 504, 524, 526, 540
motor root of, 504, 678, 699, 701
nuclei of, 503, 524, 527, 528, 540
sensory root of, 504, 524, 699, 678, 701
spinal root of, 502, 504, 525, 528
superficial origin of, 486, 524, 678
trochlear, 677, 701
communications of, 678
deep origin of, 541
development of, 699
nucleus of, 541
superficial origin of, 487, 541, 677
tympanic, 689, 702, 758
to ulna, 628
ulnar, 625, 629, 1296, 1298, 1301
collateral, 633
communicating, 629
to utricle, 689
vagus, 690, 702, 1060, 1251
abdominal branches of, 693
afferent fibres of, 517
root of, 700, 702
branches of, 691
cardio-inhibitory fibres of, 696
communications of, 692, 693
deep origin of, 517

Nerve or Nerves, vagus, development of, 7)0
vagus, efferent fibres of, 517
root of, 700, 701, 702
ganglion of root of, 690, 692
of trunk of, 690, 692
in jugular foramen, 690
left, 691
in neck, 690, 692
nucleus of, 488, 517, 518
right, 691
roots of, 517, 700, 701
superficial origin of, 482, 690
in thorax, 691
viscero-motor fibres of, 696
vestibular, 689, 768
connexion with cerebellum, 521
deep origin of, 519
descending root of, 520, 522
nucleus of, 488, 519, 521
Vidian, 682, 687, 707
zygomatico-facialis, 681
zygomatico-temporalis, 681
Nerve, zygomaticus, 681
Nerve-cells, 445
axons of, 445. *See also* Axon
bipolar, 448
cellulipetal processes of, 449
of cerebellum, 512
of cerebral cortex, 585
dendrites of, 447
development of, 447, 471
ganglionic, 448
of Golgi, 464, 586
processes of, 445
of Purkinjé, 512, 514
radicular, 464
of spinal chord, 445, 461
ganglia, 608
unipolar, 448
of sympathetic ganglia, 704
Nerve-fibres, 444
afferent, 445, 448, 451
collateral, 445, 448
efferent, 445, 451
myelinisation of, 466, 470, 473, 537, 594
non-medullated, 444
primitive sheath of, 444
splanchnic, afferent, 705, 706, 709, 710
efferent, 704, 706, 709, 710
peripheral, 705
sympathetic, 704
cervical, 706
destinations of, 704
medullated, 704
non-medullated, 705
splanchnic, 704, 705, 706
terminations of, 444, 448
Wallerian degeneration of, 466
Nerve-roots, 443
cranial, 443
spinal, 454, 608, 609, 660
anterior, 443, 455, 461, 473, 609, 661, 704
posterior, 443, 455, 466, 467, 473, 609, 661, 704
Nervous system, 443
cerebro-spinal, 443. *See also* Cerebro-spinal
sympathetic, 443. *See also* Sympathetic
Neural arch. *See* Arch
arteries, 838, 851
canal, 76, 89
crest, 21
Neural ectoderm, 28
fold, 21, 66
groove, 20, 21, 66
tube, 21, 471
alar lamina of, 472, 480, 526, 527, 5
594, 698
basal lamina of, 472, 480, 526, 54
594, 698
cellular buds of, 661
central canal of, 471, 472
development of cranial nerves from
of spinal nerves from, 661
ependymal layer of, 472
flexures of, 479
limiting membrane of, external, 47
internal, 471
mantle-layer of, 472
mid-dorsal lamina of, 471, 526
mid-ventral lamina of, 471, 526
myelospongium of, 472
neuroblasts of, 472, 527, 528
peripheral reticular layer of, 472
Neurenteric canal, 20, 66
Neuroblasts, 22, 447, 472, 527, 528, 661,
Neuro-central synchondrosis, 91
Neuro-fibrillæ, 449, 468
Neuroglia, 443, 451, 461, 465
Neurolemma, 444
Neurology, 3
Neuromeres, 22
Neuron, 22, 448, 449
Nictitating membrane, 738
Nipple, 1207, 1208
Nodule of cerebellum, 507, 508, 530
Nose, 717
ala of, 717
alar sulcus of, 717
bridge of, 717, 1237
cartilages of, 717
development of, 38, 66, 68
floor of, 1239
fossæ of, 148, 173, 177, 719. *See also* fossæ.
hiatus semilunaris of, 1239
limen of, 719
lymphatics of, 717, 723
meatuses of, 720. *See also* Meatus
mucous membrane of, 722
muscles of, 403, 404
nasal index of, 717
nerves of, 717, 723
olfactory part of, 720, 722
outer, 717
respiratory part of, 720, 722
septum of, 717, 720, 1239
surgical anatomy of, 1239
ventricle of, 719
vestibule of, 719
vessels of, 717, 723, 879
Nostril, 717
Notch of Rivini, 750, 1232
Notochord, 24, 90, 181
Notochordal area, 23
Nuchal furrow, 1253
lines, 109, 154, 159
plane of occipital bone, 109, 154, 15
166
Nuck, canal of, 1190
Nuclear layer of retina, 732, 733
membrane, 8, 9, 10
juice, 8
Nucleolus, 8, 9, 10

Nucleus or Nuclei, of abducent nerve, 502, 524, 537, 538
ambiguus, 517, 518
amygdaloid, 576, 579, 582
arcuate, 490, 498, 528
arcuatus of thalamus, 545
of auditory nerve, 519. *See also* Nucleus, cochlear, vestibular
of Bechterew, 520
caudate, 574, 579
of cells, 8
during mitosis, 10, 13
segmentation, 17
central, of Luys, 545, 546
cochlear, 519, 520, 521, 534, 538
of corpus mammillare, 548, 572
cuneate, 485, 490, 492, 493, 494, 496, 528
of Deiters, 520, 521
dentatus, 510, 511
emboliformis, 510
facial, 502, 523
of fasciculus solitarius, 518
fastigii, 510
globosus, 510
glosso-pharyngeal, 488, 517, 519
gracile, 485, 490, 492, 493, 494, 496
hypoglossal, 488, 515
intercalatus, 488
laryngeal, 517
lateralis of medulla, 498
of lateral fillet, 505, 521
of lens, 737
lenticular, 579, 580, 582
of medulla oblongata, 488, 490, 527
motor, 515
oculo-motor, 537, 541
olivary accessory, 495, 498, 528
inferior, 484, 490, 494, 497, 528
superior, 502, 505, 520, 521, 524, 538
of optic nerve, 552
of origin of nerves, 515, 527
of pons, 499, 500, 502, 504
pontis, 499, 501, 528
pulposus, 262
pyramidal, 490
red, 535, 536, 546
roof, 510, 511, 521
salivary, 524
spinal accessory, 516, 517
of termination of nerves, 514, 527
trapezoideus, 520
trigeminal, 504, 524, 525, 528, 540
trochlear, 537, 541
thalamic, 544
vagus, 488, 517, 518
vestibular, 488, 519, 521
Nuel, space of, 767
Nutrient arteries. *See* Arteries
Nutritive pole, 11
Nymphæ, 1195

Obelion, 159, 178
Obex, 512
Oblique ligament, 283
line, anterior, of radius, 201
external, of jaw, 143
internal, of jaw, 144, 167
of tibia, 233
vein of Marshall, 785, 871
Obliquus externus abdominis muscle, 427
inferior muscle of neck, 397, 399
of orbit, 406
Obliquus internus abdominis muscle, 430
superior muscle of neck, 397, 399
of orbit, 406, 407
Obliterated hypogastric artery, 851
Obturator artery, 852, 953
canal, 293
crest, 218
externus muscle, 367, 375, 376, 399
fascia, 438
foramen, 214, 219
gland, 921
groove, 218, 219, 220
internus muscle, 371, 375, 376, 399
membrane, 294
nerve, 642, 643, 647
plexus, 644, 646
tubercle, anterior, 219
posterior, 219
vein, 895
Occipital angle of parietal bone, 108
artery. *See* Arteries
bone, 103, 109, 152, 154, 159, 160, 183
architecture of, 112
basilar part of, 109, 112, 113, 164, 170
condylic parts of, 109, 111, 113
connexions of, 112
ossification, of, 113
tabular part of, 109, 113
variations in, 112
condyles, 111, 112, 166
third, 79, 113
crest, external, 109
internal, 110, 171
fontanelle, 183
lobe, 564, 1225
lymphatic glands, 909
nerves. *See* Nerve
plane, 109, 154
protuberance, external, 109, 154, 159, 166
internal, 110, 170
sinus, 886, 954
sulcus. *See* Sulcus
triangle, 1253
vein, 876, 879
Occipito-atloid joint, 266
movements at, 398
ligaments, 266
Occipito-axoid ligaments, 266
Occipito-frontal strand, 590
Occipito-frontalis muscle, 401, 404
Occipito-mastoid suture, 154, 166
Occipito-temporal gyri, 566, 567
sulcus, 566, 567
Oculo-motor nerve, 676, 699, 701
sulcus, 533
Oculo-nasal sulci, 39
Odontoblasts, 1024, 1025, 1026, 1028
Odontoid ligaments, 267
process, 79, 93, 94
Œsophageal arteries, 823, 839, 942
groove of liver, 1112
opening of diaphragm, 425
orifice of stomach, 1055
plexus, 691, 695, 1040
Œsophagus, 993, 1038
abdominal portion of, 1040
cervical portion of, 1039, 1252
constrictions of, 1039, 1041
development of, 1042
diaphragmatic division of, 1040
glands of, 1042
relations of, 1039, 1040

Œsophagus, structure of, 1041
surgical anatomy of, 1264
thoracic part of, 1039
variations in, 1041
vessels of, 1042
Olecranon fossa, 193
process, 195, 198, 1296
Olfactory area, 593
bulb, 569, 587, 675, 698, 703
bundle, 572
cells, 698, 722, 723
cleft, 1239
ganglion, 698, 703
groove, 130, 169
hairs, 723
lobe, 479, 569, 588, 596
nerve. *See* Nerve
pits, 38
sulcus, 562
tract, 569, 587, 675, 698
tubercle, 570
Oligolecithal ovum, 11
Olivary eminence, 122, 169, 484, 494
nucleus. *See* Nucleus
Omental tuberosity of liver, 1113
of pancreas, 1127
Omentum, 1049
gastro-colic, 1049
gastro-hepatic, 1050, 1116
gastro-splenic, 1050, 1057, 1099, 1102, 1108, 1212
great, 1049, 1055, 1057, 1067, 1083, 1099, 1102, 1104, 1107
small, 1050, 1055, 1057, 1067, 1099, 1102, 1104, 1107, 1116, 1124
Omohyoid muscle, 411, 415, 416
Ontogeny, 1
Oocyte, 12
of first order, 12, 15
of second order, 13, 15
Oogonia, 12, 15
Oolemma, 11
Oosperm, 17
Opercula insulæ, 556, 561
Ophryon, 178
Ophthalmic artery, 815, 950
nerve, 679, 701
veins, 879
Opisthion, 166, 171, 178
Opisthotic portion of temporal bone, 128
Opponens minimi digiti muscle, 347, 353, 355
pollicis muscle, 345, 353, 355
Optic axis, 724
chiasma, 475, 551, 595, 676, 699, 703
commissure, 475, 551, 595, 676, 699, 703
cup, 698, 703, 731
disc, 731
foramen, 124, 127, 149, 169
groove, 123
nerve, 551, 595, 674, 675, 698, 703, 731, 741, 742
radiation, 553, 583, 591
stalk, 478, 698, 703, 741, 742
thalamus. *See* Thalamus
tract. *See* Tract
vesicle, 478, 480, 741
Ora serrata, 731, 735
Orbicular ligament, 282
Orbicularis oris muscle, 403, 405, 996
palpebrarum muscle, 402, 404
Orbiculus ciliaris, 729
Orbit,
fasci
musc
vein
Orbita
cana
gyri,
inde
marg
nerv
plate
proc
of
septu
sulcu
wing
Orbito
Orbito
Orbito
Orbito
Organ
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Ossicul
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mo
epipt
of Ke
Ossifica
of lar
of sp
bor
Osteobl
Osteocl
Osteolo

escriptive terms of, 70
yngeum of Eustachian tube, 753,

f heart, 930
of heart, 930
um of Eustachian tube, 753
e of Fallopian tube, 1185
of Fallopian tube, 1186
n, 685, 699, 707
9
3
ry, 843, 949, 1185, 1192, 1284
184, 1186
1184, 1190
4
944, 955
, 1283, 1284
189
s of, 1183
bicantia of, 1184
tea of, 1184
, 1184
nt of, 1204
of, 1184
ollicles of, 1184, 1204
32
of, 1184, 1190
m of, 1182, 1184, 1189
1185
ee Ovum
182
f, 1182
follicles of, 1204
of, 1184
r ligament of, 1183
1185
aboth, 1191
, 1184, 1204
11
hal, 11
thal, 11
n of, 16, 65
n of, 12
al, 11
1204
decidua, 53
ion of, 17, 65
aracters of, 12
l, 11

bodies, 602
puscles, 775
s, 108, 167
, 998, 1000
399, 404, 997
ess, 131, 134, 162, 173
998
999, 1000, 1034
141, 149, 156, 160, 173
1013, 1240
nt of, 40, 1013
998, 999
, 160, 162, 177, 180, 995, 998,

ad of, 998, 1000
embrane of, 999
, 418, 442
1000
999, 1000, 1034
998
98, 999
998, 1289

Palate, taste-buds of, 770
uvula of, 999
vessels of, 1000
Palatine arches, 999, 1000, 1034
aponeurosis, 999
artery. *See* Arteries
canal, accessory, 142, 159, 163
anterior, 134, 162, 173
posterior, 133, 134, 142, 159, 162
foramen, posterior, 1246
fossa, anterior, 134, 162
nerves, 683, 1000
vein, 880
Palato-maxillary canal, 133
index, 180
Palato-glossus muscle, 415, 416, 419
Palato-pharyngeus muscle, 417, 418, 419
Palm, surgical anatomy of, 1301
Palmar arch, deep, 836, 943, 952, 1301
superficial, 836, 943, 952, 1301
fascia, 338
Palmaris brevis muscle, 336
longus muscle, 340, 353, 354
Palpebral fissure, 738
ligaments, 739, 1239
nerves, 682
Pampiniform plexus, 894, 1162
Pancreas, 994, 995, 1124
accessory, 1128
development of, 1129
ducts of, 995, 1068, 1070, 1124, 1127, 1128
lesser, 1128
nerves of, 1129
omental tuberosity of, 1127
peritoneal relations of, 1127
processus uncinatus of, 1126, 1128
structure of, 1128
surgical anatomy of, 1276, 1289
variations in, 1128
vessels of, 1128
Pancreatic artery, 844, 1128
veins, 904
Pancreatico-duodenal artery. *See* Arteries
vein, 903
Panniculus adiposus, 317
carnosus, 317, 401
Papilla, bile, 1070, 1120
duodeni, 1070, 1120
lacrimalis, 738, 740
mammæ, 1207
pili, 777
of tooth, 1025, 1026
Papillæ of nail, 775
renal, 1137
of skin, 773
of tongue. *See* Tongue
Paracentral lobule, 562
Parachordal cartilages, 181
Paradidymis, 1160, 1199
Paraduodenal fossa, 1068, 1069
Paraflocculus, 509
Parallel fissure, 1224, 1225
sulcus, 567
Paramastoid process, 113
Paramedial sulcus, 560, 561
Parametrium, 1190, 1191
Parapophysis, 94
Pararectal fossa, 1090, 1101
Parasinoidal sinuses, 603
Parasternal line, 1253
Parathyroid glands, 1218
Paravesical fossa, 1101, 1155

Paraxial mesoderm, 26
Parietal artery, 810
  bone, 103, 107, 152, 159, 160
    ossification of, 109
    variations in, 109
  eminence, 107, 154, 1224
  foramen, 108, 109, 159, 167
  gyri. *See* Gyri
  lobe, 562
Parieto-mastoid suture, 154
Parieto-occipital artery, 821
  fissure, 558, 1223, 1225
Parieto-temporal artery, 813
Paroccipital process, 79, 113
Paroophoron, 1187, 1190, 1199
Parotid arteries, 808, 809
  duct, 1011, 1238
  fascia, 1010
  gland, 995, 1009, 1230, 1238
    accessory, 1011
    development of, 1013
    duct of, 1011, 1238
    nerves of, 1011
    socia of, 1011
    vessels of, 1011
  lymphatic glands, 910
  recess, 1010
Parovarium, 1187, 1190, 1199
Pars ciliaris retinæ, 729, 731, 735, 742
  intermedia of Wrisberg, 686, 687, 689, 699
  iridica retinæ, 730, 731, 735, 742
  membranacea septi, 791, 947
  mammillaris hypothalami, 542, 595
  optica hypothalami, 542, 595
    retinæ, 731
Patella, 230, 1307
  articular surface of, 297
  ligaments of, 298, 357, 362, 377, 1307
Patellar plexus, 647
Pathetic nerve, 677
Pectineal line, 227
Pectineus muscle, 364, 375, 376
Pectoral artery, 829
  girdle, 254
  lymphatic glands, 914
  region, fasciæ of, 321
    muscles of, 322
  ridge, 191
Pectoralis major muscle, 322, 326, 331, 426
  minor muscle, 324, 326, 426
  minimus, 324
Pedicles of vertebræ, 76, 77, 79, 80, 82
Peduncles of cerebellum. *See* Cerebellum
  of cerebrum, 532
  of mammillan bodies, 548
  olivary, 495
  of pineal body, 547, 594
Pelvic colon, 1074, 1085, 1086, 1274
  fasciæ, 438, 1045
    parietal, 438
    visceral, 438
  girdle, 214, 254
  mesocolon, 1086, 1100
  plexus, 712, 714
Pelvis, 220, 1045
  articulations of, 289
  axis of, 222
  brim of, 222, 1045
  cavity of, 1046
  diameters of, 222, 223
  false, 221

Peritoneal cavity, 1267
subdivisions of, 1267
Peritoneum, 993, 1048, 1097
development of, 1105, 1106
duodenal fossæ of, 1068
duodeno-jejunal fossa of, 1069, 1272
femoral fossa of, 1098
folds of, 1049. *See also* Mesentery, Mesocolon, Omentum
foramen of Winslow of, 1049, 1102
great sac of, 1049, 1097
inguinal fossæ of, 1098, 1101
intersigmoid fossa of, 1086, 1274
ligaments of, 1050, 1099, 1154, 1189, 1284
mesenterico-mesocolic fold of, 1069
mesenteries of, 1050. *See also* Mesentery, Mesocolon
omenta of, 1049. *See also* Omentum
paraduodenal fossa of, 1068, 1069
pararectal fossa of, 1090, 1101
paravesical fossa of, 1101, 1155
parietal, 1097
pelvic, 1100
pouch of Douglas of, 1090, 1101, 1189, 1283, 1284
processus vaginalis of, 1167, 1190
recto-vesical pouch of, 1090, 1100, 1155, 1282
relation of, to bladder, 1153
cæcum, 1076
colon, 1083, 1084, 1085
duodenum, 1067, 1068, 1069
kidney, 1135
liver, 1115
pancreas, 1127
rectum, 1089
spleen, 1212
stomach, 1057
uterus, 1189
small sac of, 1049, 1097, 1102, 1107, 1269
surgical anatomy of, 1267
utero-vesical pouch of, 1101, 1189
visceral, 1097
Perivascular lymph-spaces, 905
Permanent teeth, 1014, 1015, 1016, 1027
Peroneal artery. *See* Artery
bone, 235
nerve. *See* Nerve
spine, 244, 245
tubercle, 1311
Peroneo-calcaneus muscle, 381, 385
Peroneo-cuboideus muscle, 381
Peroneus accessorius muscle, 381
brevis muscle, 381, 389
longus muscle, 381, 389
quinti digiti muscle, 381
tertius muscle, 380, 389
Pes anserinus, 687
hippocampi, 577
Petit, canal of, 736
triangle of, 319, 430, 1285
Petro-basilar fissure, 118
Petro-mastoid suture, 1233
Petro-occipital fissure, 165
Petrosal artery, 811
nerve. *See* Nerve
process, 124
sinus, inferior, 876, 887
superior, 886
Petro-squamous fissure, 119
suture, 114, 115, 120, 1233
Petro-tympanic fissure, 750
Petrous ganglion, 689, 700, 701
Peyer's patches, 1062, 1064, 1073, 1074
Phænozygous crania, 160, 179
Phalangeal process of lamina reticularis, 767
Phalanges of foot, 239, 251
of hand, 203, 212
of rods of Corti, 767
Pharyngeal arteries, 808, 933, 1037
nerves. *See* Nerves
plexus, 690, 692, 707, 712
tubercle, 112, 164, 167
veins, 876
Pharyngotomy, 1218
Pharynx, 993, 1029
aponeurosis of, 1037
bursa of, 1033
cavity of, 1031
development of, 34, 1037
Eustachian cushion of, 1033
orifice of, 1033
glands of, 1037
isthmus of, 998, 1032, 1034
laryngeal, 1032, 1036
lateral recesses of, 1031, 1033, 1034, 1038
levator cushion of, 1034
lymphatics of, 1037, 1246
muscles of, 416, 417, 442, 1037
nasal, 1032
naso-pharyngeal groove of, 1034
nerves of, 1037
openings of, 1032
oral, 1032, 1034
palatine arch of, posterior, 1034
pharyngo-epiglottic fold of, 1002, 1036
relations of, 1031
salpingo-palatine fold of, 1033
salpingo-pharyngeal fold of, 1033
sinus pyriformis of, 1036
tonsillaris of, 1034, 1035, 1038
structure of, 1037
supratonsillar fossa of, 1034, 1035, 1036, 1038
tonsil of, palatine, 1034, 1035
pharyngeal, 1033, 1037
vault of, 1033
vessels of, 1037
Pharyngo-glossus, 1242
Philtrum, 39, 996, 1013
Phrenic artery, 825, 839, 949
nerve, 617, 621, 622, 1251
vein, 893
Phrenico-pleural fascia, 982
Phreno-colic ligament, 1083, 1104
Phylogeny, 1
Pia mater, 603
choroid plexuses of, 575, 604, 605
encephali, 603
ligamentum denticulatum of, 605
linea splendens of, 605
spinalis, 453, 605
tela choroidea of, 604
velum interpositum of, 604
Pigmentary layer of optic vesicle, 742
Pillars of Corti, 766
of external abdominal ring, 430
of fauces, 999, 1034, 1244
of fornix, 548, 550, 566, 572
Pineal body, 531, 547, 594, 595
eye, 547
Pinna, 743
development of, 43, 66
Pisi-cuneiform articulation, 286

Plexus or Plexuses, sacral, terminal branches, 650
sciatic, 639, 647
solar, 710, 712
spermatic, 714
spinal, venous, 887, 888
splenic, 713, 1213
subclavian, 708, 712
subepithelial of cornea, 727
subpleural, arterial, 825
subsartorial, 644
suprarenal, 713
sympathetic, 712
thyroid, 708, 712
tonsillar, 689, 690, 1036
tympanic, 689, 707
uterine, 714
venous, 896
utero-vaginalis, 1192, 1195
vaginal, 714
venous, 896
vertebral, 712, 718
vesical, 714, 1157, 1195
venous, inferior, 896
superior, 896
Plica inguinalis, 1168
lacrimalis of Hasner, 741
longitudinalis duodeni, 1070
semilunaris, 738
synovialis patellaris, 302
urogenitalis, 1204
triangularis of tonsil, 1036
Plicæ fimbriatæ of tongue, 1005
palmatæ, 1188
Pneumogastric nerve. *See* Nerve, vagus
Point, alveolar, 178
jugal, 179
occipital, 172, 178
subnasal, 178
Sylvian, 555
Polar bodies, 13, 15
field, 9
Poles of cerebrum, 554
of eyeball, 724
formative, 11
of lens, 737
nutritive, 11
Polymasty, 1208
Polymorphic cells, 585, 586
Polyphyodont dentition, 1029
Polythely, 1208
Pomum Adami, 958, 972, 1218
Pons hepatis, 1111, 1114
Varolii, 486
acustic area of, 488
central tegmental tract of, 502
corpus trapezoides, 501, 520
cortico-pontine fibres of, 501, 540, 583, 591
development of, 477, 480, 528
eminentia teres of, 488
fillet-fibres of, 502, 504
fovea superior of, 488
gray matter of, 500
internal structure of, 499
locus cæruleus of, 488
mesencephalic root of fifth nerve in, 504
nuclei of, 499, 502, 504, 505, 539
origin of nerves from, 486, 514
position and connexions of, 475, 486
posterior longitudinal bundle in, 502, 504
pyramidal tract in, 499
raphe of, 502
Pons Varolii, reticular formation of, 499, 502
restiform body in, 502
spinal root of fifth nerve in, 502
substantia ferruginea of, 488, 504
sulcus basilaris of, 486
tegmental part of, 499, 501
transverse fibres of, 499, 500
veins of, 883
ventral portion of, 499
Ponticulus, 745
Pontine flexure of brain, 479
Popliteal artery, 863, 934, 943, 953, 1305
fascia, 358, 1305
groove, 228
line, 233
lymphatic glands, 916
nerves. *See* Nerve
space, surgical anatomy of, 1305
surface, 227
vein, 897, 898, 955
Popliteus fascia, 384
muscle, 383, 389
minor, 384
Pore, gustatory, 771
Porta hepatis, 1115
Portal canals, 1120
fissure, 1113, 1115
system, 783
vein, 901, 935, 945, 1120, 1290
Porus opticus, 731
sudoriferus, 778
Post-anal gut, 45
Post-auditory process, 121, 122
Post-auricular point, 1224
Post-branchial bodies, 36
Post-central anastomoses, 940
arteries, 838
gyri, 563
line, 1225
Post-coronal depression, 154, 160
Post-costal anastomoses, 940
Post-glenoid tubercle, 115, 120
Post-neural anastomoses, 940
Post-pharyngeal lymphatic glands, 911
Post-sphenoid bone, 127
Post-transverse anastomoses, 840
Post-vertebral venous plexus, 887
Pouch of Douglas, 1090, 1100, 1189, 1283, 1284
duodenal, 1070
of Prussak, 758
of Rathke, 42
recto-genital, 1090, 1100
recto-vesical, 1090, 1100, 1155, 1282
utero-vesical, 1101, 1189
Poupart, ligament of, 429, 1305
line, 1047
plane, 1047
Præbasi-occipital bone, 113
Præcentral sulcus, 560, 561, 564, 1225
Præcordial area, 1262
Præcuneus, 563
Prælaminar arteries, 838
Præoccipital notch, 562
Præparietal bone, 109
Præputium clitoridis, 1196, 1197
penis, 1171
Preaortic lymphatic glands, 922
Preauricular lymphatic gland, 1238
point, 1224
Precentral line, 1225
Prechordal portion of skull, 181
Precoracoid, 254

Saccule, ductus reuniens of, 763, 770
utriculosaccularis of, 763
macula acustica of, 763
sinus utricularis of, 763
Sacculi, laryngeal, 967
Saccus endolymphaticus, 763
reuniens, 929
Sacral arteries. *See* Artery
canal, 86
glanglia, 711
lymphatic glands, 921
nerves. *See* Nerves
notch, 84
plexus. *See* Plexus
promontory, 85, 222
sympathetic, 711
veins, 895, 896
Sacro-coccygeal joint, 264
nerves, 614, 658
Sacro-iliac joint, 290, 1302
ligaments, 290
Sacro-sciatic foramen, 222
ligaments, 291, 292
notch, 221, 223
Sacro-vertebral angle, 87, 223
Sacrum, 83, 220, 222, 223
ossification of, 93
promontory of, 85, 222, 1290
serial homology of, 94
variations in, 86, 90
Sagittal fontanelle, 109
plane, 5
sulcus, 108, 110
suture, 108, 159, 160, 177
Saliva, 995
Salivary glands, 994, 995, 1009
development of, 1013
nucleus, 524
structure of, 1008
Salpingo-palatine fold, 754, 1033
Salpingo-pharyngeal fascia, 754
fold, 754, 1033
muscle, 417
Santorini, cartilages of, 961, 962
fissures of, 745, 748
tubercle of, 964
Saphenous artery, 862, 953
nerve. *See* Nerve
opening, 356, 1306
veins. *See* Veins
Sarcolemma, 316
Sartorius muscle, 359, 375, 399
Scala tympani, 761
vestibuli, 761
Scalene tubercle, 100
Scalenus anticus muscle, 419, 426
medius muscle, 420, 426
posticus muscle, 420, 426
Scalp, 1222
arteries of, 1222
lymphatics of, 1223
muscles of, 401, 404, 1222
veins of, 879, 1222
Scansorius muscle, 371
Scapha of pinna, 744
Scapho-cuboid joint, 311
Scapho-cuneiform joint, 312
Scaphoid bone, 203, 208, 209, 245, 253, 1298, 1311
fossa, 126, 163
Scapula, 186, 1289, 1290, 1292
architecture of, 189
connexions of, 189
Scapula, homology of, 254
ligaments of, 275
movements of, 326
ossification of, 189
variations in, 189
Scapular arteries. *See* Arteries
line, 1253
notch, 187
Scapulo-clavicular joint, 274
Scarpa, fascia of, 1278
foramina of, 134, 162
ganglion of, 768
Schindylesis, 256
Schlemm, canal of, 725
Schneiderian membrane, 722
Schreger, lines of, 1024
Schultze, comma tract of, 466
Sciatic artery, 854, 934, 943, 953
foramen, great, 292
small, 292
nerve. *See* Nerve
notch, great, 215, 217
small, 217
plexus, 639, 647
veins, 895
Sclera, 725
canal of Schlemm of, 725
development of, 743
foramina of, 725
lamina cribrosa of, 725
fusca of, 725
sinus venosus of, 725
spatium perichorioideale of, 725, 728
suprascleral space of, 725
Scleratogenous layer, 30, 72, 90
Sclero-cornea, 725
Sclerotic coat. *See* Sclera
Scrotal arteries, 854
Scrotum, 1159, 1169
development of, 1207
septum of, 434
Sebaceous glands, 777, 778
Sebum cutaneum, 777
Secondary bones, 182
tympanic membrane, 752
Segmental arteries. *See* Arteries
type, 2
veins, 838, 943
Segmentation cavity, 18
of head, 183
nucleus, 17
of ovum, 17, 65
planes of, 17
Sella turcica, 122, 169
Semicanalis m. tensoris tympani, 117, 750
tubæ auditivæ, 117, 750
Semicircular canals, 759, 760, 764
ampullæ of, 760, 764
crista acustica of, 764
crus commune of, 760
cupola terminalis of, 764
development of, 769
external, 760, 1235
membranous, 759, 764
osseous, 759, 760
posterior, 760
superior, 760
Semilunar bone, 203, 204, 209, 253
cartilage, external, 301, 1308
internal, 301, 1307
fascia, 333
ganglion, 710, 712

Semilunar, space of Traube, 1271
Semimembranous muscle, 374, 375, 376, 1305
Seminal vesicles. *See* Vesicula seminalis
Seminiferous tubules, 1120, 1161
Semispinalis muscle, 395
colli, 395, 398
dorsi, 395, 398
Semitendinosus muscle, 373, 375, 376, 1305
Sense organs, 717
Septal artery of nose, 807
Septo-marginal tract, 468
Septula testis, 1161
Septum or Septa, of aortic bulb, 930, 947
auricles, 786, 787, 788, 930, 947
canalis musculo-tubarii, 750, 752
crural, 359
intermedium, of heart, 929
intermuscular, of arm, 332
of foot, 1312
of leg, 377
of thigh, 357, 1304
lucidum, 573, 597
of nose, 152, 160, 173, 176, 181, 718, 720, 1239
cartilage of, 717
development of, 41
orbitale, 739
pectiniforme, of penis, 1172
posticum, of arachnoid, 602, 606
primum, 930
of scrotum, 434, 1170
secundum, 930
spurium of auricles, 931
of tongue, 1005
transversum, 926, 1122
of semicircular canals, 764
tubæ, 117
of uterus, 1192
of vagina, 1195
ventriculorum, 789, 791, 929, 947
Serial homology, 3
of vertebræ, 94
Serous glands, 1008
Serratus magnus muscle, 325, 326, 426, 1255
posticus inferior muscle, 392, 398, 426
superior muscle, 392, 398, 426
Sesamoid bones, 214, 253, 288, 314, 345, 362
cartilages of larynx, 960
of nose, 717
Sexual eminence, 1200, 1206
Sheath, axillary, 828
carotid, 400, 802
crural, 359
dentinal, 1024
digital, of fingers, 338, 1301, 1302
of toes, 378
femoral, 358, 427, 859
medullary, 444, 465
mitochondrial, 15
primitive, 444
of prostate, 1279
of rectus muscle, 428, 430, 432
synovial, at wrist, 337, 338, 1301
Shin, 233
Short bones, 70
Shoulder-blade, 186
fasciæ of, 327
girdle, 189, 254
movements of, 326, 416
joint, 276
Shoulder-joint, bursæ con
joint, movements at, 27
nerves of, 625, 632
muscles of, 327
surgical anatomy of,
Shrapnell, membrane of,
Sigmoid artery, 848, 1075
cavity, great, 195, 196
small, 196
of radius, 201
flexure, 993, 1074, 1084
mesocolon, 1086
notch, 145
veins, 904
Sinus arcuatus, 35, 37, 10
of Arlt, 741
basilar, 881
cavernous, 886
circular, 885
coronary, 784, 787, 870,
costo-mediastinalis, 988
epididymidis, 1160
ethmoidal, 174
frontal, 106, 107, 129, 1235
great, of aorta, 797
oblique, of pericardiu
transverse, of pericar
inferior, of utricle, 762
intercavernosus, 885
lactifera, 1208
laryngeal, 967
lateral, 599, 886, 944, 9 1235
longitudinal, great, 599
inferior, 599, 884, 954
superior, 884, 1229
of Maier, 740
maxillary, 131, 133, 13 174, 176
surgical anatomy of,
occipital, 886, 954
of palate bone, 174
parasinoidal, 1229
petrosal, inferior, 876,
superior, 599, 886
phrenico-costalis, 986
pocularis, 1164, 1205
of portal vein, 903
pyriformis, 965, 1036
rectales, 1095
renal, 1130, 1137
rhomboidal, 22
sphenoidal, 122, 124, 1 174
spheno-parietal, 886, 9
squamo-petrosal, 954
straight, 599, 885
superior, of utricle, 762
tarsi, 243
tonsillaris, 1034, 1035,
transversus, 886
tympani, 752
utricularis, 763
of Valsalva, 797
venosus, 927, 929, 930
Sinuses, lymph, 906
venous, of cranium, 88
Skein, chromatin, 10
Skeletal muscles, 316
Skeleton, 69
appendicular, 69, 70,

Skeleton, axial, 69, 70, 183
development of, 24, 35, 36, 40, 41, 47
splanchnic, 69
Skin, 772
appendages of, 775
corium of, 773
development of, 778
of embryo, 68
epidermis of, 773, 778
papillæ of, 773
pigment of, 774
retinacula of, 772
tactile corpuscles of, 774, 775
discs of, 774
Skull, 103. *See also* Cranium, Face
age differences in, 177
akrocephalic, 179
bones of, 103
brachycephalic, 178
brachyfacial, 179
brachyuranic, 189
breadth of, 179
capacity of, 177, 178
chamæcephalic, 179
chordal, 181
consolidation of, 188
coronal sections of, 175
cryptozygous, 160, 179
dermic, 182
development of, 181
dolicho-cephalic, 178
dolicho-facial, 179
dolicho-uranic, 180
fixed points of, 178
height of, 172, 177, 179
hypsicephalic, 179
indices of, 178, 179, 180, 181
interior of, 167
length of, 171, 179
leptorhine, 180
ligaments of, 266, 267
macrodont, 1029
measurements of, 178
magacephalic, 178
megadont, 181
megaseme, 180
mesaticephalic, 178
mesial sagittal section of, 171
mesocephalic, 178
mesodont, 181, 1029
mesognathous, 180
mesorhine, 180
mesoseme, 180
mesuranic, 180
metopic, 106, 160
metriocephalic, 179
microcephalic, 178
microdont, 181, 1029
microseme, 180
morphology of, 181
nerve foramina of, 184
norma basalis of, 160
frontalis of, 148
lateralis of, 152
occipitalis of, 159
verticalis of, 159
orthocephalic, 179
orthognathous, 180
phænozygous, 160, 179
platyrhine, 180
prechordal, 181
primordial, 182
Skull, prognathous, 180
in section, 167
sexual differences in, 177
surgical anatomy of, 1223
tapeinocephalic, 179
trabecular portion of, 183
upper aspect of base of, 167
vertebral portion of, 183
vertebrate theory of, 183
as a whole, 148
Smegma embryonum, 779
præputii, 1171
Socia parotidis, 1011
Solar plexus, 712
Soleus muscle, 382, 389, 1309, 1310
Solitary glands, 1062, 1063, 1073, 1075
Somæsthetic area, 593
Somatic mesoderm, 25, 50
segmental arteries, 938, 939
Somatopleure, 26
Somites, mesodermic, 26, 30, 31, 66
protovertebral, 26, 30, 31, 66
Space of Burns, 879
epidural, 598, 600
intercostal, 102
interpeduncular, 475, 478
interpleural, 977, 982
mediastinal, 977, 982
of Nuel, 767
retropharyngeal, 1031, 1037
semilunar, of Traube, 1271
subarachnoid, 597, 601, 1227
cisternæ of, 602. *See also* Cisterna
communication with ventricles, 601
fluid of, 601, 603
ligamenta denticulata of, 602, 605
septum posticum of, 602, 606
spinal, 602
trabecular tissue of, 601
subdural, 597, 600, 1291
Spaces of Fontana, 727
interglobular, of dentine, 1024
lymphatic, 904
perivascular, 905
Spatia anguli iridis, 727
Spatium perichorioidale, 725, 728
Sperm cells, 13, 1204
Spermatic artery. *See* Artery
cord, 1160, 1162, 1168, 1265
fascia, 430
plexus, 714
vein, 894, 938, 944, 945, 955, 1280
Spermatids, 13, 15
Spermatocyte, 13, 15
of first order, 13, 15
of second order, 13, 15
Spermatogonia, 13, 15
Spermatozoa, 7, 13, 15, 1061
Spheno-ethmoidal recess, 173
Sphenoid bone, 103, 122, 149, 151, 152, 160, 167
architecture of, 127
connexions of, 126
ossification of, 127
variations in, 127
Sphenoidal angle of parietal bone, 108, 1
crest of sphenoid bone, 124
fissure, 124, 125, 127, 149, 151, 170
process of palate, 141, 142, 173
sinus, 122, 124, 127, 128, 151, 171, 174
turbinals, 128, 173

ine, 124
bular ligament, 37, 268
lary fissure, 125, 131, 136, 149, 158, 160, 164

ne artery, 813
2, 159, 173
2, 699

al sinus, 886, 954

is fissure, 164, 165
ous suture, 157, 160
ine canal, 140
atic suture, 151
tion, 9, 10, 11
externus, 435, 438, 441, 1095
1093, 1095
l
6, 1058

of liver, 1112
is of sphenoid, 124, 156

f frontal bone, 105, 149
748
ry nerve. *See* Nerves
, 819, 838, 850, 893
, 87
See also Vertebral column
52
oot-zone of, 609
lle of, anterior, 470, 473
l, 468, 470, 473
ina of, 454, 609
ns, 461
dio-lateral, 461, 463
r, 461, 463
, 461
nal of, 456, 459, 460, 473, 484
nlargement of, 454, 457, 1290,

vesicular column of, 464, 468,

f, antero-lateral, 455
, 455, 459, 470, 473, 483
ach of, 455, 466, 473, 484, 491
of, 455, 466, 473, 484, 491
See Cornua, Cell-columns
455, 459, 468, 473, 484
-cells of, 461, 462
r, 455, 459, 466, 468, 473, 484
455, 459
re of, anterior white, 456, 470,

56
ior, 456
rior, 456, 457, 471
lullaris of, 452, 458, 459
456
, 456, 457, 460, 461, 469, 490,

456, 457, 460, 461
r, 456, 457, 460, 461, 468, 491, 499
ent of, 471
leus of, 464

Spinal cord, enlargements of, 454, 457, 1289, 1290
fasciculus solitarius in, 518
filum terminale of, 452, 459
fissures of, 454
antero-median, 455, 460, 473
postero-median, 455, 460, 473
formatio reticularis of, 457, 460
funiculus cuneatus of, 455, 466, 473
gracilis of, 455, 466, 473
gray matter of, 456, 457, 460, 461
internal structure of, 456
intersegmental association fibres of, 468, 470
length of, 452
ligamenta denticulata of, 453, 602
longitudinal commissural fibres of, 468, 470
lower limit of, in child, 1290
lumbar enlargement of, 454, 457, 1290
marginal tract of Löwenthal of, 521
membranes of, 453, 597, 599, 601, 605
nerve-cells of, 445, 461
nerve-fibres of, 444, 465, 466, 468
neuroglia of, 461, 465
origin of nerves from, 443, 453, 455, 515, 516, 608
posterior paramedian sulcus of, 455, 460
postero-lateral sulcus of, 455
regional differences in, 457, 460
regions of, 454
relation to vertebræ, 452
segments of, 454
sensory and motor distribution of various segments of, 1291
septa of, 453, 455, 459, 460, 465, 473
substantia gelatinosa of, 456, 457, 461, 468 525
sulci of, 454
surgical anatomy of, 1290
theca of, 453
tracts of, 465
of Burdach, 466, 473. *See also supra*, Column of Burdach
comma, 466
descending septo-marginal, 468
direct cerebellar, 464, 468, 473
of Goll, 466, 473. *See also supra*, Column of Goll
of Gowers, 468, 473
of Lissauer, 468
pyramidal crossed, 468, 469, 473
direct, 470, 473
trigeminal root-fibres in, 526
veins of, 888
white matter of, 459, 460, 465
foramen, 75, 76, 77, 80, 82
ganglia, 443, 608, 661
nerves. *See* Nerves
venous plexus, anterior, 887
posterior, 887
Spinalis dorsi muscle, 395
Spindle, achromatic, 10, 13
Spine. *See* Vertebral column
alar, of sphenoid bone, 124, 156, 157, 160, 167
ethmoidal, 123
genial, 144
iliac anterior inferior, 214
superior, 214, 223
posterior inferior, 215, 223
superior, 214, 223, 1302, 1305
ischial, 217, 222, 1303
mental, 144

Spine, nasal, of frontal bone, 104
anterior, 131, 134, 152, 1237
posterior, 141, 162
palatine, 141
peroneal, 244, 245
pubic, 218, 223, 1306
of scapula, 186, 187
sphenoidal, 124
supra-meatal, 1230, 1233
of tibia, 231, 232
Spino-glenoid ligament, 275
Spino-thalamic tract, 468, 494
Spinous processes of vertebræ, 76, 77, 79, 80, 82, 83, 84, 87, 88, 94, 1284
relation of important structures to, 1289
Spiral fasciculi of cochlear nerve, 768
ganglion, 768
line of femur, 225, 227
tubules, 1139
Spirem, 10
Splanchnic ganglion, 710
mesoderm, 25, 50
nerve, 710
segmental arteries, 939, 942
skeleton, 69
Splanchnology, 3
Splanchnopleure, 26
Spleen, 1210
accessory, 1212
development of, 1213
hilum of, 1211
Malpighian corpuscles of, 1213
nerves of, 1212
notches and fissures, 1212
peritoneal relations of, 1212
pulp of, 1213
structure of, 1213
surgical anatomy of, 1288
sustentaculum of, 1083
trabeculæ of, 1213
Splenial centre of inferior maxilla, 146
Splenic artery, 844, 942, 949, 1212, 1213
flexure of colon, 1074, 1083, 1274, 1288, 1290
lymphatic glands, 918
plexus, 713
vein, 901, 904, 1213
Splenium of corpus callosum, 571
Splenius capitis muscle, 392, 398
colli muscle, 392, 398
Spongioblasts, 22, 471, 661, 732, 742
Spongioplasm, 8
Spongy bone, 139
Spot, germinal, 10, 11
Spur of malleus, 755
Squama occipitalis, 109
Squamo-petrosal sinus, 944, 954
Squamosal bone, 181
Squamoso-mastoid suture, 114, 115
Squamous suture, 153
Stalk, allantoic, 51, 65
body, 33, 50, 65
optic, 478, 698, 703, 741, 742
of thalamic radiation, 545
Stapedial artery, 757
Stapedius muscle, 757
Stapes, 756, 1232
annular ligament of, 752
development of, 757
ligaments of, 757
movements of, 758
Stellate ligament, 269
Stenson, canals of, 998
duct of, 995, 1011
foramen of, 134, 135, 162
Stephanion, 154, 160, 179
Sternal angle, 95
articulations, 272
bar, 91
furrow, 1253
line of pleural reflexion, 979, 980
lines, 1253
lymphatic glands, 924
nerve, 617, 619, 622
veins, 874
Sternalis muscle, 324
Sternebræ, 95
Sterno-clavicular joint, 273, 275
movements at, 326
Sterno-clavicularis muscle, 325
Sterno-cleido-mastoid muscle, 410, 41
Sterno-hyoid muscle, 411, 415, 416
Sterno-mastoid artery, of occipital, 80
of superior thyroid, 805
Sterno-mastoid muscle, 411, 416, 426,
Sterno-pericardial ligaments, 793
Sterno-thyroid muscle, 412, 415, 416
Sternum, 94, 1255
architecture of, 96
movements of, 272
ossification of, 96
variations in, 97
Stigmata of capillaries, 780
Stilling, canal of, 736
Stomach, 993, 1050
areæ gastricæ of, 1059
arteries of, 1060
bed, 1053
capacity of, 1053
cardiac orifice of, 1051, 1055, 1271, 1
portion of, 1050, 1052, 1055
of child, 1057
curvatures of, 1051, 1052, 1055
development of, 1105
in female, 1057
form of, 1051, 1052
foveolæ of, 1059
fundus of, 1051, 1052, 1055, 1271, 1
gastro-phrenic ligament of, 1057
glands of, 1059
great curvature of, 1271, 1290
hour-glass, 1058
lesser curvature of, 1271, 1288, 1290
lymphatics of, 918, 1060
mucous membrane of, 1059
muscular coat of, 1058
peritoneal relations of, 1057
pit of, 96, 102
plicæ villosæ of, 1059
position of, 1051, 1052
pyloric antrum of, 1051, 1052, 1055
canal of, 1052, 1055
ligaments of, 1058
orifice of, 1051, 1056, 1271
portion of, 1051, 1052, 1055, 1288
sphincter of, 1056, 1058
valve of, 1056
relations of, 1053
rugæ of, 1059
serous coat of, 1058
size of, 1053
structure of, 1058
submucous coat of, 1059
surfaces of, 1051, 1054

surgical anatomy of, 1271, 1286
ed area of, 1057
, 1060
ped, 1053
chamber, 1053
f capillaries, 780
eum, 34, 38, 66, 1105
inus, 885
ls, 465
acillaris retinæ, 732, 734
n, 534
um, 57, 58
ı, 773
ion, 774
tosum, 774
tivum, 773
centrale, 533
vary, 496
i, 534
ı, 774
m, 773, 774
, 534, 732
i retinæ, 731, 732, 734
um, 57, 58
534, 544, 552, 585
imitive, 19, 21, 65
ullaris, 544, 548
ari, 585
is, 765
ticæ, 488, 497, 521
linales, 569, 571, 573
us, 1024
eries, 817
82
Hensen, 767
cularis muscle, 746
ocess of fibula, 236
ius, 201, 202, 1298
mporal bone, 116, 117, 121, 156, 157, 65, 167
elopment of, 37
of metacarpal bone, 211, 212
a, 197, 1298
us muscle, 414, 415, 416
s, 37, 121, 148
d ligament, 37, 148, 269
413, 415, 416, 442
dibular ligament, 269, 401, 1010
toid artery, 808
, 118, 120, 165, 167
ryngeus muscle, 417, 419, 442
al bursa, 278
us muscle, 336
oid fluid, 601, 603
See Space
e fossa, 119, 122
l gyrus, 571, 573, 597
ı artery. *See* Artery
100
8
ic trunk, 908
708
7, 936, 938, 944, 946, 955, 1252
muscle, 324, 326
d centre, 189, 254
angle, 102
38
09, 100

422, 426
047
s muscle, 362
)

Subdeltoid bursa, 278
Subdural space, 597, 600, 1291
Sublingual artery, 805
gland, 805, 1012, 1244
development of, 1013
region, 997
Submalleolar apophysis, 245
Submaxillary artery, 806
ganglion, 685, 687, 707
gland, 995, 1011, 1249
development of, 1013
duct of, 997, 1012
lymphatic glands, 911, 1250
Submental artery, 806
triangle, 1218
Subnasal point, 178
Suboccipital nerve, 611, 614
triangle, 397
Subpleural plexus, 825
Subpubic ligament, 292
Subscapular artery, 825, 829
bursa, 278
fossa, 189
lymphatic glands, 914
nerve. *See* Nerve
Subscapularis muscle, 330, 331
minor, 331
Substantia adamantina, 1023
eburnea, 1024
ferruginea, 488, 504
gelatinosa, 456, 461, 468, 485, 490, 491, 502, 525, 528
nigra, 533, 546, 581
Subthalamic tegmental region, 542, 546
Suctorial pad, 399, 404, 997
Sulcus or Sulci. *See also* Groove
alar, 717
alveolo-glossal, 1244
antihelicis transversus, 745
auris anterior, 744
basilar, of pons, 486
calcanei, 243
callosal, 568
caroticus of sphenoid, 123
centralis cerebri, 558
insulæ, 568
of cerebellum, 506, 529
cerebral, 554
development of, 596
circularis Reilii, 556, 567
of cord, 454, 455, 460
coronarius, 783
costalis, 99
cruris helicis, 745
diagonalis, 560, 561
ethmoidalis, 137
fimbrio-dentate, 569
frontal, 105
of frontal lobe, 560, 1225
fronto-marginalis, 560, 561
horizontalis of cerebellum, 506
intraparietalis, 563
lachrymalis, 132, 138, 151
lateral, of skull, 108
lateralis mesencephali, 533
limiting, of Reil, 556
longitudinalis, of heart, 784
lunatus occipitalis, 567
malleolaris, 234, 238, 748
of Monro, 551, 594
occipitalis lateralis, 564, 566
transversus, 563, 564, 566

Sulcus or Sulci, occipito-temporal, 566, 567
oculo-motorius, 433
oculo-nasal, 39
olfactory, 562
orbital, 562
parallel, 567, 1224, 1225
paramedialis, 560, 561
of parietal lobe, 563
peronæi, 247
post-central, 563, 564, 1225
post-limbic, 563
precentral, 560, 561, 564, 1225
primarius, 530
pterygo-palatine, 126, 143
rostrales, 561
sagittalis, 108, 110
scleræ, 724
spiralis externus cochleæ, 765
internus cochleæ, 765
subclavius of lung, 985, 987
tali, 240
temporal, 567
terminalis of heart, 786, 787, 932
of tongue, 1000, 1014
transversus of occipital bone, 110
tubæ auditivæ, 124, 164, 165, 753
tympanicus, 748, 750
valleculæ, 506, 507
Superciliary ridge, 104, 148, 177, 1237
Superficial volar artery, 832
Supination, movement of, 283, 354
Supinator radii brevis muscle, 351, 354
Supracallosal gyrus, 569, 571
Supraclavicular nerves, 624
Suprahyoid artery, 805
lymphatic glands, 911, 1218
muscles, 412, 415
Supramandibular nerve, 688
Supramarginal gyrus, 563, 564, 1224
triangle, 1225
Supramastoid crest, 114, 154
Suprameatal spine, 1230, 1233
triangle, 156
Supranasal bone, 106
Supraoccipital bone, 113, 181
Supraorbital artery, 816, 1224
foramen, 104, 148
margin, 103, 104, 148, 1237
nerve, 679
notch, 104, 148, 1224
ridge, 104
vein, 879
Suprarenal artery, 842, 942
capsule, 1213, 1286, 1290
development of, 715, 1216
in fœtus, 1215
nerves of, 1215
structure of, 1215
vessels of, 1215
impression of liver, 1111
plexus, 713
vein, 893, 938, 944, 945, 955
Suprascapular artery, 825
ligament, 275
nerve. *See* Nerve
notch, 186, 188
region, 1284
vein, 879
Suprascleral lymphatic space, 725
Supraspinatus muscle, 329, 331
Supraspinous artery, 825
fossa, 187
Supraspinous ligament, 264
Suprasternal artery, 825
notch, 95
region, 1253
Supratonsillar fossa, 1034, 1035, 103
Supratrochlear foramen, 194
lymphatic glands, 914
nerve, 679
Sural arteries, 863, 864
nerve, 650, 657
Surface and surgical anatomy, 1222
of abdomen, 1264
of abdominal wall, 1264
of abdominal cavity, 1267
of ankle, 1310
of arm, 1295
of axilla, 1293
of back, 1284
of buttock, 1302
of cranium, 1222
of ear, 1229
of elbow, 1296
of face, 1236
of female pelvis, 1282
of foot, 1310
of forearm, 1298
of head, 1222
of heart, 1262
of hand, 1298
of knee, 1307
of leg, 1308
of lungs, 1255
of neck, 1246
of perineum, 1277
of popliteal space, 1305
of shoulder, 1291
of thigh, 1303, 1305
of thorax, 1253
Surgical neck of humerus, 191
Suspensory ligament of clitoris, 1197
of lens, 736
of ovary, 1183
of penis, 1172
muscle of duodenum, 1070
Sustentacular cells, 13
Sustentaculum lienis, 1083
tali, 244, 245, 248, 1311
Sutura dentata, 256
harmonia, 256
limbosa, 256
notha, 256
serrata, 256
spheno-zygomatica, 151
squamosa, 256
vera, 256
zygomatico-maxillaris, 149, 152, 156
zygomatico-frontalis, 149
Sutural bones, 131
Suture, 255, 256, 260
coronal, 108, 153, 160, 177
frontal, 148
fronto-malar, 149, 1224
fronto-maxillary, 148, 149
fronto-squamosal, 119, 131
intermaxillary, 133, 152
internasal, 138
lambdoid, 108, 111, 154, 159, 16
1225
malo-maxillary, 149
metopic, 106
naso-frontal, 148
occipito-mastoid, 154, 166

·bito-maxillary frontal, 130
ɔ, middle, 162
verse, 162
·mastoid, 154
ɹuamosal, 114, 115, 120, 1233
illary, 135
, 108, 159, 160, 177
·parietal, 153
·squamous, 157, 160
ıso-mastoid, 114, 115
ıus, 153
ıg, movements in, 419
ınds, 778
opment of, 779
of, 778
erulus of, 778
e of, 778
ıqueduct, 476, 478, 481, 531, 533, 542,
l
553, 555, 556, 557, 562, 1224, 1225
56, 596
25
55, 1224, 1225
32
y, 4
etic system, 443, 703
cal, 706, 715, 1251
ıissural cords of, 703, 705, 706, 710,
l
opment of, 715
ions of, 704
lia of, 704. *See also* Ganglia
liated cords of, 704, 705, 709, 710,
l
ral structure of, 704
ıar, 710
ıhology of, 716
ɔ-fibres of, 704. *See also* Nerve-fibres
ıses of, 712
communicantes of, 704, 705. *See also*
ɹmi
l, 711
ıcic, 708
is of jaw, 143
218, 221, 222, 223, 292
osis, 255, 257
lrosis, 255, 256, 260
ɔentral, 91
256, 260
bursæ. *See* Bursa
s, 258, 281, 295
anes, 257, 258, 260, 278, 281, 282, 284,
288, 295, 302, 307, 312
at wrist, 337, 338
ic anatomy, 3
circulation, 783, 870

relations of structures to vertebral
1289
ɹrpuscles, 774, 775
74
li, 1061, 1074, 1087
, 572
ɹmpi, 572
548
cularis, 544, 574, 576, 582
i, 544, 547, 594
36
', 49, 33

ıneal *joint*, *308*, 315
ıneo-*navicular* joint, 309
Talo-fibular ligaments, 307
Talo-scaphoid joint, 309, 315, 1312
Talo-tibial ligaments, 307
Talus, 239
Tangential fibres of cortex, 585
Tapeinocephalic skulls, 179
Tapetum, 571, 576, 588, 591
cellulosum, 729
of chorioid, 729
fibrosum, 729
Tarsal arches, 740
artery, 869
cartilages, 1239
glands, 739
ligaments of eyelid, 739, 741
Tarsale, os, 253
Tarso-metatarsal joints, 313, 1311
Tarsus, 239, 248
architecture of, 248
of eyelid, 738
ossification of, 249
transverse articulation of, 311
variations in, 249
Taste buds, 770, 1004
nerves of, 771
organs, 770
Tectorial membrane, 766, 767
Teeth, 995, 1014, 1242
alveoli of, 1016, 1027, 1028
apical foramen of, 1015
arrangement of, in jaws, 1021
auditory, 766
basal ridge of, 1017
bicuspid, 1015, 1018
canine, 1015, 1017, 1023
cementum of, 1014, 1023, 1025, 1027
cingulum of, 1017
contact surface of, 1016
crown of, 1015
cusps of, 1015, 1017, 1021
deciduous, 1015, 1022, 1027
dental index of, 1029
lamina of, 1026
dentine of, 1014, 1023, 1024, 1025, 1026, 1028
dermal, 1025
development of, 1025
enamel of, 1014, 1023, 1025, 1026, 1028
organs of, 1026
eruption of, 1022, 1025, 1027, 1028
eye, 1017
fangs of, 1015
follicles of, 1027, 1028
germs of, 1027
grinding surfaces of, 1016
gubernaculum of, 1028
incisor, 1015, 1017, 1022
lingual cusp of, 1017
milk, 1014, 1015, 1022, 1027, 1242
molar, 1015, 1019, 1022, 1027
morphology of, 1029
multicuspidate, 1019
Nasmyth's membrane of, 1024
nerves of. *See* Nerves, dental, incisor
papilla of, 1025, 1026
permanent, 1014, 1015, 1016, 1027, 1242
premolar, 1015, 1018
pulp of, 1016, 1023, 1025, 1027
cavity of, 1016, 1027
relative sizes of, 180
reserve germs of, 1027
root membrane of, 1016, 1025, 1027
roots of, 1015, 1016, 1027, 1242

Teeth, structure of, 1015, 1023
tartar of, 1016
temporary, 1014, 1022, 1027
tubercles of, 1015
variations, 1022
wisdom, 1015, 1019
Tegmen tympani, 119, 170, 749, 752, 1232
Tegmental region, subthalamic, 542, 546
Tegmentum, 532, 535, 542, 546, 550
Tela choroidea, 604
subserosa, 1045
Telencephalon, 478, 481, 553, 594
Telolecithal ova, 11
Telophase, 10
Temporal area, 125
artery. *See* Artery
bone, 103, 114, 152, 155, 162
architecture of, 119
connexions of, 119
mastoid antrum of, 752. *See also* Antrum
ossification of, 120
petromastoid part of, 114, 116, 120, 162, 169, 170
squamous part of, 114, 120, 121, 161, 162, 169
tympanic part of, 114, 116, 120, 162
variations in, 120
canal, 137, 155
crest, 104, 107, 154, 1224, 1237
fascia, 400
fossa, 107, 155
gyri. *See* Gyrus
line, 104, 107, 148, 154, 155
lobe, 567, 588, 1225
muscle, 408, 410
nerve. *See* Nerve
plane, 107
process, 136
ridge, 104, 154, 155
sulci, 567
veins, 879, 880
Temporo-maxillary arch, 137
joint, 267, 1230
vein, 876, 880, 944, 954
Temporo-pontine tract, 540, 583, 591
Tendo Achillis, 382, 1310
Tendon, conjoint, 430, 431, 1266
Tenon, capsule of, 405, 724
Tensor fasciæ femoris muscle, 369, 375, 376, 399, 1303, 1306
latæ muscle, 369, 375, 376, 399, 1303, 1306
palati muscle, 419, 754, 1246
tarsi muscle, 403, 405, 791
tympani muscle, 757, 1232
Tentorium cerebelli, 475, 599, 1225
Teres major muscle, 330, 331
minor muscle, 329, 331
Testicular artery, 843
Testes, 1159
coni vasculosi of, 1162, 1204
descent of, 1167
development of, 1204
digital fossa of, 1160
epididymis of, 1160
gubernaculum of, 1168
hydatids of, 1160, 1199, 1205
lobes of, 1161
mediastinum of, 1161
mesentery of, 1167
nerves of, 1162
paradidymis of, 1160, 1199
processus vaginalis of, 1167
Testes, rete of, 1161, 1204
seminiferous tubules of, 1161, 1
septula of, 1161
structure of, 1161
tubuli recti of, 1161, 1204
tunica albuginea of, 1161, 1204
vaginalis of, 1160, 1167
vasculosa of, 1161
undescended, 1168
vas deferens of, 1159, 1162, 1199
vasa efferentia of, 1162, 1204
vessels of, 1162
Thalamencephalon, 478, 481
Thalamic radiation, 543, 545
Thalamo-cortical fibres, 591, 593
Thalamo-striate fibres, 581, 583
Thalamus, optic, 542
anterior nucleus, 545
tubercle of, 544
bundle of Vicq d'Azyr of, 545
central nucleus of, 545
connexion of, with basal gangl
cerebral cortex, 543, 545,
hippocampus, 572
optic tract, 545, 552
development of, 478, 480, 594
external geniculate body of, 54
Corpora geniculata
external medullary lamina of,
fillet fibres of, 539
gray matter of, 544
internal medullary lamina of,
intimate structure of, 544
lateral nucleus of, 545
mesial nucleus of, 545
nucleus arcuatus of, 545
position and connexions of, 4
575
pulvinar of, 531, 544, 552
radiation of, 543, 545
stratum zonale of, 544, 545, 55
stria medullaris of, 544, 548
surfaces of, 543, 544, 550
tænia of, 544, 547, 594
Thebesius, valve of, 787, 788, 871,
Theca of cord, 453
folliculi, 1185
Thigh bone, 224
Third ventricle. *See* Ventricle
Thoracic arteries, 828, 829
aorta, 797, 798
duct, 904, 906, 956, 1040, 1252,
ganglia, 706, 708, 712
nerves. *See* Nerves
vertebræ, 75, 80
Thorax, 101
aortic area of, 1262
apertures of, 102
cavity of, 976
in fœtus, 103
joints of, 269
lines of, 1253
lymphatics of, 923
mediastinum of, 976
mitral area of, 1262
muscles of, 422, 426
præcordial area of, 1262
pulmonary area of, 1262
regions of, 1253
sexual differences in, 103
sternal furrow of, 1253
surgical anatomy of, 1253

icuspid area of, 1262
. 102
ıovements of, 355
of, 343, 345
land, 1218
ment of, 1220
e of, 1220
-epiglottidean muscle, 968, 971
tenoid ligaments, 963
968, 969, 971
glottidean ligament, 964
970
ssal duct, 37, 1014, 1217, 1242
ıl, 148
ɔid arch, 36, 37, 442, 702
ıne, 962, 1218
412, 415, 416
rteries. *See* Artery
3, 941, 951
216
ory, 1217
opment of, 1217
ıus of, 1216, 1217, 1249
ıl lobes of, 1216, 1217
ɔr of, 1217
nidal lobe of, 1216, 1217
ure of, 1217
tions in, 1217
e, 958, 992
opment of, 37, 992
ı, 214, 219
nts, 1217
See Veins
, 298, 1308
ture of, 234
ons of, 234
gy of, 253
ion of, 235
ɔns in, 234
eries. *See* Artery
tic gland, 916
See Nerves
s, 253
nticus muscle, 378, 389, 1312
muscle, 385, 389, 1311, 1312
ialis anticus muscle, 379
lar joint, inferior, 304
ments at, 389
ior, 304
ıt, interosseous, 305
verse, 305
icular ligament, 307
tal sheaths of, 378
ents of, 390
ɔrils of, 1024, 1028
s of, 1028
95, 1000
glands of, 1006
of, 1006
ɔment of, 35, 37, 1013
of, 770
, 1004
ı cæcum of, 1000, 1014, 1217, 1242
of, 997, 1005, 1244
ɔf, 1006
duct of, 1217
ls of, 1242
ıtics of, 1007, 1244
ɔid follicles of, 1001
membrane of, 1001, 1006
ı of, 414, 415, 442, 701, 1005, 1243
Tongue, nerves of, 1006
oral part of, 1002, 1242
papillæ of, 770, 1002, 1003
plicæ fimbriatæ of, 1005
pharyngeal part of, 1001, 1242
raphe, 1002
septum of, 1005
structure of, 1005
sulcus terminalis of, 1000, 1014
surgical anatomy of, 1242
taste-buds of, 770, 1004
thyro-glossal duct of, 37, 1014, 1217, 1242
veins of, 1006
Tonsillar arteries, 806, 1006, 1036
plexus, 698, 1036
Tonsillitic nerve, 690, 1036
Tonsils, 995, 1034, 1035, 1244
cerebellar, 507
development of, 1037
of Eustachian tube, 754
intestinal, 1064
lingual, 1001, 1242
lymphatics of, 1036
nerves of, 1036
pharyngeal, 1033, 1037, 1246
plica triangularis of, 1036
vessels of, 1036
Tooth-band, 1026
Topographical anatomy, 4
Torcular Herophili, 111, 884
Touch, organs of, 772
Trabeculæ carneæ cordis, 790
cranii, 181
Trachea, 972, 1249, 1289
bifurcation of, 1260, 1289
cartilaginous rings of, 973, 975, 991
development of, 35, 38, 992
fibro-elastic membrane of, 975
mucous glands of, 975
membrane of, 975
muscle of, 975
relations of, 974
structure of, 975
Tracheal arteries, 823
Trachelo-mastoid muscle, 395, 399
Tracheotomy, 1249
Tracts of basis-bundles. *See* Basis-bundle
of Burdach, 466, 473. *See also* Spinal cord
callosal, crossed, 546
central tegmental of pons, 502
cerebello-olivary, 496, 497, 510
comma, 466
of corpus trapezoides, 501
cortico-pontine, 501, 540, 583, 591
direct cerebellar, 464, 468, 473, 484, 485, 496, 510
sensory, 468
sensory cerebellar, 521
of fillet. *See* Fillet
fronto-pontine, 540, 583, 591
of Goll, 466, 473. *See also* Spinal cord
of Gowers, 468, 473, 484, 498, 511
of Lissauer, 468
marginal, of Löwenthal, 521
myelinisation of, 473
olfactory, 569, 596
lateral root of, 570
mesial root of, 570, 573
structure of, 587
optic, 475, 532, 675, 698
cerebral connexions of, 552
commissural fibres of, 552

Tracts, optic, efferent fibres of, 552
optic, lateral root of, 532, 552
mesial root of, 532, 552
posterior longitudinal. *See* Longitudinal bundle
pyramidal, 591
in cerebral hemispheres, 591
crossed, 468, 469, 473, 483, 490, 591
direct, 470, 473, 483, 490, 591
in internal capsule, 583
in medulla, 489, 490
in pons, 499
rubro-spinal, 537
septo-marginal descending, 468
spino-thalamic, 468, 494
temporo-pontine, 583, 591
Tractus spiralis foraminosus, 761, 762
Tragicus muscle, 746
Tragus, 744
Transpyloric plane, 1267
Transversalis abdominis muscle, 431
cervicis muscle, 394
fascia, 1044
Transverse carpal articulation, 285
fissure of brain, 604
humeral ligament, 277
intermetacarpal ligament, 287
ligament of acetabulum, 294
of knee, 302
tibio-fibular, 305
metacarpal ligaments, 288, 338
metatarsal ligament, 314, 378
perineal ligament, 293
processes of vertebræ, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 86, 87, 88, 94, 167
tarsal articulation, 311
Transversus perinei superficialis muscle, 436
auriculæ muscle, 746
perinei profundus muscle, 437
thoracis muscle, 422
vaginæ muscle, 437
Trapezium, 203, 205, 209, 253, 1299
Trapezius muscle, 318, 326, 1285
Trapezoid bone, 203, 206, 209, 253
ligament, 274, 275
ridge of clavicle, 185
Traube, semilunar space of, 1271
Triangle of auscultation, 319
digastric, 1249
epigastric, 1255
of Hesselbach, 434, 1266
of Petit, 319, 430, 1285
rectal, of perineum, 1277
submental, 1218
suboccipital, 397
supramarginal, 1225
suprameatal, 156
urogenital, 1277
Triangles of neck. *See* Neck
Triangular fascia, 430
fibro-cartilage, 282, 283
ligament of perineum, 292, 438
Triangularis sterni muscle, 422, 426
Triceps brachii muscle, 334, 336, 1295
cruris muscle, 381
Tricuspid area, 1262
orifice, 787, 789, 1162, 1290
valve, 789
Trigeminal nerve. *See* Nerve
Trigona fibrosa, 789
Trigone, olfactory, 570
Trigonum acustici, 488
Trigonum habenulæ, 544, 547, 594
hypoglossi, 488, 516, 527
of lateral ventricle, 576
vagi, 488, 517, 527
vesicæ, 1151, 1203
Trochanter major, 225, 1302
minor, 226, 1302
tertius, 226, 229
Trochlea, 193
of femur, 228
of obliquus superior muscle, 406
tali, 240
Trochlear fossa, 105, 149
nerve, 540, 677
spine, 105
surface, 190
Trolard, anastomotic vein of, 883
Tröltsch, recesses of, 758
Trunks of brachial plexus, 623, 663
of sacral plexus, 648, 664
Tubal artery, 843
Tube, Eustachian. *See* Eustachian tu
Fallopian. *See* Fallopian tube
neural. *See* Neural tube
Tuber cinereum, 475, 478, 548, 550, 5
ischii, 217
maxillare, 132, 156
mentale, 143
parietale, 107, 154
valvulæ, 507, 508
vermis, 507
Tubera frontalia, 103
Tubercle or Tubercles, accessory, 83
adductor, 227, 230, 1308
amygdaloid, 576
of astragalus, 241, 243
of atlas, 78
carotid, 1252
conoid, of clavicle, 185
of cuboid bone, 247
cuneate, 485, 492
cuneiform, 964
deltoid, of clavicle, 185
dental, 1015
dorsal, of radius, 1298
of epiglottis, 965
of femur, 225
genital, 45, 66
labial, 996
of Lower, 788
mental, 143
of metacarpal bone, 212, 1299
obturator, 219
olfactory, 570
of os calcis, 244
peroneal, 1311
pharyngeal, 112, 164, 167
post-glenoid, 115, 120
pterygoid, 126, 163
of quadratus, 225
of rib, 97, 98, 99, 100
of Santorini, 964
scalene, 100
of scaphoid bone, 245, 1298, 1311
of thalamus, 544
of tibia, 231, 233
of transverse processes of vertebr
83
vertebral arterial, 1252
of zygoma, 114
Tubercular point of hip, 1302
process of vertebra, 94

acusticum, 519, 520
8
43
43
ım, 43
485
744, 745
1013
loideum, 232
ım helicis, 43
um, 788
12
3
)
)
iepatis, 1112
78
218
85, 491

icum, 744
43
r Tuberosities, bicipital, 200
28
tatarsal, 251
s, 190, 1292
17
, 217, 222, 223, 1302
;
, 132, 133, 156
ar bone, 245, 249
113, 1127
, 245
one, 141, 142, 156, 163
l, 204, 253
31, 232, 233, 1308
06
hial, in lung, 989
1024, 1028
ids, 1007
idney, 1139, 1199, 1202
ium, 1187
1201
testis, 1161, 1204
contorti, 1161, 1204
ginea, 1161, 1204
s cavernosum, 1172
a bulbi, 739
arum, 739
arteries, 781
hatics, 905
, 782
arteries, 781
hatics, 905
, 782
rteries, 781
hatics, 905
, 782
testis, 1160, 1167
oculi, 725, 727
orti, 766
phenoidal, 128, 173
processes of ethmoid, 129, 152, 173,
9
rior, 103, 139, 152, 173, 176, 1239
rior, 133, 142
, 132, 142
ntrum, 752
9, 811, 814
, 1233
s, 118
9, 748

Tympanic cavity, atrium of, 748
cavity, blood-vessels of, 758
development of, 43, 44
membrana tympani secundaria of, 752
mucous membrane of, 758
muscles of, 757
nerves of, 758
orifice of Eustachian tube in, 750
promontory of, 752
pyramid of, 749
recessus epitympanicus of, 748
sinus of, 752
tegmen of, 749, 752
groove, 748, 750
membrane, 43, 750, 1231
folds of, 1231
paracentesis of, 1232
triangular cone of, 1232
nerve. *See* Nerve
ossicles, 754
plate, 114, 115, 116, 120, 157, 165, 177
fibrous, 748
plexus, 689, 707
ring, 44, 121, 748
Tympano-hyal, 37, 121
Tympano-mastoid fissure, 116
Tympanum, 119, 748. *See also* Tympanic cavity
development of, 43, 44
walls of, 749, 750, 1232, 1233

Ulna, 195, 1297, 1298
architecture of, 199
connexions of, 198
homology of, 253
ossification of, 199
variations in, 199
Ulnar artery, 834, 934, 943, 952, 1301
furrow, 198
nerve. *See* Nerve
veins, 891, 938, 946
Ulnare, os, 253
Umbilical arteries, 51, 848, 851, 1098
cord, 51, 52
fissure, 1114
notch, 1114
orifice, 27
region, 1047, 1267
vein, 51, 63, 935
vesicle, 48
zone, 1047
Umbilicus, 68, 1264, 1290
Umbo membranæ tympanæ, 751
Unciform bone, 203, 207, 208, 209, 253, 1299
Uncinate process of ethmoid, 130
of pancreas, 1126, 1128
Uncus, 568, 584
Ungual phalanges, 213, 252
Ungues, 775
Urachus, 51, 1098, 1146, 1156, 1203
Ureter, 1130, 1141, 1276, 1283, 1284, 1286, 1290
development of, 1199, 1202
in female, 1143
orifice of, 1142, 1151
pelvic portion, 1142
structure of, 1143
variations in, 1144
Ureteral artery, 842
Urethra, 1130, 1157, 1159
crista of, 1158, 1178
development of, 1200, 1203, 1206

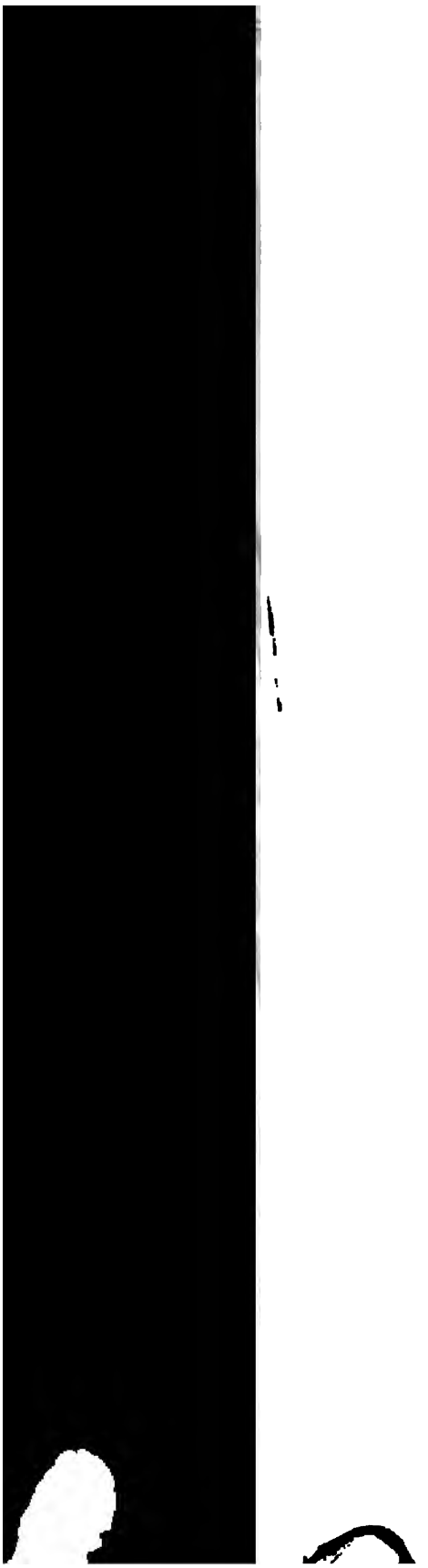
Urethra, external orifice of, 1158, 1170, 1180, 1196, 1282
female, 1157, 1282
fossa navicularis of, 1180
glands of, 1158, 1177, 1180
internal orifice of, 1145, 1146
lacunæ of, 1158, 1180
male, 1177, 1278
membranous, 1177, 1179, 1203, 1278
prostatic, 1177, 1178, 1203
septum of, 1206
spongy portion of, 1177, 1179, 1203
structure of, 1158, 1180
surgical anatomy of, 1278
Urinary organs, 1130
Urogenital canal, 1200
cleft, 1195, 1200, 1207
fissure, 1200
organs, development of, 1198
space, 1200
system, 1130
triangle of perineum, 1277
Uterine artery, 843, 852, 1192, 1284
decidua, 53, 54, 56, 57
plexus, 714
veins, 896
venous plexuses, 896
Utero-sacral ligaments, 1101, 1189
Utero-vesical fold, 1189
pouch, 1101, 1189
Uterus, 1182, 1187
anteflexed, 1190
anteverted, 1190
arbor vitæ of, 1188, 1191
broad ligaments of, 1101, 1189, 1284
cavity of, 1188
cervical ganglion of, 1192
cervix of, 1188
connexions of, 1189
development of, 1199, 1205
at different ages, 1191
external os of, 1188
fundus of, 1187, 1284
glands of, 1191
horns of, 1192
internal os of, 1188
masculinus, 1179
in menstruation, 1192
nerves of, 1192
periodic changes in, 1192
peritoneal relations of, 1189
position of, 1190
pregnant, 53, 56, 1192
relations of, 1190
retroverted, 1191
round ligament of, 1190, 1284
septum of, 1192
structure of, 1191
surgical anatomy of, 1284
variations in, 1192
vessels of, 1192
Utricle, 759, 762
macula acustica of, 762
recessus of, 762
sinus superior of, 763
Utriculus prostaticus, 1164, 1179, 1199, 1205
Uvula of cerebellum, 507, 508
of palate, 999
vesicæ, 1151

Vagina, 1182, 1192
bulbs of, 1283
Vagina, carina urethralis of, 1195
carunculæ of, 1193, 1197
columns of, 1195
development of, 1199, 1200, 1205
digital exploration of, 1283
fornix of, 1193, 1283
hymen of, 1193, 1196, 1205
introitus of, 1283
mucous membrane of, 1195
muscular coat of, 1195
nerves of, 1195
orifice of, 1196
relations of, 1193
rugæ of, 1196
septum of, 1195
structure of, 1195
variations in, 1195
vessels of, 1195
vestibule of, 1196
Vaginal artery, 851, 1195
ligaments, 378
plexus, 714
process of temporal bone, 116, 15
of sphenoid bone, 126, 163
veins, 896
venous plexuses, 896
Vagus nerve. *See* Nerve
Vallecula of cerebellum, 506
of larynx, 963
Sylvii, 555
of tongue, 1002
Vallum of circumvallate papillæ, 1
unguis, 775
Valve or Valves, anal, 1093, 1095
aortic, 791, 932
of Beraud, 741
Eustachian, 787, 788, 892, 932
of Hasner, 741
of Houston, 1093
ileo-cæcal, 993, 1076, 1077, 1273
of Kohlrausch, 1093
of Krause, 741
of lymphatic vessels, 905
pulmonary, 790, 932
pyloric, 1056
rectal, 1089, 1093
of Thebesius, 787, 788, 871, 932
tricuspid, 789
of veins, 782
of Vieussens. *See* Vellum, medull
venous, of heart, 931
Valvula or Valvulæ, anal, 1093, 10
conniventes, 1062, 1070, 1073, 10
fossa navicularis, 1180
processus vermiformis, 1080
Vas deferens, 1159, 1162, 1280
ampulla of, 1164, 1166
development of, 1199, 1120, 12
structure of, 1166
prominens, 765
spirale, 766
Vasa aberrantia, 838, 946, 952
epididymidis, 1162, 1199
brevia, 904, 1060
efferentia testis, 1162, 1199, 1204
intestini tenuis, 1073
vasorum, 783
Vascular area, 61
system, 780
abnormalities of, 946
blood, 780
development of, 925

Vascular system, divisions of, 783
lymph, 780, 904
morphology of, 938
primitive, 60
Vastus externus muscle, 361, 375, 1304
intermedius muscle, 361
internus muscle, 361, 375, 1308
Vater, ampulla of, 1110
Veins or Vein, 780, 870
abnormalities of, 954
allantoic, 62, 934
anal, 1096
anastomotic, posterior, 883
anastomotica magna, 883
angular, 879
anonyma, 873
appendicular, 903
auricular posterior, 878
axillary, 888, 938, 946, 1292
azygos major, 872, 936, 937, 944, 945, 954, 1289
minor, inferior, 872, 936, 937, 944, 945, 954
superior, 872, 936, 944, 945, 954
basilar, 883
basilic, 891, 938, 946, 955, 1295, 1296
of bones, 74
brachio-cephalic, 873
of brain, 881
bronchial, 873, 945, 989
buccal, 880
capillary, 780
cardiac, anterior, 871
great, 871
inferior, 871
middle, 871
small, 871
smallest, 871
cardinal, 935, 936, 944
cephalic, 891, 938, 946, 955, 1296
cerebellar, 883
cerebral, 882
anterior, 883
deep, 882
inferior, 882
superficial, 882
superior, 882
cervical, deep anterior, 875
posterior, 875
transverse, 879
choroid, 882
circumflex-iliac, deep, 899
superficial, 901
colic, 903, 904
coronary, left, 871
right, 871
of stomach, 903, 1060
of corpus striatum, 574, 882
of cranium, 880, 883
cystic, 903
deep, of trunk and limbs, 871
dental, inferior, 880
superior, 880
development of, 62, 934
digital, of foot, 900, 946
of hand, 889
diploic, 880
frontal, 881
occipital, 881
temporal, 881
dorsal, of clitoris, 897
of penis, 897, 1173
of tongue, 1006
elastic layer of, 782
Veins or Vein, emissary, 884, 886
endothelium of, 782
epigastric, deep, 900
superficial, 901
superior, 874
facial, anterior, 876, 1237
common, 876, 1251
deep, 877
femoral, 897, 898, 946
superficial, 900
of forearm, superficial, 890
frontal, 879
of Galen, 604, 882
gastric, 910, 1060
gastro-epiploic, 903, 904, 1060
gluteal, inferior, 895
superior, 895
hæmorrhoidal, inferior, 896, 1096
middle, 896, 945, 1096
superior, 904, 945, 1096
of head and neck, 875
of heart, 787, 788, 793, 871, 945
hepatic, 892, 935, 945, 955, 1120
interlobular, 893, 1120
sublobular, 893, 1121
hypogastric, 895
ileo-cæcal, 903
ileo-colic, 903
iliac, common, 895, 936, 937, 944, 955, 1
external, 897, 899, 946
internal, 895, 936, 937, 944
ilio-lumbar, 895
infraorbital, 880
innominate, 873,
left, 874, 936, 944
right, 874, 936
intercostal, 873, 945
anterior, 873
left superior, 873, 904, 936, 937, 944, 9
posterior, 873, 875
right superior, 873, 945
interdigital, of foot, 900
of hand, 890
interosseous, of hand, 890
interventricular, inferior, 871
intestinal, 903
jugular, anterior, 879, 954
external, 877, 936, 954, 1252
internal, 875, 944, 954, 1251
bulb of, 876
posterior external, 877
primitive, 935, 936, 937
of large intestine, 1075
lienal, 904
lingual, 876
of liver, 1120, 1121
of lower limb, 897, 938, 946, 955
deep, 897
superficial, 897, 900, 938
lumbar, 894, 937, 945, 955
ascending, 872, 894
mammary, internal, 874
marginal, of heart, 871
masseteric, 880
maxillary, internal, 880, 945
median, of bulb, 883
of forearm, 890, 938, 955, 1297
median-basilic, 891, 1297
median-cephalic, 890, 955, 1297
mediastinal, 874
of medulla oblongata, 883
meningeal, 880, 881

Veins or Vein, mesenteric, inferior, 901, 904, 945
mesenteric, superior, 901, 903, 945
metacarpal, dorsal, 890
of mid-brain, 883
morphology of, 943
muscle-fibres of, 782
musculo-phrenic, 874
nerves of, 783
of nose, 880
oblique, of Marshall, 785, 871
obturator, 895
occipital, 876, 879
ophthalmic, inferior, 879
superior, 879
of orbit, 879,
ovarian, 894, 944, 955
palatine, posterior, 880
pancreatic, 904
pharyngeal, 876
phrenic, inferior, 893
pleural, 874
of pons Varolii, 883
popliteal, 897, 898, 955
portal, 901, 935, 945, 1120, 1290
branches of, 903
capillaries of, 902
sinus of, 903
profunda clitoridis, 897
penis, 897
pterygoid, 880
of pterygo-maxillary region, 879
pterygo-palatine, 880
pubic, 900
pudic, internal, 896
superficial, 901
pulmonary, 870, 938, 945, 989, 992
orifices of, 784, 788
pyloric, 903, 945, 1060
radial, 891, 938, 946, 955
radicular, of bulb, 883
ranine, 876, 1006, 1244
of rectum and anus, 1096
renal, 893, 938, 944, 945, 955
sacral, 895, 896
saphena magna, 900
parva, 901
saphenous, external, 900, 901, 938, 946, 955
internal, 900, 938, 946, 955
long, 900, 1306, 1308, 1310, 1312
short, 900, 1310, 1312
of scalp, 879, 1222
sciatic, 895
segmental, 838, 943
sigmoid, 904
spermatic, 894, 938, 944, 945, 955, 1280
spheno-palatine, 880
spinal, 887
longitudinal anterior, 887
posterior, 887
of spinal cord, 888
splenic, 901, 904, 1212
sternal, 874
of stomach, 1060
striate, inferior, 882
structure of, 782
subclavian, 877, 936, 938, 944, 946, 955, 1252
superficial, of trunk and limbs, 870
supraorbital, 879
suprarenal, 893, 938, 944, 945, 955
suprascapular, 879
Sylvian, 882
temporal, deep, 880
Veins or Vein, temporal, superficial,
temporo-maxillary, 876, 880, 944,
thyroid, inferior, 875, 945, 1217, 1
middle, 876, 945, 1217
superior, 876, 945, 1217, 1218
of tonsil, 1036
tunica, intima of, 782
externa, 782
media of, 782
ulnar, 891, 938, 946
umbilical, 51, 63, 935
of upper limb, 888, 938, 946, 955
deep, 888
superficial, 889, 955
uterine, 896
vaginal, 896
valves of, 782
of vertebræ, 887
vertebral, 875
vesical. *See* Vesical plexus
vessels of, 782
Vidian, 880
visceral, 871, 945
vitelline, 62, 926, 934
Velum interpositum, 550, 604
medullary, 511
inferior, 508, 511, 530
superior, 476, 486, 511, 529
pendulum palati, 998
Vena or Venæ, advehentes, 935
basis vertebræ, 887
cava inferior, 870, 892, 936, 937, 944
fossa of, 1111, 1115
orifice of, 784, 787
superior, 870, 871, 936, 944, 954,
orifice of, 784, 787
comites, 871, 946, 955
magna Galeni, 604, 882
minimæ cordis, 787, 788, 871
revehentes, 935
vorticosæ, 725, 728
Venous arch, dorsal, of foot, 900, 946
of hand, 890
transverse, of foot, 900
sinuses of cranium, 880, 883, 954
valves of heart, 931
Ventricles, cerebral, development of,
fifth, 573
fourth, 475, 487, 1227
acustic area of, 488, 520, 527
area postrema, 488
calamus scriptorius of, 488
choroid plexuses of, 512, 529,
eminentia teres of, 488, 524, 5
floor of, 482, 487, 499, 527
foramen of Majendie of, 512, 6
fovea inferior of, 488, 527
superior of, 488, 527
funicular separans, 488
lateral recesses of, 487, 512, 60
ligula of, 512
locus cœruleus of, 488, 527
obex of, 512
plica choroidea of, 529
roof of, 487, 511, 529
striæ acusticæ of, 488, 497, 52
substantia ferruginea of, 488
trigonum acustici of, 488
hypoglossi of, 488, 516, 527
vagi of, 488, 517, 527
lateral, 476, 573, 1226
amygdaloid tubercle of, 576

Ventricles, cerebral, lateral, body of, 573, 574
lateral, bulb of, 576
calcar avis of, 576
choroid plexus of, 575, 576, 578, 604
development of, 596
eminentia collateralis of, 560, 576, 578
ependyma of, 573, 578
fimbria of, 576
floor of, 574, 576
foramina of, 573, 594
hippocampus major of. *See* Hippocampus
horns of, 573, 574, 576, 1224
nuclei of, 574, 575, 576, 579, 580
pars centralis of, 574
shape of, 573
tænia semicircularis of, 574, 576, 582
trigonum of, 576
third, 476, 550
choroid plexus of, 604
floor of, 550
foramina of, 551
gray commissure of, 544, 550, 594
infundibulum of, 548, 551, 595
recessus opticus of, 551, 595
pinealis of, 551, 594
suprapinealis of, 551
roof of, 550, 595
sulcus of Monro of, 551, 594
walls of, 550
Ventricles of heart, 783, 788
development of, 929
left, 790
muscle of, 792
right, 789
septum of, 789, 791, 929, 947
of larynx, 967
of nose, 719
of Verga, 572
Ventriculus, 1050
terminalis of cord, 459
Verga, ventricle of, 572
Vermiform appendix, 993, 1074, 1079
in animals, 1080
development of, 1078
at different ages, 1080
lymphoid nodules of, 1081
mesentery of, 1080, 1105
position of, 1079
structure of, 1080
surgical anatomy of, 1273
valve of, 1080
vessels of, 1081
Vermis of cerebellum, 506, 507,
Vernix caseosa, 779
Vertebra or Vertebræ, 74
anticlinal, 88
architecture of, 89
cervical, 75, 76
coccygeal, 75, 86, 94, 221
common characters of, 75
dorsal, 75, 80
epiphyses of, 91
false, 74, 75, 83
fixed, 74, 75, 83
fulcralis, 90
lumbar, 75, 82
movable, 74, 75, 76
ossification of, 91
prominens, 80
pseudo-sacral, 94
relation of, to cord, 452
to spinal nerves, 608
Vertebra or Vertebræ, relation of important structures to spines of, 1289
sacral, 75, 83, 93
serial homologies of, 94
thoracic, 75, 80
true, 74, 75, 76
typical, 75
variations in, 77, 78, 79, 80, 82, 83, 86, 89
veins of, 887
Vertebral aponeurosis, 318, 391
arterial tubercle, 1252
artery, 818, 823, 933, 940, 941, 947, 950, 1253
border of scapula, 186
bow, 90
Vertebral column, 74
articulation with cranium, 266
cartilaginous, 90
curves of, 87
length of, 89
ligaments of, 266
membranous, 30, 90
movements of, 264, 398
surgical anatomy of, 1291
variations in, 89
as a whole, 87
foramen, 75, 76, 77, 80, 82
formula, 75, 90
line of pleural reflexion, 980
plexus, 708
vein, 875
Vertebrarterial foramen, 77, 78, 79, 80, 94
Vertebrate theory of skull, 183
Vertebro-chondral ribs, 97
Vertebro-sternal ribs, 97
Vertical plate of ethmoid, 128, 173
of palate bone, 141, 159
Verumontanum, 1178
Vesalius, foramen of, 125, 157, 170
Vesical arteries. *See* Arteries
plexus, 714, 1157
venous inferior, 896, 945
superior, 896, 945
Vesicle, auditory, 703
blastodermic, 18, 19, 50
cerebral, 22, 66, 476, 481
chorionic, 52
germinal, 11
optic, 478, 480, 741
otic, 769
recessus labyrinthi of, 769
umbilical, 48
Vesicula seminalis, 1159, 1162, 1164
development of, 1199, 1205
structure of, 1166
vessels of, 1167
Vestibular ganglion, 689, 699
nerve. *See* Nerve
Vestibule, aortic, 791
aqueduct of, 119, 759
of labyrinth, 759
aqueduct of, 759
crista of, 759
development of, 769
fenestra ovalis of, 752, 759
fissura of, 760
macula cribrosa of, 759
pyramid of, 759
recessus cochlearis of, 759
ellipticus of, 759
sphericus of, 759
of larynx, 965
of mouth, 995



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